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Ejercicio físico durante el embarazo, ganancia ponderal y retención de peso posparto

Physical exercise during gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention

El ejercicio físico regular ha mostrado un alto beneficio clínico no solo en el sistema cardiovascular, sino a través de todos los sistemas corporales, tomando mayor relevancia en los últimos años el concepto de “poli-píldora”, con pruebas sólidas desde los estudios epidemiológicos hasta los estudios básicos (1). Nuestro genoma ha desarrollado sobre la evolución una sensibilidad a esta “intervención” eficaz, relativamente libre de efectos adversos y disponible a bajo costo, pero de difícil implantación psicosocial. El periodo perinatal no es ajeno a esta sólida recomendación sobre ejercicio físico y, en una revisión específica de Guías de Práctica Clínica de 11 países diferentes, 10 de ellas recomendaron ejercicio físico a intensidad moderada durante el embarazo; esto es entre 12 y 14/21 en percepción subjetiva de esfuerzo y/o entre 60-75% de frecuencia cardíaca máxima, algo mayor en mujeres deportistas. Además, también existe cierto consenso en el volumen total de actividad física expresada en frecuencia y tiempo, variando entre un mínimo de 45 minutos/semana, hasta 150 minutos/semana, repartidos entre 2 o 3 sesiones dependiendo del nivel condición física previo al embarazo (2). Según una reciente revisión sistemática de 61 ensayos clínicos aleatorizados, la modalidad de ejercicio físico más favorable para la salud maternal fueron los programas multicomponentes (3), atendiendo tanto a las adaptaciones cardiopulmonares con ejercicios de resistencia o aeróbicos, como musculoesqueléticas con ejercicios de fuerza o resistencia muscular (3).

Estas recomendaciones no solo afectan a la esfera física, sino también a la mental, como trasluce un reciente metaanálisis (4), el cual destaca que la actividad física reduce el riesgo de síntomas de depresión posparto. Aunque el ejercicio físico durante el embarazo es seguro, existen algunos criterios de interrupción del ejercicio como son: mareos, dolor abdominal, pérdida de líquido amniótico, disnea antes del esfuerzo o sangrado vaginal (2).

La evidencia actual de ejercicio físico en embarazadas no difiere de los programas de intervención clásicos de hidrocinesiterapia en embarazadas (fisioterapia en medio acuático) (5), donde además de las recomendaciones sobre actividad física y reducción del sedentarismo, se realiza un programa específico de ejercicios en seco y en agua para atender mediante fisioterapia las adaptaciones musculoesqueléticas, vasculares y antropométricas en la fase final del embarazo, parto y posparto (6).

El ejercicio físico durante el embarazo ya ha demostrado con pruebas sólidas sus bondades respecto a la diabetes gestacional y a los desajustes hipertensivos en un metaanálisis (7), sin afectar a la edad gestacional al momento del parto, ni aumentar las probabilidades de cesárea en mujeres con peso normal (8).

Pero tal y como se preguntaba una revisión sistemática, publicada en el año 2015, ¿importa la dosis de ejercicio para reducir la ganancia de peso gestacional? (9). Tras revisar más de 4.000 artículos, no se observaron patrones claros ni consistencia de la dosis de ejercicio y las reducciones en el aumento de peso, ya que solo el 38% de las intervenciones lograron reducciones estadísticamente significativas en el aumento de peso gestacional. Las intervenciones con mayor adherencia fueron las más exitosas y se realizaron predominantemente entre las poblaciones con peso normal. A pesar de la evidencia no clara del efecto de la dosis de ejercicio para reducir la ganancia de peso gestacional, se encontraron intervenciones exitosas que lo sugerían de forma limitada a población de activa de peso normal en estudios de baja validez interna.

En este sentido, el presente número de la revista científica *Nutrición Hospitalaria* trae los resultados del estudio titulado “Influencia del ejercicio físico en la evolución del peso gestacional y posparto; ensayo clínico aleatorizado” (10),

editorial

en el que se testó una intervención basada en la enseñanza de la natación, junto con ejercicios específicos en piscina poco profunda, detallada en la publicación previa del protocolo (11). Los resultados del estudio arrojan nueva evidencia en el estado actual de la temática, con una efectividad a favor del grupo experimental, expresado en *d* de Cohen, de 0,91 sobre ganancia ponderal y de 1,66 de retención de peso a los 4 meses, lo que supone un tamaño del efecto grande según Cohen (12). Cabe destacar en el presente estudio que el grado de cumplimiento fue del 92% y las participantes tenían un peso normal y con un porcentaje alto de actividad física moderada tanto laboral como recreacional, lo cual podría tener peso en los resultados, como ya se adelantó en los estudios previos (11). Por ello sería recomendable que los investigadores futuros utilicen métodos para aumentar la adherencia y el cumplimiento, especialmente entre las mujeres con sobrepeso y obesidad, y utilicen herramientas objetivas de medición para evaluar con precisión la dosis de ejercicio realizada por los participantes y el impacto en la composición corporal (13).

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Nutrición artificial

Precipitado negro en nutrición parenteral

Black precipitate in parenteral nutrition

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Resumen

Introducción: durante la infusión de una nutrición parenteral sin lípidos se observó un precipitado negro en el filtro. Hay hallazgos similares publicados en los que se han detectado cobre y azufre (proveniente de la cisteína) en la composición del precipitado.

Objetivo: comprobar que la cisteína y el cobre intervienen en la formación del precipitado.

Métodos: se tomaron muestras de la solución de nutrición parenteral antes y después de su paso por el filtro. Se analizaron en ambas muestras las concentraciones de aminoácidos mediante cromatografía de intercambio iónico y derivatización post-columna con ninhidrina en un equipo Biochrom 30 y las de cobre mediante espectrometría de absorción atómica en un equipo PerkinElmer AAnalyst™ 200.

Resultados: las concentraciones de cisteína y cobre en la solución disminuyeron en un 29,3% y 75,9%, respectivamente.

Conclusiones: la disminución de las concentraciones de cisteína y cobre en la solución filtrada sugieren que ambos están involucrados en la formación del precipitado negro observado en el filtro.

Palabras clave:

Nutrición parenteral.
Precipitación
química. Filtración.
Cobre. Cisteína.
Aminoácidos.

Abstract

Introduction: a black precipitate was observed in the filter during the infusion of a parenteral nutrition without lipids. There are similar findings published in which copper and sulphur (from cysteine) were found in the composition of the precipitate.

Objective: to determine if copper and cysteine are involved in the formation of the precipitate.

Methods: samples of the parenteral nutrition solution were taken before and after its passage through the filter. Amino acids concentrations were analysed in both samples by ion exchange chromatography and post-column derivatization with ninhydrin in a Biochrom 30 device. Copper concentrations were measured by atomic absorption spectrometry in a PerkinElmer AAnalyst™ 200 device.

Results: a decrease in cysteine concentration of 29.3% was found. The concentration of copper decreased by 75.9%.

Conclusions: the decrease in the concentrations of cysteine and copper in the filtered solution suggest that both are involved in the formation of the black precipitate observed in the filter.

Key words:

Parenteral
nutrition. Chemical
precipitation.
Filtration. Copper.
Cysteine. Amino
acids.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La nutrición parenteral (NP) aporta tanto macronutrientes (hidratos de carbono, aminoácidos y lípidos) como micronutrientes (electrolitos, oligoelementos y vitaminas). La composición de las mezclas de NP es variable para asegurar que se cubren los requerimientos nutricionales de cada paciente y compleja, al contener muchos compuestos químicos distintos. Por ello, se pueden producir procesos de desestabilización o degradación de sus componentes, o incluso interacciones químicas entre los mismos. Es común que en estas mezclas de NP pueda haber partículas provenientes de las soluciones utilizadas en su propia elaboración o formadas después, durante el almacenaje o administración. Se han reportado muertes por embolia pulmonar debido a la infusión de soluciones de NP con precipitados (1). Por ello se recomienda administrar las NP con un filtro de 0,2 micras si no contienen lípidos o de 1,2 micras en caso de que sí los contengan (2). Además, el uso de filtros se ha asociado con una menor incidencia de flebitis y una vida más larga de la vía periférica (3,4).

Para garantizar la estabilidad de las mezclas de NP, las principales sociedades españolas implicadas en la nutrición artificial elaboraron un documento de consenso en el que se especifican una serie de recomendaciones que las mezclas de NP deben cumplir (5). Es labor del farmacéutico comprobar que la concentración de los distintos productos está dentro de los márgenes de seguridad antes de la preparación de la NP.

Durante la infusión de una nutrición parenteral sin lípidos en un paciente adulto en nuestro centro se observó la aparición de un precipitado de color negro en el filtro de administración (Fig. 1). Esta NP cumplía con las recomendaciones recogidas en el documento de consenso. Existen estudios recientes que también describen la retención de precipitados oscuros en los filtros de administración (6-10). En ellos se identifica un compuesto con un elevado contenido en cobre y en azufre, probablemente debido a la reacción del cobre con aminoácidos ricos en azufre, como la cisteína. En un estudio previo, modificamos los componentes de la NP en la que se produjo el precipitado para identificar qué componentes podrían estar implicados en su formación. Encontramos que no se producía oscurecimiento del filtro cuando retirábamos la solución de oligoelementos o cuando cambiábamos la solución

de aminoácidos a otra que no aportaba cisteína. Las referencias citadas motivaron que en los análisis nos centráramos en este aminoácido y oligoelemento.

El objetivo principal de nuestro estudio es confirmar que la cisteína y el cobre están implicados en la formación del precipitado encontrado. El objetivo secundario es conocer la concentración del resto de aminoácidos antes y después de la filtración.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Se preparó una nutrición parenteral siguiendo el protocolo de nuestro hospital con 1.625 ml de volumen y la siguiente composición: aminoácidos 100 g, glucosa 150 g, sodio 173 mEq, potasio 60 mEq, cloruro 217 mEq, magnesio 15 mEq, calcio 15 mEq, fósforo 18,63 mmol, vitaminas y oligoelementos. La solución de oligoelementos empleada fue Addamel[®], que aporta 127 µg de cobre por cada ml. Como solución de aminoácidos se usó Tauramin[®] 10%, que contiene 0,5 g de cisteína/cistina por cada litro.

Inmediatamente después de su preparación, la solución fue filtrada con un filtro de 0,2 µm por caída libre. Se tomaron muestras de la solución de NP antes y después de su paso por el filtro. Las muestras se analizaron mediante cromatografía de intercambio iónico y derivatización post-columna con ninhidrina en un equipo Biochrom 30 para determinar las concentraciones de cisteína y con un equipo PerkinElmer AAnalyst[™] 200 de espectrometría de absorción atómica para medir la cantidad de cobre.

Se calculó el porcentaje de los aminoácidos, incluyendo la cisteína, y del cobre respecto a la concentración anterior a la filtración.

Al obtener variaciones no esperadas de algunas concentraciones de aminoácidos y al indicarnos en el Servicio de Bioquímica que iban a comprar un equipo nuevo, repetimos el análisis. La composición de la NP elaborada fue idéntica a la anterior a excepción del volumen (1.605 ml), sodio (105 mEq), cloruro (149 mEq) y la fuente de oligoelementos que fue el Supliven[®]. Inmediatamente después de su preparación, la solución fue filtrada con un filtro de 0,2 µm. Se analizaron muestras de la NP tomadas antes y después del paso por el filtro. Además, se analizó una muestra de Tauramin[®] 10%. La técnica fue también cromatografía de intercambio iónico y derivatización post-columna con ninhidrina, pero el equipo utilizado fue un Biochrom 30+ que se diferenciaba del anterior en determinar niveles de cistina en vez de cisteína.

RESULTADOS

Las concentraciones de cobre disminuyeron en un 75,9%, pasando de 31,6 µg/dl antes del filtro a 7,6 µg/dl después del filtro.

Las concentraciones de aminoácidos teóricas del Tauramin[®] 10% y las halladas en el segundo análisis fueron similares excepto los aminoácidos cistina, aspártico y lisina (Tabla I). Las concentraciones de aminoácidos se asemejaron más a las teóricas en segundo estudio que en el primero (Tabla II).

En el primer análisis, las concentraciones de aminoácidos antes y después del filtrado fueron muy similares con excepción de la



Figura 1.

Precipitado negro en el filtro en la NP del primer estudio.

Tabla I. Concentraciones de aminoácidos en micromol/l del Tauramin® 10% y porcentaje de las concentraciones analizadas respecto a las teóricas

micromol/l	Teórico	Segundo estudio	% teórico
Isoleucina	38.118,47	37.050,00	97,20
Leucina	60.989,56	59.870,00	98,16
Lisina	51299,59	51.740,00	100,86
Metionina	23.456,87	24.210,00	103,21
Fenilalanina	33.294,99	33.908,00	101,84
Treonina	37.777,03	38.090,00	100,83
Triptófano	8.813,59	9.360,00	106,20
Valina	58.749,48	61.340,00	104,41
Histidina	25.781,50	24.300,00	94,25
Cisteína	4126,77		
Cistina		130,00	
Tirosina	1.931,67	2.070,00	107,16
Alanina	101.021,44	99.540,00	98,53
Arginina	57.405,28	58.240,00	101,45
Prolina	69.486,67	66.930,00	96,32
Serina	47.578,27	47.740,00	100,34
Glicina	106.567,20	98.120,00	92,07
Acidoaspártico	15.026,30	11.580,00	77,06
Acidoglutámico	59.131,38	62.380,00	105,49
Taurina	11.985,62	12.340,00	102,96

cisteína y la tirosina, en las que se observó una disminución de la concentración del 29,3% y del 19%, respectivamente (Tabla III). En el segundo, las concentraciones de aminoácidos antes y después del filtrado fueron también muy similares con excepción de la cistina, que aumentó un 55% (Tabla IV).

DISCUSIÓN

En el primer análisis las concentraciones de aminoácidos encontradas varían mucho respecto a las teóricas. Esto podría ser debido a la demora en el análisis de las muestras, ya que estas estuvieron a temperatura ambiente y sin fotoprotección durante varios días antes del análisis. Algunos autores han descrito degradación de aminoácidos en nutriciones parenterales binarias dejadas a temperatura ambiente durante largos periodos de tiempo (11). El segundo análisis, donde las concentraciones son más similares a las teóricas, se hizo inmediatamente después de la preparación.

Llama la atención que en la mayoría de los aminoácidos estudiados en el segundo análisis, el porcentaje respecto a las concentraciones teóricas sea mayor al 100%. Esto pudiera ser debido a que en la preparación de la nutrición parenteral se introdujo el contenido de la botella de 1.000 ml de Tauramin® 10%, pero

Tabla II. Porcentaje de las concentraciones teóricas en las soluciones iniciales

	Primer análisis	Segundo análisis
Isoleucina	78,19	102,91
Leucina	44,48	104,66
Lisina	56,97	106,94
Metionina	78,12	108,45
Fenilalanina	73,45	107,45
Treonina	76,88	106,43
Triptófano	89,92	105,80
Valina	72,76	110,07
Histidina	80,35	100,54
Cisteína	23,29	
Tirosina	127,02	103,86
Alanina	38,36	106,27
Arginina	72,64	107,22
Prolina	102,30	102,00
Serina	69,49	105,96
Glicina	34,49	104,97
Aspártico	74,92	81,39
Glutámico	73,33	111,37
Taurina	85,57	108,60

no se midió exactamente el contenido y en la fabricación está permitido que el contenido sea hasta un 10% superior al nominal. La cisteína, en el primer análisis, además de ser el aminoácido con mayor disminución respecto a la concentración teórica, es el que más disminuye al filtrar la solución. Es una contrariedad que no hayamos podido determinar la cisteína en el segundo análisis. Si tomamos la concentración de cistina, a partir del análisis del Tauramin® 10% (81 µmol/l), esta cantidad aumenta mucho en la nutrición parenteral inicial (180 µmol/l) y más todavía después de la filtración (280 µmol/l). Esto sugiere que existe oxidación de cisteína a cistina, ya que la cisteína en presencia de oxígeno y a pH neutro o ligeramente alcalino pasa a cistina en una reacción reversible dependiente del pH.

La disminución de cisteína y cobre indica que estos dos componentes con gran probabilidad estén involucrados en la formación del precipitado. En la mayoría de los casos descritos previamente en la literatura se estudian NP pediátricas (7-9). Las soluciones de aminoácidos utilizadas en pediatría contienen cisteína, aminoácido que se considera esencial en niños prematuros (12). En nuestro caso, el hallazgo ocurrió en una nutrición parenteral de adulto preparada con una solución de aminoácidos que, a diferencia de otras soluciones habitualmente utilizadas en pacientes adultos, contiene también cisteína.

Thibault, en su caso, utiliza como fuente de aminoácidos Prime-ne®, solución de aminoácidos pediátrica de Baxter® (7).

Tabla III. Primer análisis: concentraciones detectadas de aminoácidos en la mezcla de NP antes y después del filtrado

	Concentración antes del filtro (μmol/l)	Concentración después del filtro (μmol/l)	Porcentaje detectado del inicial
Isoleucina	18.340,92	18.301,03	99,78
Leucina	16.696,10	16.300,83	97,63
Lisina	17.984,85	17.984,81	100,00
Metionina	11.276,38	11.391,30	101,02
Fenilalanina	15.049,43	14.982,78	99,56
Treonina	17.872,06	17.768,80	99,42
Triptófano	4.877,16	4.938,11	101,25
Valina	26.304,12	26.276,93	99,90
Histidina	12.747,36	12.719,58	99,78
Cisteína	591,43	418,28	70,72
Tirosina	1.509,93	1.222,98	81,00
Alanina	23.844,30	23.706,85	99,42
Arginina	25.662,16	25.688,85	100,10
Prolina	43.745,36	43.771,40	100,06
Serina	20.345,27	20.345,49	100,00
Glicina	22.615,41	22.755,41	100,62
Acido aspártico	6.928,08	6920,03	99,88
Acido glutámico	26.685,51	26.723,48	100,14
Taurina	6.311,53	6.287,88	99,63

Tabla IV. Segundo análisis: concentraciones detectadas de aminoácidos en la mezcla de NP antes y después del filtrado

	Concentración antes del filtro (μmol/l)	Concentración después del filtro (μmol/l)	Porcentaje detectado del inicial
Isoleucina	24.440	24.900	101,88216
Leucina	39.770	40.620	102,137289
Lisina	34.180	34.820	101,87244
Metionina	15.850	16.180	102,082019
Fenilalanina	22.290	22.710	101,884253
Treonina	25.050	25.510	101,836327
Triptófano	5.810	5.970	102,753873
Valina	40.290	41.120	102,060065
Histidina	16.150	16.430	101,733746
Cistina	180	280	155,555556
Tirosina	1.250	1.270	101,6
Alanina	66.890	68.180	101,928539
Arginina	38.350	39.060	101,851369
Prolina	44.160	45.070	102,060688
Serina	31.410	32.000	101,878383
Glicina	69.700	70.960	101,807747
Acido aspártico	7.620	7.790	102,230971
Acido glutámico	41.030	41.860	102,02291
Taurina	8.110	8.260	101,849568

Las concentraciones de las soluciones de NP donde encuentra estos precipitados tienen un rango de entre 1 y 4,3 mcg/ml de cobre y de entre 2,8 y 5 mg/ml de cisteína, que son considerablemente mayores a las teóricas de nuestra solución de NP (0,78 mcg/ml de cobre y 0,3 mg/ml de cisteína).

Foinard y cols., también utilizando Primene® como fuente de aminoácidos, encuentran precipitados negros similares a los nuestros. En sus exhaustivos estudios con nutriciones parenterales pediátricas que contenían concentraciones de entre 1,2 y 2,68 mcg/ml de cobre y de 0,77 a 1,72 mg/ml de cisteína, hallan también una disminución de la concentración de cisteína en la solución filtrada con respecto a la previa. Describen una disminución de la concentración de cisteína a tiempo 0 frente al valor teórico, lo que coincide con nuestro estudio, donde la concentración de cisteína ya estaba disminuida en la muestra tomada antes de la filtración. Las concentraciones de los demás aminoácidos son en su mayoría cercanas al 100% y nunca inferiores al 80% de las concentraciones teóricas, menos la fenilalanina y la metionina que son ligeramente inferiores al 80%. Además del aminograma, también estudian la composición de los precipitados del filtro por espectroscopia de dispersión y encuentran que los elementos predominantes en los conglomerados formados son el cobre y el azufre (8).

Hanff y cols. describen oscurecimiento de filtros con concentraciones de 0,51 a 0,72 mcg/ml de cobre y de 0,53 a 0,59 mg/ml de cisteína, concentraciones más similares a las encontradas en nuestro caso. También utilizan Primene® como solución de aminoácidos. Observaron esta precipitación tras el cambio de la solución de oligoelementos de Peditrace® a Addamel®. El cambio se produjo con el objetivo de aumentar los aportes de hierro en pacientes que iban a mantener la NP de forma crónica. A su vez, Addamel® contiene cantidades más elevadas de cobre. El problema se resolvió cambiando otra vez a Peditrace® o disminuyendo el aporte de oligoelementos (9).

Por el momento, no conocemos las implicaciones clínicas que podría tener este hallazgo. Sin embargo, con base en la bibliografía disponible, no parece recomendable la infusión de gran cantidad de partículas al torrente circulatorio (1-4,13). A pesar de ello, el uso de filtros en la administración no es una práctica habitual en todos los hospitales, por lo que la aparición indesea-

da de este tipo de compuestos ha podido pasar desapercibida. Además, los lípidos que habitualmente suelen contener las NP pueden dificultar su detección debido a la coloración blanca que adquiere la mezcla.

En conclusión, los hallazgos encontrados en nuestro análisis sugieren que el precipitado es un compuesto que contiene cisteína y cobre. Sería necesario realizar más estudios para conocer qué variables de la preparación y composición de la NP favorecen el mecanismo de formación de dicho precipitado. La utilización de filtros en la administración de al NP es fundamental para evitar el paso de estos precipitados al paciente.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición artificial

Home enteral nutrition: clinical-nutritional analysis and outcomes of 10 years of public policy

Nutrición enteral domiciliaria: análisis clínico-nutricional de los 10 años de política pública

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Abstract

Background and aims: home enteral nutrition (HEN) is an established treatment for clinically stable patients. The objective of this study was to determine the frequency and the situation of patients in HEN, in the capital city in the south of Brazil.

Methods: in this retrospective study, we recorded all new cases of HEN in adults in Curitiba, Brazil, from January 2006 to December 2015. Data were collected by a dietitian from medical records of patients attending public health settings. The following data were analyzed: clinical diagnosis, diet prescribed during hospitalization and at discharge, and feeding access types. Kaplan-Meier and Cox regression analyses were used to calculate survival.

Results: a total of 1,231 patients were included. There was a 425% increase in the frequency of HEN over the years studied. The mean age was 66.7 years, and 54.4% were men. Neurological diseases were the most prevalent (46.4%), followed by cancer (33.6%). Eight hundred and one patients (65.1%) died during this period. Mean HEN duration was 180 days (95% CI 163.6-193.4), with a significant difference between neurological diseases (median: 180 days) and cancer (median: 210 days) ($p < 0.05$). Neurological disease was an independent risk factor for mortality in patients on HEN (HR: 1.17; CI: 1.08-1.27).

Conclusions: the study shows an increase in HEN. Neurological diseases prevailed and presented a risk of mortality, and more than half of the patients with NED died in this period.

Key words:

Enteral feeding.
Enteral nutrition.
Adults. Elderly.

Resumen

Introducción y objetivos: la nutrición enteral domiciliaria (NED) es un tratamiento establecido para pacientes clínicamente estables. El objetivo de este estudio fue determinar la frecuencia y la situación de los pacientes con NED en la capital del sur de Brasil.

Métodos: en este estudio retrospectivo se registraron todos los nuevos casos de NED en adultos en Curitiba, Brasil, de enero de 2006 a diciembre de 2015. Los datos fueron recolectados por un nutricionista de historiales clínicos de pacientes que frecuentan establecimientos de salud pública. Se analizaron los siguientes datos: diagnóstico clínico, dieta prescrita durante la estancia hospitalaria y en el momento del alta y acceso alimenticio. Se utilizaron los análisis de Kaplan-Meier y regresión de Cox para calcular la supervivencia.

Resultados: fueron incluidos 1.231 pacientes. Hubo un aumento del 425% en la frecuencia de NED a lo largo de los años estudiados. La edad media fue de 66,7 años y el 54,4% eran hombres. Las enfermedades neurológicas fueron las más prevalentes (46,4%), seguidas de las neoplasias (33,6%). Durante este periodo murieron 801 pacientes (65,1%). La duración media de la NED fue de 180 días (IC 95%, 163,6-193,4), con una diferencia significativa entre enfermedades neurológicas (mediana: 180 días) y cáncer (mediana: 210 días) ($p < 0,05$). La enfermedad neurológica fue un factor de riesgo independiente para la mortalidad en pacientes en NED (HR: 1,17; IC: 1,08-1,27).

Conclusiones: el estudio muestra un aumento en la NED. Las enfermedades neurológicas prevalecieron y presentaron riesgo de mortalidad y más de la mitad de los pacientes murieron durante la NED.

Palabras clave:

Alimentación enteral.
Nutrición enteral.
Adultos. Persona mayor.

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INTRODUCTION

Home enteral nutrition (HEN) is a therapy for stable patients who need long-term care without the need of hospitalization (1). HEN is a model of care of growing importance, aimed at optimizing diet transition, improving patient's quality of life and reducing treatment-related costs compared with hospital care (2).

The use of HEN has increased worldwide. In Italy, the incidence (per million population per year) and the prevalence (per million population) of patients receiving HEN was 223.4 and 279.4, respectively, between 2001 and 2005 (3). In Spain, from 1999 to 2010 the incidence of patients receiving HEN was three per million inhabitants (4). In Poland, the number of patients with HEN increased from 5.4 to 46.6 per million inhabitants in five years (2008-2013) (5). However, in Brazil, there are no data available on the characteristics of individuals treated with HEN provided by the Unified Health System, but this is not an impediment to conducting cross-sectional surveys and without intervention on the topic. A prevalence study conducted in Federal District, Brazil, in Zaban and Novaes (6) showed a prevalence of 175.64 cases per million inhabitants and an incidence of 147.98 cases per million inhabitants per year in 2005.

In Curitiba, Brazil, the Nutrition Assistance Program for People with Special Dietary Needs (PAN) began in 2006 with the objective of providing nutritional assistance and tools for nutritional care of HEN patients. The program is a milestone for the Brazilian Unified Health System and has been recognized internationally as a model for HEN care.

The knowledge of epidemiological data of patients receiving HEN is necessary for the development of effective and cost-effective public policies. Thus, the objective of this study was to determine the frequency and the situation of patients on HEN, in the capital city in the south of Brazil.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

We retrospectively analyzed the data of adult patients on HEN between January 2006 and December 2015, beneficiary of the PAN. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Curitiba Secretary of Health and by the Ethics Committee of the Federal University of Paraná (49265615.1.0000.0102/2015).

Data were collected from the medical records in public health centers of the city. For the purposes of analysis, data were collected in the first and last home visits of all patients, adults and elderly, registered in the PAN. The outcomes were categorized as discharge, continuation in PAN or death.

Baseline diagnosis and associated diseases, previous HEN as well as HEN access were evaluated.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The survival curves were evaluated using the Kaplan-Meier method, defined as the time interval between PAN inclusion and death. The follow-up time was defined as the median time intervals, and

the variable of interest was death from any cause. "Survivors" were defined as those patients who were either withdrawn or discharged from the PAN. Life table analysis and Kaplan-Meier curves were performed to assess the duration of the HEN. The Cox proportional hazards analysis was used to assess which variables were correlated with survival. Statistical data were generated with the IBM SPSS Statistics 22.0 (Chicago, IL, USA). All statistical tests were two sided, and $p < 0.05$ was used to indicate statistical significance.

RESULTS

The study included 1,231 individuals on HEN. Curitiba's population was estimated to be 1,893,997 in 2015, distributed in a territorial area of 435,036 km² (population density of 4,027 inhabitants/km²). Most of the population are adults (87.3%) and women, and the most prevalent age group is 30-34 years old.

Figure 1 depicts the frequency of patients on HEN, including total number, the number of survivors and the number of deaths from 2006 to 2015. There was an exponential increase (425%) in HEN in the years studied, with a peak in 2013. The number of deaths was considerably higher compared to survivors from 2006 to 2013, although these rates were similar in 2015.

Mean age was 66.7 ± 17.6 years; 68.0% ($n = 837$) were elderly. The majority of the sample was male ($n = 670$; 54.4%). Nasogastric tube was the main route of administration (38.3%). Diet prescription by dietitians at the hospital was mostly tube feeding formula (50.6%), whereas at home, patients were mostly prescribed a blended diet (38.6%) (Table I).

The most prevalent diagnoses were neurological diseases (46.4%), especially stroke (28.8%) and Alzheimer disease (9.2%); cancer (33.6%), especially head and neck (14.3%) and esophagus (8.9%); and trauma (7.1%) (Table II). Among comorbidities, there was a high prevalence of systemic arterial hypertension (586, 47.8%) and diabetes mellitus (243, 19.8%).

Neurological diseases were the most prevalent in every year of the study period, except in the year 2015, where cancer was the most prevalent. The other diseases showed a similar frequency throughout the years, except for kidney diseases that increased in the year 2015 (Fig. 2).

Of the 1,231 patients on HEN, 65.1% ($n = 801$) died, 21.0% achieved full oral nutrition, 5.9% continued on HEN, 5.3% moved to another city and in 2.9% the outcome was not reported. Figure 3 shows the Kaplan-Meier survival curves for all patients. Overall, the median survival was 180 days (95% CI: 163.6-193.4). A significant difference ($p > 0.05$) was found between the survival of patients with neurological diseases (median survival of 180 days), cancer (median survival of 210 days) and other diseases (median survival of 150 days).

Cox proportional hazards model was employed, assuming duration of HEN as exposure time and 801 deaths as failure endpoint. This analysis showed that neurological disease was an independent risk factor for mortality in patients on HEN. However, gender, nasogastric tube, commercial formulas during hospitalization, blended diet at home, gravity feeding, oral supplementation and presence of a caregiver were not risk factors for mortality in HEN patients (Table III).

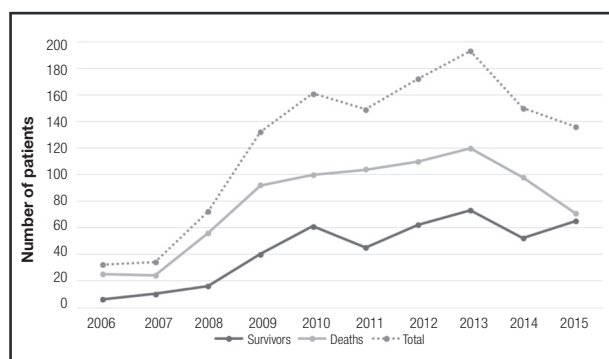


Figure 1.

Frequency of patients (total number, number of survivors and number of deaths) on home enteral nutrition in a ten-year period in Curitiba, Brazil.

Table I. Characteristics of the home enteral nutrition prescribed to patients (n = 1,231) in Curitiba, Brazil, from 2006 to 2015

	Frequency (%)
<i>Types of tube^a</i>	
Nasogastric tube	472 (38.3)
Jejunal tube	204 (16.6)
Gastrostomy tube	421 (34.2)
Jejunostomy tube	131 (10.6)
<i>Types of enteral diet at hospital discharge^b</i>	
Blended diet	228 (21.4)
Tube feeding formula	538 (50.6)
Combination of above	298 (28.0)
<i>Types of tube feeding at home^c</i>	
Blended diet	456 (38.6)
Tube feeding formula	335 (28.4)
Combination of above	389 (33.0)
<i>Tube feeding schedule at home^d</i>	
Gravity	1,107 (90.3)
Bolus feeding	59 (4.8)
Oral	57 (4.6)
Infusion pump	3 (0.2)
Oral supplementation ^e	382 (31.3)
Caregiver ^f	1,161 (95.1)

^aMissing data n = 3. ^bMissing data n = 167. ^cMissing data n = 51. ^dMissing data n = 5. ^eMissing data n = 12. ^fNumber of patients whose home enteral nutrition was performed by a caregiver; missing data n = 10.

DISCUSSION

This study shows the frequency of patients on HEN in Curitiba, Brazil, from 2006 to 2015. The number of HEN patients considerably increased during this period; however, it was not possible to establish the prevalence of HEN patients, especially due to

Table II. Prevalence of diseases (International Classification of Diseases, 10th revision, ICD-10) in patients (n = 1,231) on home enteral nutrition in Curitiba, Brazil, from 2006 to 2015

ICD-10 version: 2016 classification	n (%)
<i>Neurological diseases</i>	571 (46.4)
Stroke	354 (28.8)
Alzheimer's disease	113 (9.1)
Parkinson	31 (2.5)
Cerebral palsy	18 (1.5)
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	16 (1.3)
Others	39 (3.2)
<i>Cancer</i>	414 (33.6)
Head and neck	176 (14.3)
Esophagus	110 (8.9)
Stomach and intestine	61 (5.0)
Central nervous system	15 (1.2)
Others	52 (4.2)
<i>Trauma</i>	88 (7.1)
Traumatic brain injury	39 (3.2)
Polytrauma	18 (1.4)
Others	31 (2.5)
<i>Diseases of the digestive system</i>	33 (2.7)
Hepatic cirrhosis	6 (0.5)
Crohn's disease	4 (0.3)
Others	23 (1.9)
<i>Renal diseases</i>	29 (2.4)
Chronic kidney disease	27 (2.2)
Acute kidney disease	2 (0.2)
<i>Metabolic diseases</i>	24 (1.9)
Type 2 diabetes mellitus	9 (0.7)
Malnutrition	10 (0.8)
Others	5 (0.4)
<i>Pulmonary diseases</i>	23 (1.9)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	11 (0.9)
Pneumonia	8 (0.7)
Others	4 (0.3)
<i>Infections</i>	20 (1.6)
AIDS	11 (0.9)
Others	9 (0.7)
<i>Cardiovascular diseases</i>	19 (1.5)
Cardiac insufficiency	13 (1.1)
Others	6 (0.4)
Other diseases	10 (0.8)

underregistration of cases, particularly of those with less severe conditions, and also because health records were not in electronic format, contributing to missing data.

In some countries, such as Poland, Great Britain, Spain and Italy, epidemiological data of HEN patients are annually recorded.

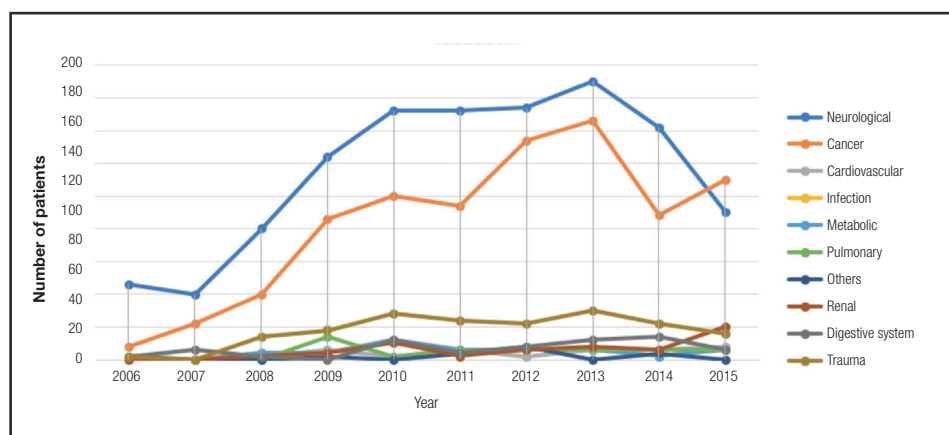


Figure 2.

Descriptive time series of the most prevalent diagnoses of patients (n = 1,231) on home enteral nutrition in Curitiba, Brazil, between 2006 and 2015.

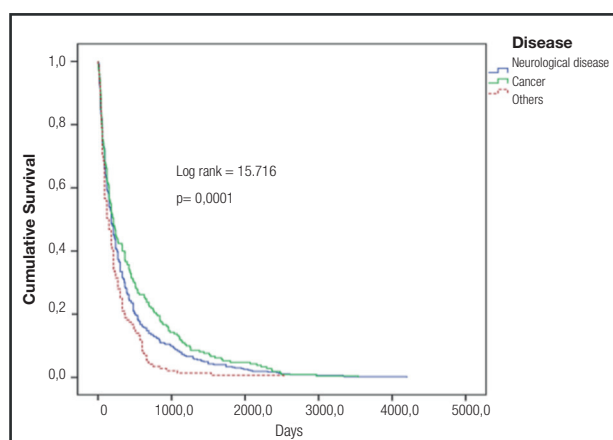


Figure 3.

Kaplan-Meier overall survival curve in patients on home enteral nutrition (n = 1,231) in Curitiba, Brazil, between 2006 and 2015.

Table III. Cox regression model with hazard ratio (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) for mortality in patients on home enteral nutrition

	Adjusted HR	95% CI	p
Neurological diseases	1.17	1.08-1.27	0.00
Male gender	0.99	0.91-1.08	0.85
Nasogastric tube	1.08	0.99-1.17	0.08
Commercial formula (at the hospital)	0.96	0.89-1.05	0.38
Blended diet (at home)	0.97	0.90-1.06	0.57
Gravity feeding (at home)	1.08	0.95-1.23	0.25
Oral supplementation	0.94	0.86-1.03	0.17
Caregiver	1.08	0.88-1.34	0.42

However, data on HEN from Latin American populations are scarce in the literature. In Brazil, Zaban and Novaes (6) reported an increase in both incidence and prevalence of HEN patients over a five-year period in the Federal District.

Santarpia et al. (1) reported an increase from 355 patients on HEN in 2005 to 1,165 in 2012. Nevertheless, unlike our study, the authors considered not only patients on HEN, but also on parenteral and oral nutrition. Mundi et al. (9), in a prevalence study conducted in 2013 in the United States, showed a prevalence of 437.88 HEN patients per million population; in adults, this number was 248.85. The number of patients on HEN increased considerably from 1992 to 2013 (231.4%). In Spain, De Luis et al. (4) reported that the prevalence of HEN patients increased from 9.52 in 1999 to 30.0 in 2010 per 100,000 inhabitants. In Poland, the prevalence of HEN increased from 5.4 to 47.6/1,000,000 inhabitants from 2008 to 2013 (5).

In our study, most of the patients were men (54.4%), similarly to other studies (4,5), but different to others (3,11,12).

In this study, the mean age of the sample was 66.7 years, like the study by De Luis et al. (4) (68.5 years), the study by Klek et al. (5) (61.4 years) and others (11,12). In our study, the elderly accounted for 68.0% of the sample. Wong et al. (2), in a systematic review, showed that most patients of HEN-related studies were elderly.

Although most patients were on long-term enteral nutrition support, the nasogastric tube was the main route of administration (38.3%). In seven years of follow-up, Morelo et al. (3) also demonstrated that nasogastric tube was the most predominant feeding route. A long period on nasogastric feeding can cause an exponential increase in the risk for complications (e.g., infection and mechanical complications) in the access site. On the other hand, European studies (5,11) have shown that gastrostomy tube

and jejunostomy tube were more commonly used for long term enteral nutrition therapy (5,11). However, although both gastrotomy and jejunostomy are safe ways to provide food to patients, placement of these long-term access tubes requires surgery and is expensive in Brazil.

In our study, it was shown that most dietitians prescribe commercial diets at hospital discharge of patients with HEN (50.6%). It is known that the use of commercial products in HEN reduces the frequency of hospitalization for infections and pneumonia of home patients (2). That would also reduce costs with HEN. Nevertheless, there is a low subsidy for these products, and the Brazilian Unified Health System provides limited funding and use strict criteria for dispensing these products. In this regard, patients with severe malnutrition, patients with cancer as primary diagnosis, and those with degenerative diseases are considered as a priority by the Unified Health System and the PAN. If, on the one hand, commercial formulas are the "diet of choice" for enteral nutrition support, on the other hand, a blenderized diet was prescribed to 38.6% of patients on HEN. Ginzburg et al. (12) warn that little attention has been paid to the lack of communication between the hospital setting and the community. Since most HEN patients have chronic diseases, homemade diet can be a cheaper alternative for the patients, their families and the health system as well (14). It is worth mentioning, however, that although homeblend feedings are a very convenient solution, the risk of tube clogging and underfeeding due to low protein/energy value of the diets should be considered. In the present study, there was no association of homemade diet with survival.

Neurological diseases, especially stroke (28.8%), were the most prevalent in our sample (46.4%). Dysphagia is usually the indication for HEN in these diseases. Similar prevalence of neurological diseases has been reported by other authors (3-5,10,13). Santarpia et al. (1) showed that neurological diseases increased 327% in adults and 287% in the elderly in a seven-year follow-up study. In a recent study, Orlandoni et al. (13) demonstrated that patients with dementia had better chances of survival than patients without dementia, with no statistical significance though.

We found a high prevalence of cancer (33.6%), mainly head and neck cancer (14.3%). The prevalence of cancer patients on HEN varies in the literature, ranging from 2.7%, as reported by Morelo et al. (3), to 34.1%, found by De Kuis et al. (4). In the study by Santarpia et al. (1), the incidence of cancer increased by 327% in adults and 359% in the elderly during the seven years of follow-up.

In our study, neurological patients had lower survival rates than cancer patients, maybe because of their poorer health status. Although this was a follow-up study, conclusions about the association of survival with nutritional status, complications or adherence to HEN cannot be drawn due to the lack of data. Ginzburg et al. (12), in Israel, reported a decrease in adherence to HEN and an increase in HEN complications and mortality over time.

Mean duration of HEN was 180 days in our study. In the study by Morelo et al. (3), the median duration of HEN was 296-307 days among neurological diseases patients, 258 days in stroke patients, 71 days in head and neck cancer patients and 97 days

among patients with abdominal cancer. In a study by De Luis et al. (4) mean time on HEN was 159.9 days; 75 patients died and 691 survived. Age was significantly related to survival (HR 1.03; 95% CI 1.01-1.05, $p < 0.05$) and 49.4% progressed to oral nutrition by the end of the study.

Because this is one of the first studies in Brazil, especially in the southern region of the country, it would be interesting to perform a nationwide multicenter study. HEN is a rapidly expanding modality of health care, and public policies for such therapy should be implemented and routinely evaluated based on time series analysis. A nationwide multicentric study would also allow to describe the current situation of the Brazilian Unified System in terms of coverage and support for patients on HEN.

HEN aims to improve the quality of life of the patient, in addition to enabling recovery of health. In light of the high hospital system costs, HEN may be not only a cost-effective alternative, but also a way of individualizing and humanizing health care. Besides, HEN requires a closer integration of the multidisciplinary team, especially the dietitian, with the patient and the family. Re-evaluation and improvement of public policies for HEN in developing countries such as Brazil is needed.

In conclusion, our findings show a high frequency of patients on HEN, with a predominance of men, patients with neurological diseases and cancer. Survival rates varied according to the diagnosis, with an association of neurological diseases with poor survival.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Caryna Eurich Mazur was responsible for the design, data analysis, interpretation and writing of the article. The other authors contributed to the writing and final revision of the article.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición artificial

Influence of the type of amino acids in the formation of precipitates of copper and sulphur in parenteral nutrition

Influencia del tipo de aminoácidos en la formación de precipitados de cobre y azufre en nutrición parenteral

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Abstract

Objective: we found a black precipitate during the infusion of a parenteral nutrition without lipids. The objective of this study is to check the composition of the precipitate and the influence of the type of amino acids in its formation.

Methods: four PN bags were prepared with the following composition: 1 l of amino acids solution, 150 g glucose, 60 mEq potassium, 217 mEq chloride, 105 mEq sodium, 15 mEq magnesium, 15 mEq calcium, 18.63 mmol phosphorus and trace elements (Addamel[®]). Each bag was prepared using a different type of amino acids solution with different amount of cysteine per litre: Tauramin[®] 10% (0.5 g/l), Primene[®] 10% (1.89 g/l), Tauramin[®] 12.6% (0.62 g/l) or Synthamin[®] 10% (0 g/l). Tauramin[®] 10% and Primene[®] 10% were packaged in glass containers whereas Tauramin[®] 12.6% and Synthamin[®] 10%, in plastic. The contents of each bag were filtered using Pall NEO96E 0.2 micron filters. A 2.25% area of each filter was observed by scanning electron microscopy at 100x magnification. The analysis by energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was performed at 1,000x magnification.

Results: in the Primene[®] 10% and Tauramin[®] 10% filters, a greater amount of precipitate was observed than with Tauramin[®] 12.6% and Synthamin[®] 10%. The percentage of copper and sulphur in each area of the filters studied was, respectively, 22.9% and 11.5% (Primene[®] 10%), 19.3% and 9.6% (Tauramin[®] 10%), 3.7% and 0% (Tauramin[®] 12.6%), 2.5% y 0% (Synthamin[®] 10%).

Conclusions: the observed precipitate contains copper and sulphur. Precipitate formation occurs in high cysteine content amino acids solutions packaged in glass containers. It is important to use filters in the administration of PN to ensure that this type of precipitates are retained and do not pass to the patient.

Key words:

Parenteral nutrition. Chemical precipitation. Filtration. Copper. Cysteine. Amino acids.

Resumen

Objetivo: durante la infusión de una nutrición parenteral (NP) sin lípidos se observó un precipitado negro en el filtro. El objetivo del estudio es comprobar la composición del precipitado y la influencia del tipo de aminoácidos en su formación.

Métodos: se prepararon cuatro bolsas de NP con 1.000 ml de solución de aminoácidos, 150 g glucosa, 60 mEq potasio, 217 mEq cloruro, 105 mEq sodio, 15 mEq magnesio, 15 mEq calcio, 18,63 mmol fósforo y oligoelementos (Addamel[®]). Se utilizaron distintos tipos de aminoácidos con concentraciones de cisteína diferentes: Tauramin[®] 10% (0,5 g/l), Primene[®] 10% (1,89 g/l), Tauramin[®] 12,6% (0,62 g/l) o Synthamin[®] 17 (0 g/l). Tauramin[®] 10% y Primene[®] 10% estaban envasados en vidrio y Tauramin[®] 12,6% y Synthamin[®] 17, en plástico. El contenido de cada bolsa se filtró utilizando filtros Pall NEO96E de 0,2 micras. Se estudió un área de 2,25% de cada filtro mediante microscopía electrónica de barrido a 100 aumentos. El análisis mediante espectroscopia de dispersión de energía (EDS) se realizó a 1.000 aumentos.

Resultados: en los filtros con Primene[®] 10% y Tauramin[®] 10%, se observó mayor precipitación que con Tauramin[®] 12,6% y Synthamin[®] 10%. El porcentaje de cobre y azufre en cada área de los filtros estudiados fue 22,9% y 11,5% (Primene[®] 10%), 19,3% y 9,6% (Tauramin[®] 10%), 3,7% y 0% (Tauramin 12,6%), 2,5% y 0% (Synthamin 10%).

Conclusiones: el precipitado observado contiene cobre y azufre. La formación de precipitados se produce con soluciones de aminoácidos envasadas en vidrio, con gran cantidad de cisteína. Es importante usar filtros en la administración de NP para garantizar que los precipitados se retengan y no se pasen al paciente.

Palabras clave:

Nutrición parenteral. Precipitación química. Filtración. Cobre. Cisteína. Aminoácidos.

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INTRODUCTION

Parenteral nutrition (PN) provides macronutrients (carbohydrates, amino acids and lipids) and micronutrients (electrolytes, trace elements and vitamins) intravenously to patients who cannot be fed through the digestive tract. Due to the fact that PN contains a high number of different chemical compounds, there is the possibility of destabilization, degradation or chemical interactions that may lead to iatrogenesis.

It is common for intravenous solutions to contain particles in suspension and their infusion does not produce immediate serious symptoms in most cases (1). However, its long-term infusion has been linked to increased risk of phlebitis (2), and capillary lesions have been found in necropsies that could be the cause of pulmonary hypertension (3). Recently, several studies (4-6) have shown a decrease in serious complications in critical pediatric patients with the use of filters for the retention of particles, supporting the hypothesis of the harmful effect of infusion.

In PN there may be particles coming from the solutions used in the PN's compounding process or formed later, during storage or administration. Therefore, it is recommended to administer the PN with a 0.2 µm filter if it does not contain lipids or 1.2 µm if it does. In addition, the use of filters has been associated with a lower incidence of phlebitis and longer life of the peripheral route.

Due to the great variability in the composition of the PN formulae, before preparation, the pharmacist validates that the concentration of the different products is within safety margins. In Spain, some years ago, a consensus document was drawn up with the aim of facilitating this validation work (7). During the infusion of parenteral nutrition without lipids in an adult patient in our hospital, the appearance of a black precipitate in the filter was observed. This nutrition had been validated by a pharmacist and met the recommendations of the consensus document. There are recent studies that also describe the retention of black precipitates in administration filters (8-12). The studies identified a compound with a high copper and sulfur content, probably due to the interaction of copper with sulfur-rich amino acids. Due to the few studies of this type on precipitation at the time of preparing the document, it is not usual to contemplate this possibility in the validation of parenteral nutrition.

In a previous study we observed a decrease in copper and cysteine concentrations in the PN after its filtration (13).

The objective of our study was to identify the composition of the precipitate found and to determine if by changing the order of addition of the components the formation of precipitate varied.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Four PN bags were prepared with the following composition: 1,000 ml of amino acids solution, 150 g glucose, 60 mEq potassium, 217 mEq chloride, 105 mEq sodium, 15 mEq magnesium, 15 mEq calcium, 18.63 mmol phosphorus and trace elements (Addamel®). Each bag was prepared using a different type of amino acids solution: Primene® 10%, Tauramin® 10%, Tauramin®

12.6% and Synthamin® 10%. Table I lists the components and quantities used in the preparation of the PN. The amounts per litre of the different types of amino acids in the solutions and the type of containers can be seen in table II. The trace element solution used was Addamel®, whose composition can be seen in table III.

The order of addition used was: amino acid solution, glucose, electrolyte solution, trace elements and sodium glycerophosphate.

Two more bags with the same composition were made, one with Tauramin® 10%, and another with Tauramin® 12.6%. However, the order of addition in the preparation was altered, so that instead of adding trace elements and sodium glycerophosphate at the end, the trace elements were added to the glucose and the glycerophosphate to the amino acid solution.

All the solutions were filtered with Pall NEO96E® filters (Pall Corporation) of 0.2 µm immediately after the preparation and were observed during the infusion to detect color changes. Subsequently, these filters were transported to Pall Corporation for further analysis.

Filter membrane preparation for analysis was by the introduction of air into the Pall NEO96® filter inlet connector using a 20 ml syringe to remove any liquid residue from the membrane. The filters were then opened and a 1 cm² filter section was removed. The samples were mounted for analysis by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) with the membrane oriented upstream side uppermost. The samples were dried in a desiccator before SEM analysis.

The filter samples were examined using a computer-aided scanning electron microscope (SEM Hitachi TM300) and equipped with an X-ray scattering spectrometry system (Quantax 70). The samples were coated with gold before analysis by SEM and EDS. A thin gold coating was deposited on the surface of each sample using a vacuum coating system (Gold Agar Sputter Coater), to increase the conductivity of the samples. All the samples were initially analyzed at the point with coordinates 0.0 to 100x magnification through SEM. The images obtained by SEM were also analyzed at 500x and 1,000x in the 0.0 field of view with an acceleration voltage of 15 kV. The analysis by EDS was carried out at 1,000x magnification.

Table I. PN components

Component	
Amino acid solution 10%	1,000 ml
Glucose 30%	500 ml
Hyperlite® 60 mEq potassium 217 mEq chloride 105 mEq sodium 15 mEq magnesium 15 mEq calcium	75 ml
Trace elements (Addamel®)	10 ml (127 mcg/ml copper)
Sodium glycerophosphate 1 mmol/ml (Glycophos®)	15 ml

Table II. Amount of amino acids per liter of amino acids solution and the type of containers

g/l	Synthamin® 10%	Tauramin® 10%	Tauramin® 12.6%	Primene® 10%
Type of container	Plastic	Glass	Plastic	Glass
gN/l	16.50	15.40	19.61	15.00
L-Isoleucine	6.00	5.00	6.25	6.70
L-Leucine	7.30	8.00	10.00	10.00
L-Lysine	7.25	7.50	9.37	11.00
L-Methionine	4.00	3.50	4.38	2.40
L-Phenylalanina	5.60	5.50	6.88	4.20
L-Treonina	4.20	4.50	5.63	3.70
L-Tryptophan	1.80	1.80	2.25	2.00
L-Valine	5.80	7.00	8.75	7.60
Histidine	4.08	4.00	5.00	3.80
L-Cysteine/Cystine	0.00	0.50	0.62	1.89
L-Tyrosine	0.40	0.35	0.44	0.45
L-Alanine	20.70	9.00	11.25	8.00
L-Arginine	11.50	10.00	12.50	8.40
L-Proline	6.80	8.00	10.00	3.00
L-Serine	5.00	5.00	6.25	4.00
Glycine	0.00	8.00	10.00	4.00
L-Aspartic acid	0.00	2.00	2.50	6.00
L-Glutamic acid	0.00	8.70	10.88	10.00
Taurine	0.00	1.50	1.88	0.60
Aminoacetic acid	10.30	0.00	0.00	0.00
Ornithine	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.49

Table III. Composition of Addamel®

Component	mcg/10 ml
Selenium	31.58
Molybdenum	19.19
Iron	1,117
Zinc	6,593
Manganese	274.7
Copper	1,271
Chromium	10.4
Fluorine	950
Iodine	126.9

RESULTS

Immediately after the PN preparation, a darkening of the solution in the bags was observed, and this became more pronounced with time (Fig. 1).

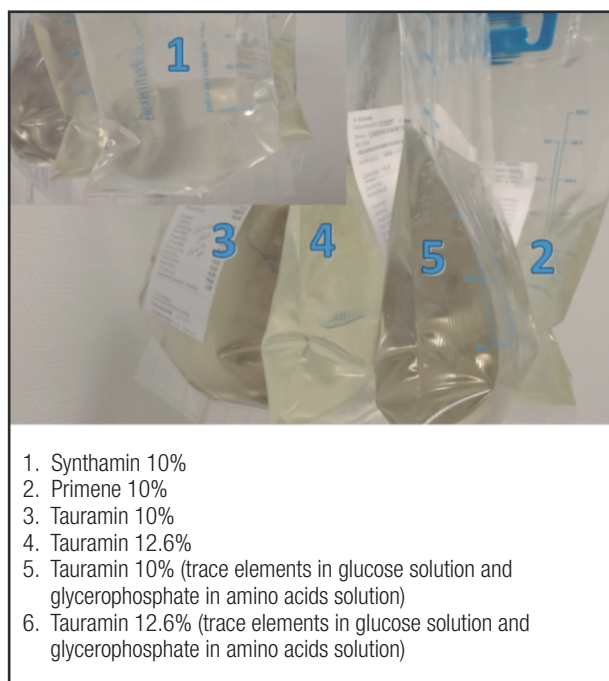
The images at 1,000x magnification (Fig. 2) show a large amount of precipitate in PNs with amino acids that contained cysteine and that were packed in glass. The precipitates appeared

compacted in the filter. In the Primene® 10% and Tauramin® 10% filters, a greater amount of precipitate was observed than with Tauramin® 12.6% and Synthamin® 10%. The EDS analysis showed that the percentage of copper and sulphur in each area of the filter studied was much higher in the solutions with Tauramin® 10% or with Primene® 10%, than in the rest (Table IV).

There were no differences in the percentages obtained by the order of addition.

DISCUSSION

All the filters where the black precipitate was observed contained sulphur and copper, and it seems that this precipitation is produced with solutions of amino acids with cysteine and multi-elements containing copper. However, no correlation was found between the cysteine concentration of the amino acids and the formation of the precipitate. In our study, we found this precipitate with Tauramin® 10%, and not with Tauramin® 12.6%, when the concentration of cysteine is higher in the latter. This could be due to the different type of container. Tauramin® 12.6% is packed in a plastic bag that could be permeable to gases, unlike Tauramin® 10%, which is packed in glass.

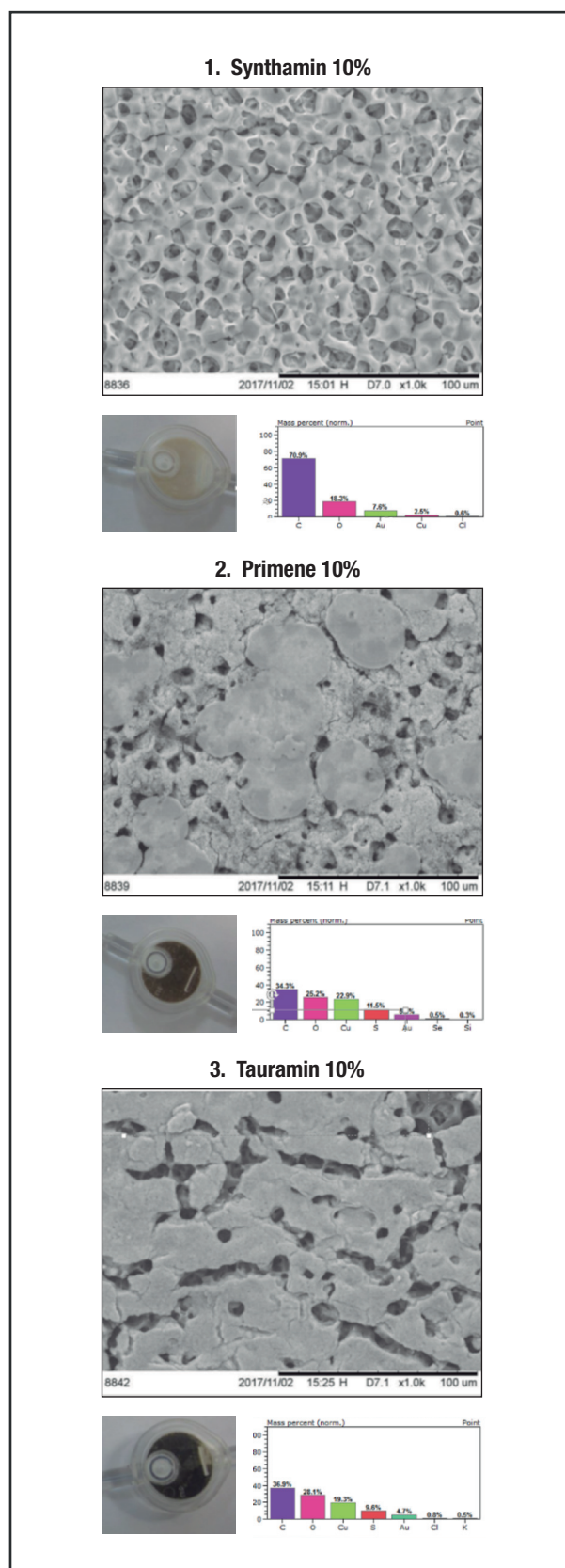
**Figure 1.**

Coloration of the PN within a few hours.

Several authors described precipitates similar to those we have found (2-6). In all cases there was a darkening of the filter which alerted about the presence of the precipitate. Most of them used pediatric amino acid solutions, since they contain cysteine, an amino acid considered to be essential in premature babies. In our case, the finding occurred in adult parenteral nutrition, but with a Tauramin® solution, which, unlike other adult solutions, contains cysteine and taurine.

Thibault used Primene® as a source of amino acids, but the precipitate found is different from that observed in the present study. A solid yellow-brown substance in suspension is described in the filter. The concentrations of the PN solutions where these precipitates are found have ranges of 1-4.3 mcg/ml of copper and 2.8-5 mg/ml of cysteine, which are considerably higher than the theoretical ones of our PN solution (0.78 mcg/ml of copper and 0.3 mg/ml of cysteine) (10).

Foinard et al., also with Primene® as a source of amino acids, found black precipitates similar to ours. They studied mixtures of pediatric PNs with concentrations of 1.2-2.68 mcg/ml of copper and 0.77 to 1.72 mg/ml of cysteine and found a decrease in the concentration of cysteine in the filtered solution with respect to the previous one. They described a very pronounced decrease in the concentration of cysteine at time 0 compared to the theoretical value, which is in line with the darkening observed in the bags immediately after preparation. They also studied, as in our case, the filters by SEM and EDS and found particle conglomerates on the surface of the filters that are very similar to those we have found. The EDS analysis identified high concentration of copper and sulphur and low amount of chlorine, phosphorus, calcium,

**Figure 2.**

x1,000 magnification images.

Table IV. Percentage of sulphur and copper detected on the filters by EDS

Name	Sulphur	Copper
Synthamin® 10%	0%	2.5%
Primene® 10%	22%	11.5%
Tauramin® 10%	19.3%	9.6%
Tauramin® 12.6%	3.7%	0%

silicon, selenium, magnesium and potassium (12). Our results were very similar. In addition to high percentages of sulphur and copper when the composition of the PN involved Tauramin® 10% or Primene® 10%, in some of the filters we also found chlorine, potassium, silicon or selenium, although in much lower percentages.

Hanff et al. found darkening of filters with concentrations of 0.51-0.72 mcg/ml of copper and 0.53-0.59 mg/ml of cysteine, concentrations more similar to those found in our case. They also used Primene® and observed this precipitation due to the change of trace element solution, from Peditrace® to Addamel® in patients with long-term PN in order to provide iron. Addamel® has much higher amounts of copper. They solved this problem by changing again to Peditrace® or decreasing the amount of Addamel® (11).

The amount of copper provided by an Addamel® ampoule (1.27 g) is much higher than the recommended daily dose (0.3-0.5 mg) (14-17). More studies are needed with trace elements supplements that are more in line with the recommendations.

It would be necessary to carry out more research to know from what concentrations of copper and cysteine these precipitates are produced and what other variables of the preparation and composition of PN are involved in their formation.

We used filters in the administration of all the PNs and for this reason we have been able to detect the formation of these precipitates. In our case, it was a PN without lipids, so the black precipitate was detected immediately in the filter and a darkening of the solution and black spots in suspension were observed in the bag. In all-in-one PNs, although black dots could be seen in suspension, this precipitation could go unnoticed, and if filters are not used, these precipitates would pass to the patient. We do not know the clinical implications that it may have, but it does not seem advisable to infuse a large quantity of particles into the bloodstream.

In conclusion, the findings found in our composition analysis based on EDS on the filters indicate that sulphur and copper intervene in the composition of the precipitate. These precipitates are produced when amino acid solutions containing cysteine and packed in glass and high concentrations of copper are used. It is important to use filters in the administration of parenteral nutrition to avoid the passage of these precipitates to the patient.

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Trabajo Original

Paciente crítico

Effects of omega-3 fatty acids supplementation on neoadjuvant chemotherapy-induced toxicity in patients with locally advanced breast cancer: a randomized, controlled, double-blinded clinical trial

Efecto de la suplementación con ácidos grasos omega-3 sobre la toxicidad secundaria a quimioterapia neoadyuvante en pacientes con cáncer de mama localmente avanzado: ensayo clínico aleatorizado

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Abstract

Background: antineoplastic treatment for locally advanced breast cancer (LABC) includes neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NeoCT). However, side effects occur frequently, affecting the functional capacity and quality of life of patients as a result of the proinflammatory state of this therapy. In this work, omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA Ω -3) were administered as they have been reported to modulate some molecular pathways such as nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- κ B), which is associated with toxicity secondary to the administration of anthracyclines.

Objective: to evaluate the effects of PUFA Ω -3 on the toxicity, side effects, body composition, cardiometabolic profile and quality of life in women with LABC after NeoCT.

Methods: fifty-three women with LABC were included in a double-blinded, placebo-controlled clinical trial. Patients randomly received 2.4 g/day of PUFA Ω -3 (EPA 1.6 g and DHA 0.8 g) or placebo during NeoCT with adriamycin/cyclophosphamide followed by paclitaxel +/- trastuzumab. Adverse effects related to chemotherapy were evaluated using the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events (CTCAE, version 4.03) and the Subjective Global Scale of the Edmonton Symptom Assessment System (ESAS). Body composition and cardiometabolic blood profile were also evaluated.

Results: no significant differences were found between groups in the hematological and anthropometric toxicity parameters. Within the Edmonton scale, xerostomia presented a significant improvement ($p = 0.032$) in patients supplemented with PUFA Ω -3.

Conclusion: supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 showed no change in body composition, cardiometabolic profile or toxicity due to NeoCT. It only showed significant improvement in xerostomia.

Resumen

Introducción: uno de los tratamientos para el cáncer de mama localmente avanzado (CMLA), es la quimioterapia neoadyuvante (QTNeo). Sin embargo, los efectos secundarios afectan el estado funcional y la calidad de vida de los pacientes, especialmente por el estado inflamatorio que originan. En este trabajo se administraron los ácidos grasos poliinsaturados omega 3 (AGPI Ω -3), ya que modulan negativamente algunas vías moleculares como las que inducen la activación del factor nuclear-kappa B (NF- κ B), involucrado con los mecanismos de toxicidad secundaria a la administración de antraciclinas.

Objetivo: valorar el efecto de los AGPI Ω -3, sobre la toxicidad de la QTNeo, la composición corporal, el perfil cardiometabólico y la calidad de vida en mujeres con CMLA durante la QTNeo.

Métodos: se incluyeron cincuenta y tres mujeres con CMLA, en un estudio clínico doble ciego controlado con placebo. Las pacientes recibieron aleatoriamente 2,4 g/día de AGPI Ω -3 (EPA 1,6 g y DHA 0,8 g) o placebo durante la quimioterapia neoadyuvante con adriamicina/ciclofosfamida seguido de paclitaxel +/- trastuzumab. Se evaluaron los eventos adversos relacionados con la quimioterapia mediante los Criterios de terminología común para eventos adversos (CTCAE, versión 4.03) y la escala Global subjetiva del Sistema de Evaluación de los Síntomas de Edmonton (ESAS), la composición corporal y la toxicidad cardiometabólica.

Resultados: no hubo diferencias significativas entre los grupos en los parámetros de toxicidad hematológica y antropométricos. La xerostomía de la escala de Edmonton, presentó una mejora significativa ($p = 0,032$) en los pacientes suplementados con AGPI Ω -3.

Conclusión: la suplementación con AGPI Ω -3 no mostró cambios en la composición corporal ni en la toxicidad del tratamiento neoadyuvante, solamente se encontró una mejoría significativa en la xerostomía.

Key words:

PUFA Ω -3.
Neoadjuvant
chemotherapy. Breast
cancer. Toxicity. Body
composition.

Palabras clave:

Ácidos grasos
poliinsaturados
omega 3 (AGPI
 Ω -3). Quimioterapia
neoadyuvante.
Cáncer de
mama. Toxicidad.
Composición
corporal.

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INTRODUCTION

Breast cancer is a public health problem worldwide (1) due to its high incidence as well as the toxicity of antineoplastic treatments that affect nutritional status as well as the quality of life (2). Moreover, patients with cancer frequently present alterations in body composition, such as loss of muscle mass and increased adipose tissue, which, in turn, relate to an increased risk of developing cardiometabolic alterations (8,9). These conditions are also considered to be secondary to the chronic inflammation (10,11). Likewise, some studies consider that the affection of body composition and the increase of systemic inflammatory mediators cause an increase in toxicity secondary to chemotherapy, thus yielding a vicious circle that negatively affects the quality of life of patients presenting an increase in symptomatology associated with chemotherapy as fatigue, pain, anxiety and depression, as well as sleep disturbances and an increased risk of early recurrence of the disease (3,6,12). Hence, co-adjuvant therapies are of profound interest.

In line with this, some studies have shown that omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA Ω -3) may attenuate such side effects and, in addition, help to maintain body weight and preserve muscle mass (3-6). These benefits have been attributed to their anti-inflammatory effects, including an increase in circulating adiponectin and other anti-inflammatory molecules, concomitant to the suppression of proinflammatory pathways such as that mediated by nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- κ B) (3,6,7). Previous studies in breast and esophageal cancer have reported that supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 during chemotherapy improves the quality of life of these patients by improving anemia, thrombocytopenia and reducing gastrointestinal toxicity (mucositis, stomatitis and diarrhea) (13,14). In addition, supplementation with 2.5 g PUFA Ω -3 during chemotherapy in patients with lung cancer showed to preserve body weight and skeletal muscle (15).

In breast cancer, neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NeoCT) is the first-line treatment in patients with locally advanced disease (16). NeoCT is administered before a radical treatment (surgical and/or radiotherapy) in order to control the systemic disease, reduce the size of the tumor and, in some cases, achieve a complete pathological response of the tumor. This improves locoregional control, disease-free periods and the overall survival of patients (17). However, nowadays there are no studies analyzing the toxic effect of NeoCT in patients with locally advanced breast cancer (LABC).

Based on these observations, we hypothesized that the supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 may decrease the toxicity secondary to chemotherapy during the NeoCT treatment in patients with LABC.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY DESIGN

A randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled trial was conducted during the six months of NeoCT of 53 women with LABC. They were randomized into two groups: 27 women for the PUFA Ω -3 group and 26 for the placebo group. Inclusion criteria were: women aged 18-80 years, with a diagnosis of LABC con-

firmed by histopathology, in a clinical stage IIA-III B. Exclusion criteria were: patients who received chemotherapy different from anthracyclines-taxanes, uncontrolled chronic diseases (chronic heart failure, renal insufficiency, hypertension, diabetes mellitus), known allergy to fish or fish oil, alterations of the digestive tract that would prevent the intake of the supplement, consumption of other supplements with PUFA Ω -3, and BMI < 18 kg/m².

This study was conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki. It was approved by the Universidad Anáhuac México IRB and the Ethics Committee of the National Commission of Scientific Research of the National Institute of Cancerology (reg. 015/035/IMO CEI/971). Each participant provided written informed consent.

TREATMENT

All participants received NeoCT: four cycles of adriamycin and cyclophosphamide, followed by 12 weeks of paclitaxel +/- trastuzumab. Patients also received an oral supplement with PUFA Ω -3 derived from fish oil in gel capsules, daily dosed at 2.4 g (four capsules) in a 2:1 ratio of DHA/EPA, or a placebo (sunflower oil) during the six months of chemotherapy. Capsules were identical in appearance (Alta Tecnología en Alimentos Funcionales S.A. de C.V., Mexico) and in accordance with the Good Manufacturing Practices for food. Adherence was assessed every month by counting the leftover capsules of the previous month; patients with compliance < 90% were excluded from analysis.

TOXICITY EVALUATION

Adverse events were evaluated by the attending physician, three weeks after the beginning of NeoCT, in accordance with the CTCAE (version 4.03, June 2010). Acute events, unscheduled hospital admissions and delayed chemotherapy were obtained from medical records. The patient's perspective of some symptoms (including pain, fatigue, drowsiness, nausea, appetite, dyspnea, anxiety, insomnia, malaise, and xerostomia) was evaluated with the Edmonton Symptom Assessment System (ESAS, Spanish version) (18,19).

BODY COMPOSITION EVALUATION

Weight and body composition (body fat mass, fat-free mass, skeletal muscle, body mass index [BMI]) were evaluated by bioelectrical impedance (Inbody 720; Biospace, Ltd., Seoul Korea), using an eight-point tetrapolar tactile electrode system. Measurements were obtained at the beginning of the study, and again at three and six months (20).

METABOLIC EVALUATION

Blood samples were obtained at the beginning of the study (prior to any treatment), three and six months after therapy. Serum

glucose, lipid profile (total cholesterol, HDL and LDL cholesterol and triglycerides), insulin, glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), liver function tests, urea and creatinine were determined by immunoassay (Beckman Coulter, California, USA). Insulin resistance (IR) was estimated using the homeostatic model (HOMA-IR) (21).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate normality of the data. Demographic variables are presented as descriptive statistics. The differences between PUFA Ω -3 and the placebo groups were compared using Student's *t* test for independent groups. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to evaluate intra-group changes. Proportions were evaluated using the Fisher's exact test. Statistical significance was considered when $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

A total of 81 patients were screened for this study; 53 were included and randomized: 27 women for PUFA Ω -3 and 26 for

placebo supplementation (Fig. 1). Recruitment was carried out from March 2015 to January 2016, whereas clinical follow-up was completed in September 2017.

Mean age of the patients was 50.7 ± 2.1 (range 28-72) and 49.5 ± 2.1 years (range 29-68) in the groups of PUFA Ω -3 and placebo, respectively (p ns). Comorbid conditions were registered in 19 patients of the sample (36.5%): 13 (25%) patients with diabetes mellitus (DM2) and nine patients (17.3%) with systemic arterial hypertension (HAS). Twenty-seven patients (52%) were premenopausal. Four (7.7%) patients were classified as stage IIA, 20 (38.5%) patients as IIB, 22 (42.3%) patients as IIIA and six (11.5%) patients as IIIB. Infiltrating ductal carcinoma was the most prevalent histological subtype, presented in 46 (90%) patients. Clinical characteristics of the patients are shown in table I.

ADVERSE EVENTS

The most common data of toxicity secondary to the administration of chemotherapy were hematological alterations: leukopenia, neutropenia and anemia were similar in both groups and there was no significant difference between them. As a consequence of

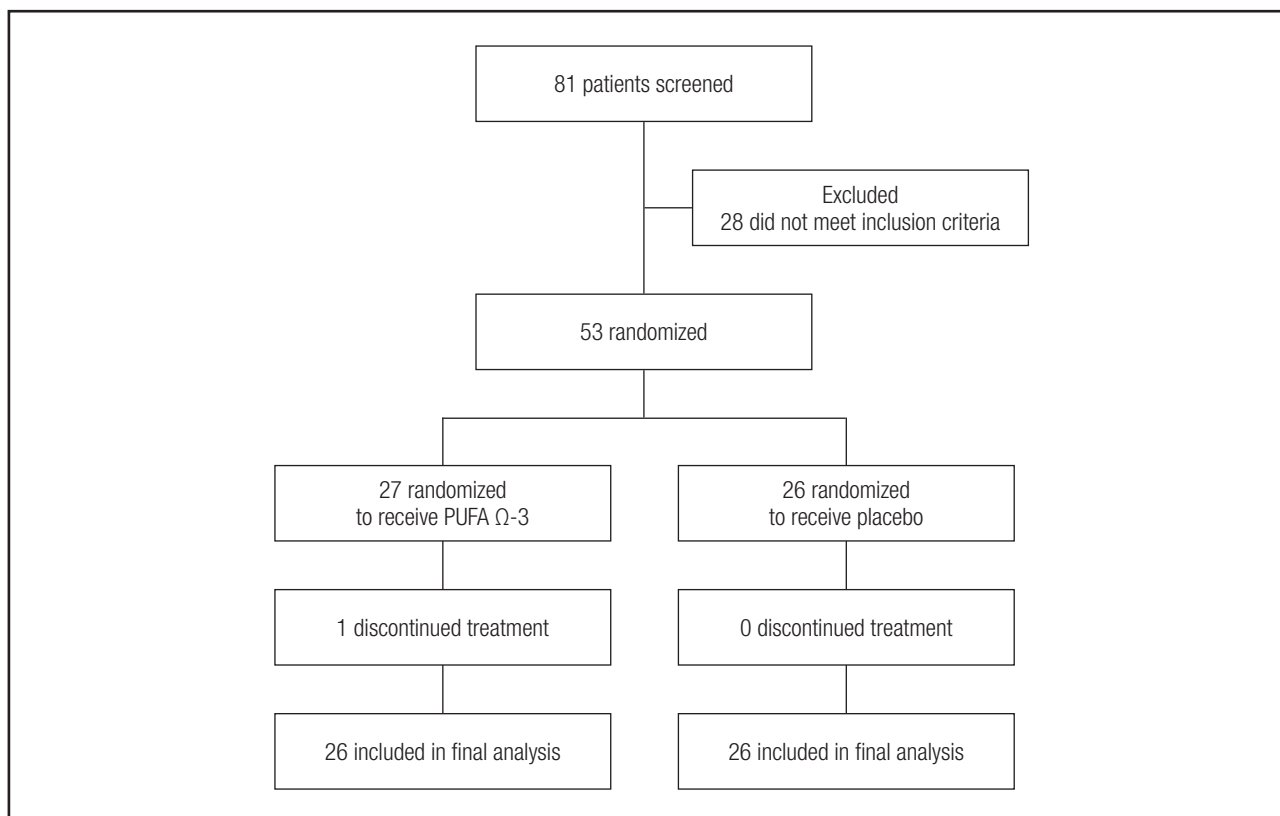


Figure 1.

CONSORT. The algorithm of allocation of study subjects to analyzed groups. Fifty-three women diagnosed with locally advanced breast cancer (LABC) treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy and randomized to receive a capsule supplement with omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA Ω -3) or placebo. Only one patient discontinued the treatment (omega 3 supplementation) because of lack of interest in supplementation.

Table I. Enrolment and baseline characteristics of studied subjects

Enrolment characteristics, n (%) mean $\pm$ (ESM)	PUFA Ω -3 (n = 26)	Placebo (n = 26)	p-value
Age (y)	50.7 $\pm$ 2.1	49.5 $\pm$ 2.1	0.64
Premenopausal	13 (50)	15 (57.7)	0.22
Postmenopausal	13 (50)	11 (42.3)	
<i>Comorbidities</i>			
DM2	7 (26.9)	6 (23)	0.79
HAS	6 (23)	3 (11.5)	
<i>Stage</i>			
IIA	1 (3.8)	3 (11.5)	0.58
IIB	9 (34.6)	11 (42.3)	
IIIA	13 (50)	9 (34.6)	
IIIB	3 (11.5)	3 (11.5)	
<i>Histologic subtype</i>			
Ductal	22 (84.6)	24 (92.3)	0.65
Lobulillar	3 (11.5)	2 (7.7)	
<i>Molecular subtype</i>			
Luminal A	7 (26.9)	7 (26.9)	0.94
Luminal B	15 (57.7)	14 (53.8)	
Triple negative	3 (11.5)	3 (11.5)	0.94
Her positive	11 (42.3)	12 (46.1)	0.78
Baseline characteristics			
<i>Blood pressure (mmHg)</i>			
Systolic	120 $\pm$ 3.3	119 $\pm$ 3.7	0.69
Diastolic	75.7 $\pm$ 1.9	74.1 (1.6)	0.54
Glucose (mg/dl)	108.5 $\pm$ 8	104.5 $\pm$ 6.8	0.70
Insulin (μ U/dl)	13.8 $\pm$ 3.2	11.5 $\pm$ 2.3	0.58
HOMA-IR	4.3 $\pm$ 1.3	3.1 $\pm$ 0.8	0.47
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	149 $\pm$ 11	137 $\pm$ 14.2	0.48
Cholesterol (mg/dl)	183 $\pm$ 7.1	187.2 $\pm$ 6.3	0.66
HbA1c (%)	6.3 $\pm$ 0.3	6 $\pm$ 0.3	0.50
Height (m)	1.55 $\pm$ 1.01	1.54 $\pm$ 1.01	0.66
Weight (kg)	68 $\pm$ 1.8	67.4 $\pm$ 2	0.79
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	28.6 $\pm$ 0.8	29.1(1.1)	0.24
Body fat mass (%)	41.5 $\pm$ 1	41.2 $\pm$ 1.2	0.85
Abdominal perimeter (cm)	92.9 (1.5)	92.6 (2.3)	0.93

Data reported as mean $\pm$ standard error (SEM). PUFA Ω -3: omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids.

hematological toxicity, seven patients (27%) of the PUFA Ω -3 and nine patients (35%) of the placebo group had a delay in the administration of treatment with adriamycin-cyclophosphamide and, during the administration of treatment with paclitaxel, five (20%) patients from the PUFA Ω -3 group and seven (28%) patients from the placebo group postponed their administration.

No significant differences in symptoms related to gastrointestinal toxicity such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea and mucositis were found between groups, neither in fatigue nor neuropathy. These results are shown in table II.

EDMONTON SCALE ASSESSMENT

Both the PUFA Ω -3 and placebo groups presented a similar significant increase at three and six months in the fatigue scales ($p = 0.001$), nausea ($p = 0.031$), drowsiness ($p = 0.001$), appetite ($p = 0.002$) and dyspnea ($p = 0.033$); however, no significant differences were found between groups. Pain, discouragement and anxiety did not present statistically significant changes during the time (three and six months of the intervention). Xerostomia scale showed a significant decrease in the intensity of this symptom over time (three and six months) in the group supplemented with PUFA Ω -3 ($p = 0.0001$). This symptom also showed a significant decrease in the group supplemented with PUFA Ω -3 ($p = 0.032$), compared with the placebo one.

BODY WEIGHT AND COMPOSITION

At the beginning of the study, 77.7% of the patients were overweight. Body weight and BMI showed no statistically significant difference during the time the study was carried out or between the groups. Average weight loss for the group supplemented with PUFA Ω -3 was 1.8 kg, while the group that received the placebo presented a weight increase of 0.5 kg (Table III).

The skeletal muscle index (SMI) showed a significant ($p = 0.02$) increase over time in both groups but no difference was found when compared between groups. Fat free mass (FFM) exhibited the same phenomenon. For its side, body fat showed a significant reduction during the time of measurements at three and six months in the group supplemented with PUFA Ω -3 ($p = 0.02$), while in the patients receiving placebo it did not present changes. These results are shown in table III.

CARDIOMETABOLIC PROFILE

Carbohydrate metabolism (serum glucose, insulin, HOMA-IR, HbA1c) was not affected by NeoCT over time in any group. In the lipid profile, a significant increase in the concentration of triglycerides (TG) at three and six months ($p = 0.0001$) was found in both groups. Similarly, cholesterolemia was significantly higher at three and six months ($p = 0.04$), but no differences were found when comparing the effect of the supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 vs placebo. On the opposite, HDL presented a significant reduction in both groups ($p = 0.0001$); this effect was not significant when it was compared between the two groups.

Serum albumin showed a reduction that was statistically significant ($p = 0.0001$), however, this effect was not significant in relation to PUFA Ω -3 or placebo groups. Also, alanine aminotrans-

Table II. Toxicity in neoadjuvant treatment during the addition of PUFA Ω -3 or placebo

Adverse events	PUFA Ω -3 (n = 26)		Placebo (n = 26)		p value
	Grade 0 n (%)	Grade $\geq$ 1 n (%)	Grade 0 n (%)	Grade $\geq$ 1 n (%)	
<i>Leukopenia</i>					
3 months	20 (76.9)	6 (23.1)	22 (84.6)	4 (15.4)	0.72
6 months	17 (65.4)	9 (34.6)	12 (46.9)	14 (53.8)	0.26
<i>Neutropenia</i>					
3 months	18 (69.2)	8 (30.8)	19 (73.1)	7 (26.9)	0.11
6 months	15 (57.7)	11 (42.3)	13 (50)	13 (50)	0.78
<i>Anemia</i>					
3 months	18 (69.2)	8 (30.8)	19 (73.1)	7 (26.9)	1.00
6 months	12 (46.2)	14 (53.8)	16 (61.5)	10 (38.5)	0.40
<i>Nausea</i>					
3 months	22 (84.6)	4 (15.4)	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	1.00
6 months	24 (92.3)	2 (7.7)	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	1.00
<i>Vomiting</i>					
3 months	22 (84.6)	4 (15.4)	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	1.00
6 months	25 (96.2)	1 (3.8)	24 (92.3)	2 (7.7)	1.00
<i>Diarrhea</i>					
3 months	22 (84.6)	4 (15.4)	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	1.00
6 months	25 (96.2)	1 (3.8)	21 (80.8)	5 (19.2)	0.19
<i>Neuropathy</i>					
3 months	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	24 (92.3)	2 (7.7)	0.66
6 months	14 (53.8)	12 (46.2)	12 (46.1)	14 (53.8)	0.50
<i>Fatigue</i>					
3 months	16 (61.5)	10 (38.5)	14 (53.8)	12 (46.2)	0.50
6 months	20 (76.9)	6 (23.1)	18 (69.2)	8 (30.8)	0.75
<i>Mucositis</i>					
3 months	24 (92.3)	2 (7.7)	23 (88.5)	3 (11.5)	1.00
6 months	25 (96.2)	1 (3.8)	26 (100)	0 (0)	1.00

Reported data of Fisher's exact test. PUFA Ω -3: omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acids; ns: non-significant. The evaluation of adverse events was performed according to CTCAE (version 4.03, June 2010).

ferase (ALT) was measured to evaluate liver damage. The two groups show an increase considered to be still normal, which was significant at three and six months ($p = 0.002$). Protein degradation was assessed by the concentration of urea nitrogen (BUN). The changes were not significant over time in any group.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, the effects of oral supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 (DHA and EPA) on the toxic effects of NeoCT in patients with LABC were investigated.

Previous studies evaluated treatment efficacy and indirect toxicity with the quality of life scales and with the CTCAE (version 4.03). The present study is the first to consider the perception of some symptoms associated with the toxicity of the patient with the Edmonton scale (18). In general, no statistically significant effects

were observed in toxicity; however, the patients who received the supplement with PUFA Ω -3 presented improvement in the scale of xerostomia. This result could support the one reported by a previous study, where it was found that supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 in patients with esophageal cancer and treated with NeoCT decreases mucosal damage induced by chemotherapy (14). The protective effect of PUFA Ω -3 was related to the reduction of systemic inflammation, since PUFA Ω -3 modulates the production of proinflammatory cytokines and the production of anti-inflammatory eicosanoids and, indirectly, promotes the decrease in the production of TNF-alpha and IL-6 (23,24).

Although PUFA Ω -3 is rapidly incorporated into blood cells during consumption, no improvement in hematological toxicity was observed (14). The results of this study indicate that supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 does not protect against the hematological toxicity induced by chemotherapy. There are studies reporting that a combined chemotherapy treatment (as the one used in

Table III. Body composition

Body parameters Treatment group	Basal	3 months	6 months	Intra-subjects (time) p value	Inter-subjects (PUFA Ω -3/ placebo) p value
<i>Weight (kg)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	68 $\pm$ 1.8 (64-71)	66.6 $\pm$ 1.8 (62.7-70.4)	66.2 $\pm$ 1.7 (62.7-69.8)	0.15	0.59
Placebo	67.4 $\pm$ 2 (63.1-71.7)	67.5 $\pm$ 2 (63.3-71.7)	67.9 $\pm$ 2 (63.4-72.4)		
<i>Body mass index (kg/m²)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	28.2 $\pm$ 0.8 (26.4-29.9)	27.6 $\pm$ 0.8 (25.9-29.3)	27.4 $\pm$ 1 (25.8-29)	0.64	0.70
Placebo	28.4 $\pm$ 1 (26.3-30.5)	28.4 $\pm$ 0.3 (26.4-30.4)	28.6 $\pm$ 1 (26.5-31)		
<i>Skeletal muscle mass index (kg/m²)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	5.83 $\pm$ 0.12 (5.5-6)	6 $\pm$ 0.12 (5.7-6.2)	6.0 $\pm$ 0.14 (5.7-6.3)	0.02	0.39
Placebo	5.9 $\pm$ 0.15 (5.5-6.2)	5.8 $\pm$ 0.11 (5.2-6.3)	6.1 $\pm$ 0.15 (5.8-6.4)		
<i>Fat-free mass (kg)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	37.3 $\pm$ 0.8 (35.6-39)	39.4 $\pm$ 0.8 (37.7-41)	39.2 $\pm$ 0.8 (37.4-41)	0.05	0.3
Placebo	37 $\pm$ 0.9 (35.1-38.9)	39.2 $\pm$ 0.9 (37.3-41.2)	39.8 $\pm$ 1 (37.7-41.8)		
<i>Fat mass MG (kg)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	28.5 $\pm$ 1.3 (25.8-31.2)	28.0 $\pm$ 1.2 (25.4-30.6)	27 $\pm$ 1.2 (24.4-29.5)	0.02	0.57
Placebo	28.3 $\pm$ 1.5 (25-31.5)	28.1 $\pm$ 1.3 (25-31.5)	28.4 $\pm$ 1.4 (25.5-31.3)		
<i>Percent body fat (%)</i>					
PUFA Ω -3	41.5 $\pm$ 1 (39.3-43.6)	41.7 $\pm$ 0.9 (39.7-43.7)	40.6 $\pm$ 0.9 (38.6-42.7)	0.02	0.57
Placebo	40.7 $\pm$ 1.2 (38.1-43.4)	41.2 $\pm$ 0.9 (39.1-43.2)	40.7 $\pm$ 0.9 (38.8-42.7)		

Data reported as mean $\pm$ standard error (ESM). PUFA Ω -3: omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acids; CI: 95% confidence interval. Analyzed by the ANOVA test of repeated measures. Statistically significant difference at $p < 0.05$.

the present study) is more severe as compared to a monotherapy and the hematological toxicity (neutropenia and leukopenia) is substantially higher in treatments with polychemotherapy (6). The results of the present study show no positive effect with PUFA Ω -3 supplementation, and this may be due to the therapy that was used, namely, adriamycin-cyclophosphamide and paclitaxel +/- trastuzumab (polychemotherapy, 12 weeks), whose side effects were surely more severe. Interestingly, and contrary to this result, the group of Miyata et al. (2012) showed that PUFA Ω -3 in NeoCT have positive effects on hematological toxicity in a cohort of patients with esophageal cancer treated with monotherapy (paclitaxel) (25).

From the clinical and epidemiological point of view, body composition plays an important role to prevent or treat different diseases. In a meta-analysis where the effect of supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 during chemotherapy on body composition was evaluated, Buckinx et al. (2015) (26) reported that the most common benefit is to increase or preserve body weight (6). The results of this study show that most of the patients had a decrease in muscle mass and a high percentage of body fat (sarcopenic obesity) before starting NeoCT. However, during the administration of chemotherapy, both groups showed an increase that was significant in the fat-free mass and the skeletal muscle index. In addition, the patients of the group supplemented with PUFA Ω -3

also had a greater reduction of mass body fat, while the placebo group showed a slight increase. There were no new cases of sarcopenic obesity during the whole treatment with chemotherapy. The results observed differ from those reported by other authors in different studies of breast cancer in advanced stages, as they report a greater amount of patients with obesity and sarcopenia during treatment (10,27). It is possible that the difference in the results is associated with the clinical stage of the disease.

In line with this, Ayca et al. (2018) reported that supplementation with DHA during chemotherapy using only one drug did not cause significant changes in inflammatory mediators or body composition of overweight and obese patients. They reported that, probably, no significant changes in body composition were found due to the differences between the study population, the dose and the duration of supplementation with DHA (3). In addition, Hames (2017) reported that, after administration of PUFA Ω -3 for six months at high doses, it increased significantly in plasma and adipose tissue. However, the changes did not show beneficial effects on markers of inflammation and in the number or subtype of macrophages present in the adipose tissue. In this study, they reported that possibly no positive effects were found due to the presence of obesity, overweight and the insulin resistance present in the patients (28). In the same way, Kratz et al. (2013) showed that supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 for 14 weeks in

overweight and obese people had no effect on the expression of genes, which regulate the production of inflammatory mediators, including TNF- α in the adipose tissue (29). According to the results of these studies, it should be considered that one of the possible causes for which no statistically significant changes were found, in body composition and chemotoxicity, is the type of patients included in the present study, who were also overweight, obese and with sarcopenia before starting NeoCT.

Some studies have shown that PUFA Ω -3 reduce triglycerides. This effect has been related mainly to the decrease in the production of very low-density lipoproteins (VLDL) and, secondly, to the increase in HDL (30). However, the results of this research work show an opposite effect, since there was a significant increase in triglycerides and a reduction in HDL cholesterol in the two groups of patients. These results support what Sharma et al., who investigated changes in lipid metabolism during chemotherapy in patients with breast cancer in stage IA, IIA, IIB and IIIC, reported in their study (2016). Their results showed that the administration of doxorubicin decreases HDL and the administration of paclitaxel causes a significant increase in VLDL and triglycerides.

On the other hand, some studies suggest that the administration of PUFA Ω -3 increases insulin sensitivity, predominantly by reducing body fat mass (31-33). In the present study, the group of patients supplemented with PUFA Ω -3 presented a significant reduction in body fat mass; however, this change did not increase sensitivity to insulin. These findings support what has been reported by other studies, where association between supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 and insulin sensitivity was not demonstrated (28,33). It appears that the effects of PUFA Ω -3 may vary according to the severity of the disease and some characteristics of patients, such as excessive weight and insulin resistance (34).

Finally, we must mention that the lack of effect of PUFA Ω -3 in the studied patients could also be the result of other factors such as dose, type of cancer, administration scheme or even the number of patients studied. Although these parameters were used according to other similar studies reported in lung cancer, esophageal cancer, metastatic breast cancer and women at high risk of breast cancer, these may not be adequate for the pathology and the type of patients studied in the present work (13,15,35,36).

The results of this study do not support the hypothesis that PUFAs Ω -3 improve the adverse effects of NeoCT in women with LABC.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study indicate that supplementation with PUFA Ω -3 during neoadjuvant therapy in patients with LABC only reduces the symptoms of xerostomia. No significant differences were found in body composition, so we concluded that supplementation does not contribute to preserve weight and body composition during treatment with NeoCT. Hematological toxicity also did not show significant changes induced by PUFA Ω -3. However, it is important to consider that these results do not exclude the protective role of PUFA Ω -3 and its use as coadjuvant therapy in

patients with other types of cancer. Future studies should focus on confirming these results and design suitable clinical trials to determine the proper dose and duration of PUFA Ω -3 supplementation. In addition, inflammatory markers should be assessed to evaluate the anti-inflammatory benefit of the administration of PUFA Ω -3 during the treatment of NeoCT.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

The patients included are subjected to a rigorous scrutiny that qualifies them to receive or not care in the hospital, so from the beginning, they are patients already screened, for a better profile selection, and this could bias the results, not showing the potential benefit in a "common and current" patient.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Feeding patterns and growth trajectories in breast-fed and formula-fed infants during the introduction of complementary food

Patrones de alimentación y trayectorias de crecimiento en niños con lactancia materna y con leche de fórmula durante la introducción de la alimentación complementaria

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Abstract

Introduction: several investigations have identified breastfeeding as a protective factor for rapid infant weight gain and childhood obesity while other studies have found that this protective effect could be the result of confounding factors.

Objectives: to assess the associations between lactation practices (breast-fed vs formula-fed infants) during the introduction of complementary food period, as well as the following: a) patterns of food intake; and b) trajectories of growth at six, nine and 12 months (z-score of weight, height and body mass index [BMI] and changes in these z-scores from six to 12 months).

Methods: two hundred and three infants randomly selected from Spanish Primary Health Centres were measured. Parents recorded all infant's food consumption for three days (g/day). Linear regression models were applied.

Results: breast-fed infants had a lower intake of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with meat/fish and a total intake of food compared to formula-fed infants at nine months of age. After adjusting for sex, parental education and total food intake, breastfed children continued to have lower intake of cereals (-5.82, 95% CI: -9.22, -2.43), and lower total food intake (-301.23, 95% CI: -348.50, -253.96). Breast-fed infants had a lower change in z-score of weight, height and BMI from six to 12 months of age and these differences remained when adjusting for all confounders.

Conclusions: formula-fed infants during the complementary feeding period have a higher food intake and show higher rates of rapid infant weight gain compared to breast-fed infants. These differences in growth trajectories depending on breastfeeding maintenance and food intake during early life must be considered in adiposity risk evaluation.

Key words:

Breastfeeding.
Formula. Infants.
Complementary
food. Obesity. Growth
trajectories.

Resumen

Introducción: varios estudios han identificado la lactancia materna como un factor protector frente a la ganancia rápida de peso y la obesidad infantil, mientras que otros estudios han encontrado que este efecto protector podría ser el resultado de la interferencia de factores de confusión.

Objetivos: evaluar las asociaciones entre el tipo de lactancia (leche materna versus lactantes alimentados con fórmula) durante la introducción de la alimentación complementaria, así como: a) los patrones de ingesta de alimentos; y b) las trayectorias de crecimiento a los seis, nueve y 12 meses (z-score de peso, estatura e índice de masa corporal [IMC] y variaciones en estos z-score entre los seis y los 12 meses).

Métodos: se midieron 203 neonatos seleccionados en centros de salud primaria españoles. Los padres registraron el consumo de alimentos de todos los bebés durante tres días (g/día). Se aplicaron modelos de regresión lineal.

Resultados: los bebés alimentados con leche materna tuvieron una menor ingesta de cereales, alimentos para bebés a base de frutas, verduras con carne/pescado, así como una menor ingesta total de alimentos en comparación con los bebés alimentados con fórmula a los nueve meses de edad. Después de realizar el ajuste por sexo, educación de los padres y consumo total de alimentos, los niños alimentados con leche materna continuaron teniendo una menor ingesta de cereales (-5,82, IC 95%: -9,22, -2,43) y una ingesta total de alimentos más baja (-301,23, IC 95%: -348,50, -253,96). Los bebés alimentados al pecho tuvieron un menor incremento en la puntuación z-score de peso, talla e IMC entre los seis y los 12 meses de edad y estas diferencias se mantuvieron cuando se ajustaron para todos los factores de confusión.

Conclusiones: los lactantes alimentados con fórmula durante el periodo de alimentación complementaria tienen una mayor ingesta de alimentos y muestran tasas más altas de ganancia de peso en comparación con los lactantes alimentados con leche materna. Estas diferencias en las trayectorias de crecimiento en función del mantenimiento de la lactancia materna y la ingesta de alimentos durante los primeros años de vida deben considerarse en la evaluación del riesgo de adiposidad.

Palabras clave:

Lactancia materna.
Fórmula. Lactantes.
Alimentación
complementaria.
Obesidad.
Trayectorias de
crecimiento.

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INTRODUCTION

Breastfeeding has been suggested to exert a protective effect on childhood obesity (1,2). However, the evidence in the literature for this relationship is still inconsistent and some studies have indicated that this association could be influenced by publication bias and confounding factors (3,4). Particularly, in high income countries, a strong social gradient is observed for breastfeeding and mothers with a higher socioeconomic status (SES) are more likely to breastfeed and for a longer period (5). Moreover, they are less likely to smoke during the pregnancy and to be obese and both factors are strong predictors of childhood obesity (6).

More consistent findings have been reported between formula-fed infants and rapid infant gain weight (7). Formula-fed infants gained weight more rapidly out of proportion to length than breast-fed infants (8) during the first year of life, which results in a higher BMI and therefore, a higher risk for future obesity. It has been stated that breastfeeding may promote self-regulation on an infant's energy intake (2). Furthermore, some studies have found that there are hormones, growth factors or bioactive substances that are in breast milk and not in formula that could inhibit adipogenesis (9,10) and consequently, prevent future childhood obesity.

Other possible mechanism explaining differences between breast-fed and formula-fed infants has been that a longer duration of breastfeeding delays the introduction of complementary feeding (11), which is associated with an increased infancy weight gain when the introduction of solid foods is before four months (12). Earlier introduction of complementary food might lead to higher energy intakes from an earlier age since breast milk is low in protein and could be replaced by complementary higher in energy and protein (13).

Only when breast milk is no longer enough to meet the nutritional needs, complementary foods should be introduced to the diet of the child, typically after six months of age according to the World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines (14).

Some studies have reported that the energy and protein intakes in formula-fed infants seem to be higher than in breast-fed children (15). However, to the best of our knowledge, no studies have assessed the total intake (g/day) of various food groups (cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins such as meat or fish baby food, formula and yogurt) in formula-fed and breast-fed infants during the introduction of complementary food combined with the assessment of growth trajectories in both groups.

We hypothesized that formula-fed infants have a higher intake of each food group and, therefore, formula-fed infants have a higher BMI compared to breast-fed infants. The present paper aims to explore the associations: a) between lactation practices (breast-fed vs formula-fed infants) and feeding patterns during the introduction of complementary food period; and b) between lactation practices and trajectories of growth by measuring weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score (at six, nine and 12 months of age); as well as changes occurred in weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score from six to 12 months of age in a cohort of children from Spain.

METHODS

DESIGN AND STUDY POPULATION

The present study included a cohort of children from different localities in Spain randomly selected in Primary Care Centers within the frame of a project financed by the Centre for the Development of Industrial Technology (CDTI) (NEOBEFOOD project, IDI-20100569). In particular, the cohort included all children without any malformation, diseases or physical disabilities that could affect growth and nutritional status. They were recruited from Primary Care Centers in the Spanish Child Health Program, participated from March to July 2011 in different localities in the north of Spain (located in the province of Huesca and Santander) and were followed for one year (from six months of age to 18 months of age). These localities were chosen because the participating research groups had not only logistic capacity due to geographic proximity but also, they had previous experience in the area and some of the research members were working in the Primary Care Centers studied. The main objective of the study was to assess growth patterns, body composition, digestive conditions (digestive tolerance, satiety and depositions), and feeding aspects of infants and children, and to examine prenatal, postnatal and socio-cultural factors which may influence them.

Permanent trained pediatric staff conducting the Spanish Child Health Program at least in the last two years before being included in the study.

To calculate the sample size needed for the present study, the variance of weight was considered as the best anthropometric variable related to the nutritional status during the first months of life. For the present study, the weight variance was chosen at 18 months of age (1.26 kg), that is, the last moment of follow-up for the chosen sample, using WHO reference data (16). A similar size of the two similar groups and similar variables of weight at 18 months, risk of type I error of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$) and power of 80% ($\beta = 0.20$) were considered. From the previous data, a sample size of 200 children was obtained, but taking into account that 20% of the children who started the study would be lost, would change their address or would abandon, the final sample was established in 240. In conclusion, to achieve a power of 80%, with a confidence level of 95%, and to demonstrate a difference in weight of 0.5 kg at 18 months of age and assuming losses of 20%, 120 subjects in each group (formula and breast-fed infants) were needed, that is, 240 subjects.

Finally, 272 families were contacted to participate in the study, of which 245 accepted to participate (acceptance rate 90%). These 246 new-born infants without any malformation, diseases or physical disabilities were examined at six months of age and periodically re-examined in Primary Care Centers at six, nine and 12, 15 and 18 months of age. After one year of follow-up, 61 children did no longer participate in our study, thus the retention rate was 75%. Children with missing values in any of the exposures, covariates or outcomes because they did not come to the follow-up examinations, did not continue with the study or changed their home address, or did not provide the required

information were excluded (43 children). In the end, the analysis included 203 children (55.3% boys).

Parents or legal guardians gave written informed consent for examinations for their children. Ethical approval was obtained from the Committee of Ethics in Clinical Research (CEICA) of Aragón.

MEASUREMENTS

Outcome measure (feeding patterns at nine months)

A 24-hour dietary recall interview conducted at the Primary Care Centers was used to record all infant's food consumption (in grams or cubic centimeters [cc] a day). During the interview, parents were asked about the intake of: a) *cereals* (single grain cereals in powder to be mixed with water or formula); b) *fruit baby food*; c) *vegetables with meat or fish baby food*; d) *formula*; and d) *yogurt* before the programmed visits at nine months of age.

To avoid misreport and reduce key factors associated with bias, the 24-hour diet recall was carried out by a previously trained interviewer on dietary assessment with a thorough procedure protocol.

The total intake of grams was calculated by summing the quantity of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins, baby food and yogurt in g/day (excluding formula and breast milk). Those food items reported in cubic centimeters were converted into grams.

In the present study we have focused on infants at the age of nine months because during this period the transition from exclusive breastfeeding to family foods, referred to as complementary feeding, should have already been established with the consumption of a large variety of foods.

Secondary outcome measure (trajectories of growth)

Height and weight were measured by trained staff using the homologated measuring Seca® 374 medical digital baby scale. Child length was obtained using a recumbent board to the nearest 0.1 cm and body weight in kg to the nearest 10 g in a fasting state and without any clothes. We calculated age- and sex-specific weight, height, weight/length ratio and BMI z-scores using the WHO reference data (16). Changes in weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score were calculated as the difference between 12 months and six months of age z-score of weight, height and BMI respectively.

Exposure measure (lactation practices)

Mothers were asked about their children feeding practices at the age of nine months. Specifically, mothers reported the duration of exclusive breastfeeding, weaning time, introduction of formula

feeding and intake of each food group during the introduction of complementary food. Nine months of age is a representative period to quantify food and to assess infant food patterns. At this age infants eat a variety of food that can be easily assessed because they are usually in a liquid or smashed status that before (i.e., at six months) or after (i.e., at nine months) will not be possible.

With this information, children were categorized as breast-fed (including children who were both breast-fed and formula-fed) and formula-fed infants (children who were just formula-fed).

Potential confounding factors

Parental education

By an individual face-to-face interview with parents, data regarding their educational level were collected. Mothers and fathers were asked to indicate their highest level of education. Particular response categories were coded according to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997) (17) and re-categorized into three categories: low (0-2), medium (3-4) and high (5-6) ISCED educational levels.

Parental BMI

Paternal and maternal BMI were calculated from fathers' and mothers' (pre-pregnancy) weight and height reports. This information was obtained by a face-to-face interview with parents.

Statistical analyses

We assessed whether infant's food consumption (primary outcome) and trajectories of growth (secondary outcome) differed according to our covariates and exposures significantly using t-test for dichotomous variables (sex and lactation practices) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for categorical variables (maternal and paternal education).

Additionally, linear regression models were applied to assess the associations between lactation practices at nine months (breast-fed vs formula-fed infants) and each primary outcome (intake of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins such as meat or fish, formula and yogurt and total food intake in g/day) at nine months and secondary outcome (z-score of weight, height, BMI and changes in these anthropometry data for the period occurred from six to 12 months). The reference category used was formula-fed infants.

To adjust for possible confounders, two different models were run for the primary outcome. Model 1 was adjusted for sex, maternal education and paternal education. In the final adjusted model (model 2), we additionally adjusted for children's total intake (excluding formula and breast milk) by summing the quantity of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with meat and fish and baby food in g/day. Due to the difficulty of estimating the precise

amount of breast milk consumed, the intake of formula and breast milk was excluded in the final adjusted models to better compare the total intake in g/day of breast-fed and formula-fed children.

To assess the trajectories of growth at six, nine and 12 months (secondary outcome) in breastfed and formula-fed infants (at nine months), models were adjusted for sex, parental education and parental BMI (model 1). In the final adjusted model (model 2), we additionally adjusted for children's total intake (excluding formula and breast milk).

Models assessing the changes in z-score of weight, height and BMI from six to 12 months models were adjusted for sex, parental education, parental BMI and children's weight at six months in basic models (model 1). In the final adjusted model (model 2), we additionally adjusted for children's total intake (excluding formula and breast milk).

Significance level was set at 0.05. Analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 22.0; SPSS, Inc.).

RESULTS

Table I summarizes children's feeding intake (in g/day) at age nine months based on children's sex, lactation practices and parental education. Mean and standard deviation (SD) are shown. In the present study, most of the children were formula-fed at nine months of age. By sex, the mean of children food intake was lower in females than in males. Children who were breast-fed had also a lower mean intake of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with meat/fish baby food, formula, and a total intake of food when excluding formula and breast milk as compared to those infants who were formula-fed.

Table II shows children's weight, height and BMI (in z-score) at nine months and changes in anthropometry occurred (z-score of weight, height and BMI) from six to 12 months based on children's sex, lactation practices, parental education and parental BMI. Mean and standard deviation (SD) are shown. See supplementary table S1 for information at age six and 12 months.

Table I. Children's feeding intake (in g/day) at nine months of age based on children's sex, lactation practices and parental education. Mean and standard deviation (SD) are reported

n = 203 (100%)	Cereals* (g/day)	Carbohydrates† (g/day)	Fruit baby food (g/day)	Vegetables with meat/fish baby food (g/day)	Formula (g/day)	Yogurt (g/day)	Total intake excluding formula and breast milk (g/day)*
Sex							
Male (44.7%)	24.31 (9.07)	17.70 (30.39)	209.66 (73.81)	258.74 (91.04)	479.20 (156.05)	156.02 (58.18)	466.98 (268.30)
Female (55.3%)	23.56 (12.23)	11.50 (12.88)	185.82 (73.65)	250.60 (94.77)	427.47 (185.04)	162.77 (69.52)	440.33 (244.84)
p-value	0.638	0.456	0.028	0.536	0.037	0.579	0.422
Paternal education							
Low (22.8%)	0.73 (8.77)	15.82 (14.54)	191.03 (74.30)	272.33 (106.32)	461.750 (199.44)	166.34 (977.62)	438.31 (282.18)
Medium (39.8%)	24.84 (12.39)	24.77 (39.69)	210.13 (72.64)	255.51 (94.20)	459.87 (151.78)	160.71 (69.21)	452.96 (269.57)
High (48.4%)	23.77 (9.31)	6.77 (9.68)	192.10 (75.99)	245.49 (82.55)	449.73 (175.40)	152.56 (57.42)	467.51 (230.55)
p-value (37.4%)	0.580	0.209	0.254	0.309	0.913	0.663	0.797
Maternal education							
Low (11.8%)	21.73 (8.38)	21.00 (17.55)	204.52 (80.31)	262.50 (101.13)	459.52 (192.08)	152.78 (55.12)	431.33 (256.24)
Medium (39.8%)	24.10 (11.02)	10.33 (12.55)	190.94 (64.84)	256.58 (102.25)	458.40 (187.17)	163.46 (65.10)	418.42 (272.87)
High (48.4%)	24.33 (10.57)	15.66 (31.44)	203.33 (79.63)	252.21 (83.36)	453.95 (154.00)	156.90 (63.51)	491.02 (242.39)
p-value	0.612	0.660	0.536	0.874	0.982	0.841	0.103
Lactation practices							
Breast-fed infant (27.1%) [§]	19.18 (9.92)	14.75 (16.75)	175.88 (76.85)	223.33 (84.81)	266.86 (121.41)	171.87 (61.81)	477.32 (176.73)
Formula-fed infant (72.9%)	25.55 (10.28)	14.67 (26.93)	207.47 (72.03)	266.65 (92.87)	510.97 (141.82)	154.53 (63.05)	560.09 (181.82)
p-value	< 0.001	0.992	0.009	0.003	0.000	0.255	0.004

*Multi grain cereals in powder to be mixed with water or formula. †Non-powder carbohydrates such as potatoes, bread or biscuits. ‡Sum of cereals, carbohydrates, fruit baby food, vegetables with meat/fish baby food and yogurt in grams/day. §Breast-fed children were defined as those children who were both breast-fed and formula-fed. ||Formula-fed infants were defined as those children who were just formula-fed.

Table II. Children's weight, height and BMI (in z-score) at nine months of age and changes in anthropometry occurred (z-score of weight, height and BMI) from six to 12 months based on children's sex, lactation practices, parental education and parental BMI. Mean and standard deviation (SD) are reported

n = 203 (100%)	Weight z-score at 9 months	Height z-score at 9 months	BMI z-score at 9 months	Changes in weight z-score from 6 to 12 months	Changes in height z-score from 6 to 12 months	Changes in BMI z-score from 6 to 12 months
<i>Sex</i>						
Male (44.7%)	0.26 (0.98)	0.27 (1.09)	0.15 (0.90)	0.40 (0.54)	0.05 (0.61)	0.50 (0.66)
Female (55.3%)	0.32 (0.81)	0.34 (0.87)	0.17 (0.91)	0.35 (0.45)	0.04 (0.62)	0.46 (0.54)
p-value	0.610	0.595	0.864	0.534	0.851	0.641
<i>Paternal education</i>						
Low (22.8%)	0.50 (1.02)	0.47 (1.18)	0.32 (0.90)	0.38 (0.53)	0.04 (0.60)	0.49 (0.61)
Medium (39.8%)	0.32 (0.90)	0.40 (0.96)	0.13 (0.92)	0.41 (0.49)	0.09 (0.64)	0.50 (0.61)
High (48.4%)	0.14 (0.83)	0.12 (0.90)	0.10 (0.90)	0.34 (0.51)	0.01 (0.60)	0.45 (0.61)
p-value (37.4%)	0.097	0.092	0.376	0.639	0.732	0.850
<i>Maternal education</i>						
Low (11.8%)	0.17 (0.93)	0.44 (1.28)	-0.10 (1.00)	0.39 (0.48)	0.19 (0.63)	0.39 (0.58)
Medium (39.8%)	0.25 (0.85)	0.25 (0.99)	0.14 (0.87)	0.38 (0.51)	0.05 (0.59)	0.48 (0.56)
High (48.4%)	0.35 (0.93)	0.31 (0.97)	0.23 (0.90)	0.37 (0.50)	0.02 (0.63)	0.50 (0.65)
p-value	0.612	0.660	0.536	0.874	0.982	0.841
<i>Paternal BMI</i>						
Normal weight* (62.5%)	0.28 (0.90)	0.19 (14.54)	0.23 (0.87)	0.31 (0.51)	-0.01 (0.64)	0.44 (0.67)
Overweight (29.3%)	0.27 (0.93)	0.40 (0.89)	0.06 (0.96)	0.42 (0.49)	0.07 (0.54)	0.52 (0.58)
Obesity (8.2%)	0.40 (0.92)	0.42 (0.96)	0.23 (0.93)	0.43 (0.45)	0.10 (0.56)	10.56 (57.42)
p-value (37.4%)	0.821	0.307	0.454	0.374	0.576	0.735
<i>Maternal BMI</i>						
Normal weight* (62.5%)	0.35 (0.85)	0.32 (0.95)	0.82 (0.07)	0.38 (0.51)	0.00 (0.66)	0.52 (0.62)
Overweight (29.3%)	0.21 (1.03)	0.30 (1.07)	1.07 (0.13)	0.42 (0.49)	0.13 (0.51)	0.48 (0.58)
Obesity (8.2%)	0.08 (0.90)	0.09 (1.13)	0.96 (0.23)	0.25 (0.11)	0.10 (0.59)	6.28 (0.61)
p-value	0.374	0.668	0.392	0.462	0.435	0.334
<i>Lactation practices at 9 months of age</i>						
Breast-fed infant (27.1%)	0.33 (0.96)	0.40 (0.90)	0.13 (1.10)	0.15 (0.50)	-0.13 (0.73)	0.30 (0.58)
Formula-fed infant (72.9%)	0.29 (0.89)	0.28 (1.04)	0.18 (0.83)	0.46 (0.48)	0.11 (0.56)	0.55 (0.62)
p-value	0.798	0.446	0.700	< 0.001	0.018	0.014

*Normal weight includes those parents underweight and normal weight.

In the present study, most of the children were formula-fed at age nine months. No significant mean differences were found between sex, parental BMI and parental education and variables of anthropometry studied. During this period, children who were breast-fed had lower changes in weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score, as compared to those infants who were formula-fed. Weight length ratio was also calculated, but a similar pattern was found.

Table III presents beta coefficients (β) and 95% CI for the associations between breastfeeding status and each food group intake (g/day) at nine months. In the basic models (adjusted for sex and parental education), breast-fed practices were associated with a lower intake of cereals, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins baby food, formula milk and total intake of food (excluding formula and breast milk) in comparison to formula-fed infants at nine months. In the fully adjusted models, only associations between breast-fed infants and lower intake of cereals, between breast-fed infants and lower intake of formula and between breast-fed infants and lower total intake of food remained significant.

Table IV shows the associations between changes in z-score of weight, height and BMI from six to 12 months and lactation practices at nine months of age. After adjusting for sex, parental education, parental BMI and children's weight at six months, breast-fed infants had a lower change in z-score of weight, height

and BMI. When models were additionally adjusted for children's total intake (model 2, fully adjusted models), associations remained significant for lactation practices at nine months of age and z-score of weight and height from six to 12. Associations between lactation practices at nine months of age and z-score of BMI from six to 12 were no longer significant but associations pointed to the same direction.

In additional analyses, the associations between breastfeeding status at nine months of age and children's anthropometry (z-scores of weight, height and BMI) at six, nine and 12 months of age, respectively, were studied. However, no statistically significant associations were children's anthropometry and breastfeeding status (results not shown). Further analyses were conducted by including not only BMI but also weight to length ratio. Nevertheless, the weight (in kg) to length (in cm) ratio yielded similar results, therefore only results with BMI are displayed.

DISCUSSION

This investigation studied the association between: a) lactation practices (breast-fed vs formula-fed infants) and feeding patterns during the introduction of complementary food period; and b) lactation practices and trajectories of growth by measuring weight

Table III. Associations between breastfeeding status and each food group intake (g/day) at nine months of age

Breastfeeding status at age 9 months	M1*			M2†		
	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value
Intake of cereals at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	6.26	9.61	< 0.001	-5.82	9.22	0.001
Formula-fed infant		2.91			2.43	
Intake of fruit baby food at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	27.97	52.05	0.023	6.99	26.61	0.483
Formula-fed infant		3.89			12.64	
Intake of vegetables with meat/fish baby food at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	41.49	72.58	0.005	10.55	33.58	0.367
Formula-fed infant		12.39			12.47	
Intake of formula at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	241.52	288.69	< 0.001	-251.68	298.88	< 0.001
Formula-fed infant		194.34			204.52	
Total food intake at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	368.59	432.51	< 0.001	301.23	348.50	< 0.001
Formula-fed infant		304.67			253.96	
Intake of yogurt at age 9 months						
Breast-fed infant	18.03	11.45	0.228	0.05	0.06	0.387
Formula-fed infant		47.50			0.14	

Results from the linear regressions models*. Beta coefficients (β), 95% confidence intervals (CI) and p-values are shown. Statistically significant results are shown in *italics*. *Model 1 was adjusted for sex, maternal and paternal education. †Model 2 was additionally adjusted for total food intake in g/day (sum of cereals, carbohydrates, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins, baby food excluding infant formula and breast milk).

Table IV. Associations between changes in z-score of weight, height and BMI from six months to 12 months and lactation practices at nine months of age

Breastfeeding status at age 9 months	Changes in z-score of weight						Changes in z-score of height						Changes in z-score of BMI					
	M1*			M2†			M1*			M2†			M1*			M2†		
	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value	β	95% CI	p-value
	0.28	0.44	< 0.001	0.25	0.41	0.002	0.24	0.44	0.021	0.21	0.41	0.043	0.21	0.41	0.035	0.19	0.39	0.064
Breast-fed infant																		
Formula-fed infant		0.12			0.09			0.04			0.00			0.02			0.01	

Results from the linear regressions models*. Beta coefficients (β), 95% confidence intervals (CI) and p-values are shown. Statistically significant results shown in italics. *All models were adjusted for sex, parental education, parental BMI and children's weight at six months. †Model 2 was additionally adjusted for total food intake in g/day (sum of cereals, carbohydrates, fruit baby food, vegetables with proteins, baby food excluding infant formula and breast milk).

z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score (at six, nine and 12 months of age); as well as changes occurred in weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score from six to 12 months of age in a cohort of children from Spain.

We found that the total food intake was lower in breast-fed infants as compared to formula-fed infants at nine months of age. More specifically, breast-fed children had about 300 g less a day than breast-fed infants after adjusting for sex, parental education and intake of food excluding breastfeeding and formula intake. These differences were mainly due to a lower intake of cereals and formula milk that breast-fed infants consumed when compared to formula-fed infants. The consumption of powder cereal is a common practice among Spanish children. These cereals are usually added to water or milk (breast milk or formula).

We also found that at nine months of age infants intake is mainly based on formula, fruit baby food and vegetables with meat and fish baby food in both breast-fed and formula-fed infants.

This result might help to explain differences found in rapid infant weight gain between breast-fed and formula-fed infants during the complementary feeding period (18). During this time, children are nutritionally vulnerable, and it is also a time where life-long eating habits may be established. Therefore, it constitutes a critical period for children (19).

According to some studies, differences in the intake between breast-fed and formula-fed infants could be due to the different experience of hunger and satiation in milk composition (20). Particularly, the amount of free amino acids such as glutamate, which have been associated with satiation, is much higher in breast milk than in formula (21). Thus, higher levels of glutamate in human breast milk may enhance satiety and be partly responsible for a lower weight gain in breast-fed infants (22). The number of bioactive nutrients is also different in breast milk and formula, and some of the hormones present in breast milk (such as adiponectin) may contribute to a lower incidence of future childhood obesity (23). Heinig et al. (24) found that energy intake as well as protein intake were greater in formula-fed than in breast-fed children. According to this study, gains in weight and lean body were lower in the breast-fed groups than in the formula-fed group.

Wright et al. (25) also found that the feeding method (breastfeeding or formula) impacts on feeding behaviors and hunger patterns. In addition, breast-fed infants exhibited pauses while they were sucking whereas formula-fed infants sucked in a continuous way.

This study also found that there was no statistically significant association between lactation practices and children's anthropometry (weight z-score, height z-score and BMI z-score) at six, nine and 12 months. However, when comparing the changes occurred in children's anthropometry from six to 12 months, breast-fed infants had slower patterns of growth (in weight, height and BMI) compared to formula-fed infants, which is in agreement with previous studies (26,27). Associations between lactation practices at nine months of age and z-score of weight from six to 12 and z-score of height from six to 12 remained significant after adjusting for sex, parental education, parental BMI and children's weight at six months and children's total intake. This result suggests that children who are breastfed during the complementary feeding period have a lower food intake than formula-fed children but also pointed to the effect that breast milk may have in satiety.

The rapid infant weight gain showed by formula-fed infants has been associated in several studies with subsequent obesity in children due to metabolic programming (28,29).

These results would be then consistent with ours, since the different patterns found in breast-fed and formula-fed infants as well as the different composition of breast milk and formula would result in a lower intake of food by breast-fed children as compared to formula-fed children, and therefore a lower probability of developing later obesity (1).

A special strength of the present study is the fact that, to our knowledge, no research has been carried out to date concerning the association between lactation practices and feeding patterns measured in grams a day and including trajectories of growth in a Spanish cohort of children. Moreover, infant food intake at nine months of age can be easily measured in grams since most of the food is mashed. As a consequence, to avoid unnecessary bias, in the current study the overall quantity of food was measured for convenience according to the number of grams a day instead of the amount of energy (the number of kilocalories [kcal]).

These findings must be viewed critically, as this is a study with several limitations. Firstly, the sample size was calculated to be representative of a limited geographical area of Spain.

Table S1. Children's weight, height and BMI (in z-score) at six and 12 months of age based on breastfeeding practices (breast-fed vs formula-fed infants)

n = 203 (100%)	Weight z-score at age 6 months	Height z-score at age 6 months	BMI z-score at age 6 months	Weight z-score at age 12 months	Height z-score at age 12 months	BMI z-score at age 12 months
Breastfeeding practices						
Breast-fed infants (27.1%)	0.21 (0.88)	0.47 (0.85)	-0.07 (1.04)	0.39 (0.88)	0.31 (0.86)	0.28 (1.09)
Formula-fed infants (72.9%)	0.02 (0.87)	0.22 (1.02)	-0.14 (0.90)	0.47 (0.88)	0.33 (1.07)	0.39 (0.77)
p-value	0.158	0.114	0.644	0.584	0.907	0.439

Mean and standard deviation (SD) are reported.

Therefore, the conclusions on feeding patterns and growth trajectories in breast-fed and formula-fed infants of the study may not be representative from one region to another. Secondly, a selection bias cannot be precluded as most of the parents participating in this study belonged to high SES (almost half of the parents had a high education) as this study was voluntary, and usually low SES populations are less likely to take part in research (30). A further limitation is the reliance on self-reported measures (e.g., infant intake of the different food items reported by parents). Moreover, incomplete reports of food and beverage consumption may also contribute towards reporting bias. Finally, the amount of breast milk ingested was not registered due to the difficulties in assessing it.

Future lines of research could focus on the possible underlying mechanisms that can explain the results found, which could not be investigated in the current paper. Despite the fact that biological factors can be important (such as the possible influence of breast milk on gastric emptying, appetite hormones and macronutrients), other cultural and psychosocial factors such as parenting styles can also play an important role.

CONCLUSION

During the complementary feeding period, formula-fed infants might have higher food intake levels and may have higher rates of rapid infant weight gain as compared to breast-fed infants. These differences in growth trajectories depending on breastfeeding maintenance and food intake during early life must be considered in adiposity risk evaluation.

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CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

María Rodríguez-Palmero and Montserrat Rivero are employees of Laboratorios Ordesa S.L. The other authors affirm that there is no potential conflict of interest and that there were no financial ties to products in the study.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Prevalencia del inicio precoz de la lactancia materna

Prevalence of the early onset of maternal breastfeeding

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Resumen

Introducción: el momento en que el recién nacido recibe la primera toma no ha sido estudiado de modo explícito y se necesitan investigaciones para evaluar las medidas de apoyo a la lactancia. Nuestro objetivo fue determinar la prevalencia del inicio precoz de la lactancia materna (IPLM) y analizar su relación con distintos factores maternos y del recién nacido.

Métodos: estudio descriptivo transversal realizado durante tres años en un hospital público. La base de datos utilizada para el estudio procedió de un registro clínico electrónico. Se realizó un análisis univariado descriptivo de todas las variables y se analizó la relación existente entre el IPLM con distintos parámetros maternos y del recién nacido mediante el test de Fisher.

Resultados: nuestros resultados mostraron que la prevalencia de un IPLM fue de un 88,4%, de un total de 2.683 nacimientos incluidos en el estudio. Además, se encontró asociación significativa entre este IPLM y distintos factores maternos, como la paridad ($p = 0,05$) y las semanas de gestación ($p = 0,047$), excepto con la edad ($p = 0,522$). Igualmente, se encontró una asociación fuerte con todos los factores del niño ($p = 0,000$), como el peso, el color del líquido amniótico, el test de Apgar al minuto y a los cinco minutos, el tipo de reanimación que precisaba o la necesidad de ingreso en la unidad neonatal.

Conclusiones: la tasa de IPLM en nuestro ámbito de estudio es alta y está influenciada por distintos factores maternos y del recién nacido.

Palabras clave:

Lactancia materna.
Inicio precoz.
Prevalencia. Madre.
Recién nacido.

Abstract

Introduction: the situation with maternal breastfeeding is difficult to describe with any certainty, given the absence of any data gathered in maternity hospitals, and the timing of its onset has not been explicitly evaluated. Further research is needed to evaluate breastfeeding support measures. The objective of the present study was to determine the prevalence of early onset of maternal breastfeeding (EOMB) and to analyze the relationship with different maternal and newborn factors.

Methods: a descriptive study was performed of births in a public hospital over a three-year period. The database used for the study derived from an electronic clinical record system designed by professionals. Descriptive and univariate analyses were performed. The association of early onset of maternal breastfeeding with other parameters from mother and newborn was analyzed by the Fisher's test.

Results: the prevalence of EOMB was 88.4%. A total of 2,683 births were included in the study. Significant associations were found between this EOMB and different maternal factors, such as parity ($p = 0.05$) and weeks of gestation ($p = 0.047$), but not with age ($p = 0.522$). A strong association was also found with all the factors of the child ($p = 0.000$), such as weight, color of the amniotic fluid, the Apgar test at one and five minutes, the type of resuscitation required or the need for admission in the neonatal unit.

Conclusions: There has been a high rate of (EOMB) in our setting.

Key words:

Breastfeeding. Early
initiation. Prevalence.
Mother. Newborn.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La importancia de la lactancia materna para la salud del lactante y las madres está bien documentada. Al lactante le aporta una nutrición óptima, favorece un desarrollo y crecimiento adecuados y disminuye el riesgo de padecer algunas enfermedades como otitis, diarrea e infecciones respiratorias, obesidad, hipercolesterolemia y diabetes, entre otras (1-3). Por otro lado, a la madre le aporta beneficios importantes, como una disminución del riesgo de cáncer de mama y ovario, menores tasas de obesidad y diabetes tipo 2 y reducción de las hemorragias postparto (1,4,5).

Sin embargo, la prevalencia y duración de la lactancia materna en la mayoría de los países desarrollados está muy por debajo de lo recomendado por la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS), la cual recomienda la lactancia materna exclusiva durante los primeros seis meses de vida y la complementaria con otro tipo de alimentos hasta los dos años o más de edad (6).

Un comienzo precoz de la lactancia materna favorece un mayor apego entre la madre y su hijo y una mayor duración de la lactancia materna (7,8). Igualmente, se ha descrito que este inicio precoz ayuda a establecer la lactancia materna exclusiva (9). Además, hay estudios recientes que demuestran que este inicio precoz conlleva una colonización del intestino del recién nacido por bacterias maternas, lo cual le ayudará a combatir algunas enfermedades y regular su sistema inmunológico (10). Por otro lado, se ha descrito también que los componentes de la lactancia, como la lactoferrina, las prostaglandinas, los ácidos grasos poliinsaturados de cadena larga (n-3), el colesterol y los oligosacáridos no digeribles, en los primeros días de vida pueden influir en la expresión de determinados genes, contrarrestando la predisposición genética a la obesidad o a otras enfermedades crónicas (11). Es sin duda un mecanismo potencial de salud y se considera que es un indicador de excelencia de la lactancia (12), por lo que los documentos publicados por la OMS y UNICEF recomiendan el contacto piel con piel y el apoyo a la lactancia en la primera hora después del parto (5,13). Sin embargo, el momento en que el recién nacido recibe la primera toma no ha sido evaluado de modo explícito y la situación de la lactancia es difícil de describir con certeza, dada la ausencia de datos recogidos en las maternidades, ya que no se dispone de datos oficiales sobre este aspecto y se desconoce cómo de implantada está esta recomendación (8). No obstante, para evaluar las medidas de promoción y apoyo a la lactancia materna se recomienda la recogida periódica de datos actualizados y fiables. Por estas razones, las guías de práctica clínica nacionales e internacionales sobre lactancia materna recomiendan la realización de registros e investigaciones al respecto (8,14).

Por todo lo expuesto, y dada la importancia que tiene la lactancia materna para la salud del recién nacido y de la madre, consideramos que era necesario conocer más e investigar sobre el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna. Por ello, nos planteamos en el presente estudio determinar la prevalencia del inicio precoz de la lactancia materna (inicio de la lactancia en la primera hora de vida). También se analizó la relación de este inicio precoz de la lactancia con distintos factores maternos y del recién nacido. Los factores maternos que estudiamos, fueron la edad materna,

la paridad y las semanas de gestación, y con respecto al recién nacido, estudiamos el peso, el color del líquido amniótico, el test de Apgar al minuto y a los cinco minutos, el tipo de reanimación que precisa o la necesidad de ingreso en la unidad neonatal.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

DISEÑO Y POBLACIÓN DE ESTUDIO

Se realizó un estudio observacional descriptivo y transversal de todos los partos en el Hospital San Juan de la Cruz de Úbeda, en Jaén (España), entre marzo de 2010 y marzo de 2013. El estudio fue aprobado por el Comité de Ética de la Investigación de la provincia de Jaén. Solo se incluyeron las gestaciones a término y de inicio espontáneo o estimulado. Como criterios de exclusión se establecieron: inicio de parto inducido por patología médica u obstétrica, la cesárea electiva o la presencia de algún factor de riesgo importante, como la hipertensión, la diabetes, la enfermedad materna grave, la toxemia, el crecimiento intrauterino retardado, el embarazo cronológicamente prolongado, la rotura prematura de membranas mayor de 24 horas, el oligoamnios y el polihidramnios. La forma de muestreo fue de tipo no probabilístico y consecutivo, atendiendo a los citados criterios de inclusión y exclusión.

VARIABLES

Se recogieron los datos sobre el IPLM, al igual que se valoraron otras variables relacionadas con la madre, como la edad materna (≤ 35 años o > 35 años), la paridad (primípara o múltipara) y las semanas de gestación (≤ 40 o > 40), y con el recién nacido, como el peso ($\leq 2,5$ kg o $> 2,5$ kg), el color del líquido amniótico (claro o teñido), el test de Apgar al minuto (≤ 7 o > 7) y a los cinco minutos (≤ 7 o > 7), el tipo de reanimación que precisa (sí o no) o la necesidad de ingreso en la unidad neonatal (sí o no). Esta agrupación de datos se consideró atendiendo a la edad materna y al riesgo obstétrico (> 35 años), a la fecha probable de parto (40 semanas de gestación), al bajo peso al nacer del recién nacido ($\leq 2,5$ kg), a una adecuada adaptación extrauterina en el nacimiento (test de Apgar > 7) y a la presencia o no de líquido amniótico con meconio del recién nacido (líquido teñido).

FUENTE DE DATOS

La base de datos utilizada para el estudio procedió de un registro clínico electrónico diseñado por el equipo de Ginecología/Obstetricia de nuestro hospital y fue completo.

PROCEDIMIENTO DE INFORMACIÓN

El equipo de matronas de la Unidad de Partos y el resto del personal de enfermería es el encargado de favorecer la vinculación materna-filial y la aparición de conductas instintivas que facilitan

el comienzo de la lactancia materna mediante el contacto piel con piel. Se asegura este contacto inmediato, sin prisas, entre la madre y el recién nacido sin envolver, inmediatamente después del nacimiento. Dicho personal es el encargado de vigilar la primera toma y el estado del recién nacido y de la madre, además de asesorar e informar en todo el proceso.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

El software SPSS v 20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) se usó para el análisis estadístico. Se realizó un análisis univariado descriptivo para las variables, utilizando una tabla resumen o figura, donde se incluyeron las frecuencias y porcentajes para las variables cualitativas y la media junto a la desviación estándar para las variables cuantitativas. La posible relación existente entre el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna con los distintos parámetros maternos y del recién nacido se analizó mediante el test de Fisher. Asimismo, se estimó para la muestra analizada la OR, junto con un intervalo de confianza al 95% para dicha estimación. En todos los test estadísticos realizados el nivel de significación se fijó en $\alpha = 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

Un total de 2.683 nacimientos fueron asistidos, atendiendo a los criterios de inclusión, en la Unidad de Partitorios de un Hospital público en España, entre 2010 y 2013, y la prevalencia de un inicio precoz de la lactancia materna durante la primera hora de vida del recién nacido fue del 88,4% ($n = 2.372$), frente al 11,6% ($n = 311$) de los recién nacidos que no la iniciaron de una forma precoz. Las características de las madres y de los recién nacidos se pueden observar en la tabla I.

ASOCIACIÓN ENTRE EL IPLM Y FACTORES MATERNOS

No se encontró asociación entre la edad materna y el IPLM ($p = 0,522$), como podemos observar en la tabla II. Sin embargo, nuestros resultados muestran que hubo una asociación significativa entre el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna y las semanas de gestación. Las mujeres de ≤ 40 semanas de gestación iniciaron la lactancia en un 89,1%, frente a un 86% que la inició con más de 40 semanas ($p = 0,047$), con una OR de 1,325 (IC 95%: 1,009-1,742), (Tabla II).

Igualmente, se detectó que hay una asociación significativa entre la paridad y el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna ($p = 0,05$), estimándose la OR en 1,416 con un IC del 95% (1,111-1,806) (Tabla II).

ASOCIACIÓN ENTRE EL IPML Y FACTORES DEL RECIÉN NACIDO

El análisis estadístico del IPML con los factores del recién nacido se muestra en la tabla III, donde podemos observar una

Tabla I. Características maternas y del recién nacido

	Media	Desviación estándar (DE)
<i>Características maternas</i>		
Edad materna	31	5,292
Semanas de gestación	40	1,141
	n	%
Primíparas	1.218	45,4
Multiparas	1.465	54,6
Total	2.683	100%
<i>Características del recién nacido</i>		
Test de Apgar al minuto	9	0,63943
Test de Apgar 5 minutos	10	0,52055
Peso (g)	3.349,14	417,757
<i>Tipo de reanimación</i>	n	%
No precisa	2.152	80,2%
Básica	518	19,3%
Avanzada	13	0,5%
Ingreso Unidad Neonatal	150	5,6%
<i>Líquido amniótico</i>		
Claro	2.195	81,8%
Teñido (+)	271	10,1%
Teñido (++)	166	6,2%
Teñido (+++)	27	1%
Hemorrágico	24	0,9%
Total	2.683	100%

asociación estadísticamente significativa fuerte entre dicho inicio precoz de la lactancia y todos los factores del recién nacido estudiados ($p = 0,000$).

En relación al test de Apgar al minuto, se observó que el 56,7% de los recién nacidos con una puntuación ≤ 7 iniciaron precozmente la lactancia materna, frente al 89,5% que la inició con una puntuación > 7 , estimándose una OR de 6,538 (IC 95%: 4,288-9,969). Con respecto al test de Apgar a los cinco minutos, se obtuvo una asociación significativa más fuerte aún que al minuto, estimándose una OR de 13,498 (IC 95%: 3,928-46,388).

El porcentaje de recién nacidos con peso ≤ 2.500 gramos que iniciaron la lactancia fue del 68,1% frente al 88,8% de niños con un peso > 2.500 gramos, estimándose una OR de 3,703 (IC 95%: 1,981-6,921). Los datos acerca de la necesidad o no de reanimación del niño muestran un porcentaje de un 69,4% de recién nacidos que iniciaron la lactancia cuando sí precisaron algún tipo de reanimación, frente a un 93% que la iniciaron cuando no hubo necesidad de reanimar. La OR estimada fue de 5,848 (IC 95%: 4,503-7,954). Esta OR fue estimada en 19,398 (IC 95%: 13,150-28,615) en relación a la necesidad o no de ingreso en la unidad neonatal. Igualmente, nuestros datos muestran que hay una asociación significativa entre el IPLM y el color del líquido amniótico por presencia o no de meconio del niño en el mismo.

Tabla II. Asociación entre el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna y factores maternos

Variables		Inicio precoz de la lactancia materna		Valor de p (test de Fisher)	Odds ratio (OR)	Intervalo de confianza (IC 95% para OR)
		Sí	No			
Edad materna	≤ 35 años	88,6% (n = 1.894)	11,4% (n = 244)	0,522	1,112	(0,819-1,509)
	> 35 años	87,5% (n = 405)	12,5% (n = 58)			
Semanas de gestación (SG)	≤ 40 SG	89,1% (n = 1.801)	10,9% (n = 221)	0,047*	1,325	(1,009-1,742)
	> 40 SG	86% (n = 498)	14% (n = 81)			
Paridad	Primípara	86,6% (n = 1.021)	13,4% (n = 158)	0,005*	1,416	(1,111-1,806)
	Multipara	90,1% (n = 1.263)	9,9% (n = 138)			

*Diferencias significativas.

Tabla III. Asociación entre el inicio precoz de la lactancia materna y factores del recién nacido

Variables		Inicio precoz de la lactancia materna		Valor de p (test de Fisher)	Odds ratio (OR)	Intervalo de confianza (IC 95% para OR)
		Sí	No			
Test de Apgar al minuto	≤ 7	56,7% (n = 55)	43,3% (n = 42)	0,000*	6,538	(4,288-9,969)
	> 7	89,5% (n = 2.209)	10,5% (n = 258)			
Test de Apgar a los 5 minutos	≤ 7	36,4% (n = 4)	63,6% (n = 7)	0,000*	13,498	(3,928-46,388)
	> 7	88,5% (n = 2.260)	11,5% (n = 293)			
Peso (g)	≤ 2.500	68,1% (n = 32)	31,9% (n = 15)	0,000*	3,703	(1,981-6,921)
	> 2.500	88,8% (n = 2.267)	11,2% (n = 287)			
Reanimación	No precisa	93% (n = 1.803)	7% (n = 136)	0,000*	5,848	(4,503-7,594)
	Sí precisa	69,4% (n = 331)	30,6% (n = 146)			
Ingreso en la Unidad Neonatal	No	91% (n = 2.030)	9% (n = 200)	0,000*	19,398	(13,150-28,615)
	Sí	34,4% (n = 45)	65,6% (n = 86)			
Líquido amniótico	Claro	90,9% (n = 1.910)	9,1% (n = 191)	0,000*	2,880	(2,216-3,744)
	Teñido	77,6% (n = 368)	22,4% (n = 106)			

*Diferencias significativas.

Como podemos observar en la tabla III, el 90,9% de los recién nacidos la iniciaron cuando el líquido era claro, estimándose una OR de 2,880 (IC 95%: 2,216-3,744).

DISCUSIÓN

Nuestro estudio muestra una alta prevalencia de IPLM y una fuerte asociación entre este parámetro y distintos factores de la madre (semanas de gestación y paridad) y del recién nacido (peso, color del líquido amniótico, test de Apgar, tipo de reanimación requerida y necesidad de ingreso en la unidad neonatal), con una OR mayor a 2.

Los datos obtenidos en nuestro estudio muestran una tasa de IPLM del 88,4%, lo que supone una alta prevalencia, si tenemos en cuenta el estudio de Martínez y Delgado (15), que establece que la prevalencia del IPLM oscila entre el 17% de Europa Occidental y el 50% de los países de América Latina (15); no obstante, hay estudios que encuentran tasas más altas, del orden del 74% (16) o 76% (17). De igual modo, Bystrova y cols. (18) muestran una tasa del 95%. Aun así, hay que señalar que la maternidad en la que se estudia esta prevalencia tan elevada tenía implementado el contacto piel con piel de la madre con el recién nacido como práctica habitual. Existe una fuerte evidencia de que el contacto piel con piel de la madre con el recién nacido inmediato e ininterrumpido tras el parto tiene beneficios con respecto a la lactancia (19,20). En nuestra maternidad de estudio se fomenta igualmente el contacto piel con piel, lo que podría contribuir de forma importante en el porcentaje de IPLM detectado.

La primera toma del bebé puede verse afectada por los distintos procedimientos clínicos y por el apoyo y asesoramiento de los profesionales sanitarios en las maternidades (22), como por ejemplo la preparación al parto (15). Estudios previos han demostrado que la implementación de programas estructurados en las maternidades aumenta las tasas de lactancia materna exclusiva (25). Además, en un modelo de atención por matronas se observa una mayor probabilidad de que se inicie la lactancia materna y menores tasas de ingresos en la unidad neonatal (23,24). En este sentido, cabe señalar que nuestro estudio se ha llevado a cabo en una maternidad que trabaja en base a una guía asistencial al parto poco intervencionista, humanizada y atendida por matronas.

La lactancia es un fenómeno multifactorial y complejo y puede verse influenciada tanto por factores maternos como por factores del recién nacido (25).

Algunos autores encuentran que las primíparas tienen peores resultados en las tasas de la lactancia de una forma general (26), lo cual va en consonancia con nuestros resultados, y que las mujeres jóvenes lactan en menor medida (15), aunque otros investigadores no encuentran diferencias al respecto (26). En nuestro estudio tampoco encontramos diferencias en relación a la edad materna, pero sí que observamos que las mujeres con una edad gestacional menor a la fecha probable de parto (40 semanas de gestación) tenían más probabilidad de un IPLM. Sin embargo, Bystrova y cols. (26) observan que esta probabilidad era mayor en

el caso contrario, es decir, con una edad gestacional mayor a la fecha del parto. Hay que señalar que el porcentaje de primíparas en nuestro estudio fue menor que el de multiparas y que la edad media de las mujeres fue de 31 años.

En relación al recién nacido, son distintos los factores descritos que tienen influencia sobre el IPLM (27). A la vista de nuestros resultados, el peso del recién nacido parece influir positivamente, como muestran igualmente Bystrova y cols. (18) y Lind y cols. (26) en sus estudios. Sin embargo, un test de Apgar al minuto y a los cinco minutos ≤ 7 , con necesidad de reanimación o ingreso en la unidad neonatal o con presencia de líquido teñido son factores que afectan negativamente el IPLM. Estos resultados están en consonancia con la mayoría de los autores que han estudiado estos factores del niño (27-29). Hay que destacar que en caso de necesidad de ingreso en la unidad neonatal, que en nuestro estudio fue del 5,6% del total de los partos, el principal motivo de no iniciar la lactancia en la unidad tras el parto es como consecuencia de la separación madre-hijo.

El tipo de parto es otro factor descrito que puede influir en la lactancia (26,30). Así, en los partos por cesárea los índices de lactancia materna son inferiores a los de los partos vaginales (30-32). En este sentido, Erlandsson y cols. (33) sugieren que en las cesáreas se sigan las mismas recomendaciones que en los partos vaginales, aconsejando que cuando el contacto piel con piel no sea posible con la madre, se coloque al recién nacido en contacto piel con piel con el padre o con la persona designada.

Una limitación de nuestro estudio ha sido el hecho de no recoger información sobre la causa de no IPLM. Del mismo modo, al ser un estudio descriptivo transversal no nos posibilita identificar relaciones causales entre los factores estudiados, pero sí que nos proporciona una buena estimación de prevalencia y nos posibilita realizar hipótesis causales. En futuras investigaciones sería necesario estudiar la evolución de dicha lactancia tras el alta hospitalaria.

En conclusión, la tasa de IPLM, en una maternidad con un programa estructurado atendido por matronas y en donde se fomenta el contacto piel con piel es alta y está influenciada por distintos factores maternos y del recién nacido. Sugerimos la conveniencia de realizar un seguimiento de la lactancia a largo plazo.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Cociente androide/ginecoide como factor pronóstico para dislipidemia en pacientes pediátricos con enfermedad renal crónica

Android/gynecoid ratio as a prognostic factor for dyslipidemia in pediatric patients with chronic kidney disease

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Resumen

Introducción: los pacientes con enfermedad renal crónica (ERC) deben ser considerados como un grupo de alto riesgo cardiovascular, ya que existen múltiples factores que incrementan la presencia de dislipidemia.

Objetivo: determinar si el cociente androide/ginecoide (CA/G) tiene utilidad como factor cardiometabólico para dislipidemia en pacientes pediátricos con insuficiencia renal crónica

Materiales y métodos: estudio de una cohorte. Se incluyeron pacientes con ERC terminal en diálisis peritoneal y hemodiálisis. A cada paciente se le realizó determinación de la composición corporal, índice de masa corporal (IMC) y perfil de lípidos. Posteriormente, se realizó somatometría y perfil de lípidos a los 6 y 12 meses de seguimiento. Análisis estadístico: para identificar la diferencia entre las variables somatométricas y bioquímicas iniciales, a los 6 y 12 meses se aplicó la prueba de Friedman. El coeficiente de Spearman determinó la correlación de variables corporales y bioquímicas.

Resultados: se analizaron 21 pacientes. Las concentraciones séricas de los triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento aumentaron significativamente (6 vs. 12 meses; $p = 0,05$), sin evidencia de un incremento en el *score Z* del IMC ($p = 0,98$) o colesterol total ($p = 0,49$). La grasa corporal, su porcentaje y *score Z* del IMC no se correlacionaron con los cambios en los niveles del colesterol y triglicéridos a los 6 y 12 meses; sin embargo, el CA/G presentó una asociación estadísticamente significativa con la modificación en las concentraciones séricas de los triglicéridos a los 6 ($r = 0,65$, $p = 0,003$) y 12 meses de seguimiento ($r = 0,54$, $p = 0,02$).

Conclusiones: el CA/G mostró asociación al incremento en la concentración sérica de triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento.

Abstract

Background: there are multiple factors that increase the presence of dyslipidemia in chronic kidney disease (CKD).

Objective: to determine if the android/gynecoid ratio (A/G) has utility as a cardiometabolic factor for dyslipidemia in pediatric patients with chronic renal failure.

Materials and methods: cohort study. Patients with terminal CKD in peritoneal dialysis and hemodialysis were included. Determinations of body composition, body mass index (BMI), and lipid profile were assessed for each patient. Subsequently, somatometry and lipid profile were performed at 6 and 12 months of follow-up. Statistical analysis: to identify the difference between the initial somatic and biochemical variables, and at 6 and 12 months, the Friedman test was applied. The Spearman coefficient determined the correlation of bodily and biochemical variables.

Results: twenty-one patients were analyzed. Triglycerides (TGL) serum at 12 months of follow-up increased significantly (6 vs 12 months, $p = 0.05$), without evidence of an increase in the Z score of the BMI ($p = 0.98$) or total cholesterol ($p = 0.49$). Body fat, fat percentage and Z score BMI did not correlate with changes in cholesterol and triglyceride levels at 6 and 12 months; however, the A/GI presented a statistically significant association with the change in serum concentrations of TGL at 6 ($r = 0.65$, $p = 0.003$) and 12 months of follow-up ($r = 0.54$, $p = 0.02$).

Conclusions: the A/GI showed an association with the increase in the serum concentration of TGL at 12 months of follow-up.

Palabras clave:

Dislipidemia.
Enfermedad renal crónica. Obesidad central. Enfermedad cardiovascular. Absorciometría de energía dual de rayos X (DXA). Cociente androide/ginecoide.

Key words:

Dyslipidemia. Chronic kidney disease. Central obesity. Cardiovascular disease. Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA). Android/gynecoid ratio.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La frecuencia de la enfermedad renal crónica (ERC) en niños ha ido en aumento en los últimos años (1). Este tipo de pacientes presentan anorexia, náusea y vómito por la uremia, administración de medicamentos, trastornos hormonales, osteodistrofia, resistencia a la acción de la hormona del crecimiento, aporte calórico-proteico inadecuado, hipoalbuminemia, acidosis y gasto energético aumentado, lo que puede ocasionar la pérdida de masa muscular, retraso en el crecimiento y cambios en la composición corporal (2).

Aunado a lo anterior, existe un incremento en el riesgo de enfermedad cardiovascular, lo cual probablemente es secundario a una alta prevalencia de hipertensión, dislipidemia, obesidad y estilo de vida sedentario, además de factores relacionados con la uremia como hipervolemia, anemia, alteraciones del metabolismo calcio-fósforo, hiperparatiroidismo y acumulación de inhibidores endógenos de la síntesis de óxido nítrico, entre otros (3,4). En los pacientes con ERC la elevación de la concentración de triglicéridos (TGL) es la principal alteración del perfil de lípidos, ya que se presenta en estadios tempranos de la enfermedad, seguido por la disminución de los niveles de HDL (hipoalfalipoproteinemia), lo cual se observa hasta en un 40% de los sujetos. La dislipidemia está favorecida por el aumento de la lipoproteína C-III, resistencia a la insulina, un aclaramiento inadecuado de las lipoproteínas y microinflamación, lo que contribuye a las anomalías lipídicas en el entorno urémico (5). Si bien ni la diálisis peritoneal ni la hemodiálisis corrigen por completo el perfil de lípidos anormal, estas modalidades de tratamiento parecen tener efectos diferenciales sobre los niveles de lípidos. La diálisis peritoneal generalmente causa un perfil lipídico menos favorable que la hemodiálisis (principalmente hipertrigliceridemia), lo cual se atribuye al paso de glucosa del líquido de diálisis hacia la sangre (6).

Por otra parte, el exceso de tejido adiposo, particularmente la grasa visceral, se asocia con resistencia a la insulina, hiperglucemia, dislipidemia, hipertensión y un estado protrombótico y proinflamatorio (7,8). Específicamente en los pacientes con ERC, se ha demostrado que la composición corporal juega un papel importante en la presencia y el desarrollo de alteraciones cardiometabólicas como la dislipidemia, la hipertensión arterial sistémica y el infarto agudo al miocardio. Un aumento en la grasa corporal es un hallazgo común entre los pacientes sometidos a diálisis peritoneal que se caracteriza por un aumento en la masa grasa (7). Diferentes autores han encontrado asociaciones transversales entre la grasa androide (grasa abdominal ubicada alrededor del tronco del cuerpo) y la grasa ginecoide (depósito de grasa glúteo-femoral alrededor de la cadera y los muslos) y/o el cociente androide/ginecoide y diferentes factores de riesgo para enfermedad cardiovascular en niños y adolescentes (9,10). Los pacientes con ERC deben ser considerados como un grupo de alto riesgo cardiovascular, en quienes la identificación y el tratamiento de estos factores deben ser tempranos, agresivos y multifactoriales para intentar reducir las complicaciones cardiovasculares que presentan. Por este motivo resulta relevante evaluar de manera integral la composición corporal y su relación

con el riesgo de presentar enfermedad cardiovascular. Así pues, el objetivo de nuestro estudio fue determinar si la composición corporal puede ser útil como marcador de dislipidemia a 12 meses de seguimiento en niños con ERC.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Se realizó un estudio observacional de una cohorte de niños y adolescentes con diálisis y hemodiálisis en el periodo de diciembre de 2015 a marzo de 2018. Se identificaron 23 pacientes de entre seis y 16 años de edad (12 [57%] de sexo masculino y nueve [43%] de sexo femenino) que se encontraban en seguimiento por el Servicio de Nefrología Pediátrica. Se excluyeron aquellos pacientes cuyos padres no autorizaran por escrito su participación ($n = 2$), pacientes que presentaran derrame pleural, con edema agudo pulmonar, insuficiencia cardíaca, anasarca o diabetes mellitus, que estuvieran en tratamiento con esteroides, que realizaran sus sesiones de hemodiálisis fuera del CMN Siglo XXI y pacientes con expedientes clínicos incompletos. Por consiguiente, para el análisis final solo se evaluó un total de 21 pacientes, a los cuales se les realizó medición inicial de la composición corporal, somatometría y determinación sérica de colesterol y TGL, con seguimiento de la somatometría completa, además de colesterol y TGL a los seis y 12 meses posterior a la primera evaluación. Del expediente clínico se recabaron edad, sexo, tiempo de evolución de la ERC y tipo de sustitución dialítica.

EVALUACIÓN ANTROPOMÉTRICA Y COMPOSICIÓN CORPORAL

El peso corporal seco se obtuvo utilizando una báscula digital Tanita® BMW-700, con capacidad de 200 g y sensibilidad de 0,1 g. La estatura se registró con un estadímetro Seca® 222 con un rango de 6-230 cm y divisiones de 1 mm. La composición corporal se determinó mediante absorciometría de energía dual de rayos X (DXA), con el equipo Luna Prodigy Advance™ (GE Medical Systems), por personal capacitado y certificado. La medición se realizó en posición anteroposterior, con el paciente inmóvil, sin objetos metálicos (aretes, pulseras, anillos, llaves, juguetes, cinturones, cadenas, etc.) y consistió en una serie de escaneos transversales desde la cabeza hasta la punta de los dedos del pie a intervalos de 0,6 a 1,0 cm del total del área escaneada. En el caso de los pacientes con diálisis peritoneal, se solicitó que acudieran el día de su cita programada en turno matutino, en ayuno, con cavidad peritoneal seca y con cuadernillo de apego a terapia dialítica para confirmar que se realizó su terapia basal en las últimas ocho horas, mientras que en los pacientes en hemodiálisis se realizó posterior a su segunda sesión de terapia (considerando que de las tres terapias que reciben a la semana, la segunda es en la que se encuentran metabólicamente más estables). La DXA mide la masa magra y el porcentaje de grasa del cuerpo total (% y kg de GC). La región androide se definió como el área entre las costillas y la pelvis que está totalmente

encerrada por la región del tronco. El límite superior es el 20% de la distancia entre la cresta iliaca y el cuello y el límite inferior está en la parte superior de la pelvis. La región ginecoide incluye las caderas y la parte superior de los muslos y se superpone tanto a la pierna como a las regiones del tronco. La relación entre la masa grasa androide y ginecoide (cociente androide/ginecoide = CA/G) se calculó como la masa grasa androide dividida entre la masa grasa ginecoide (9,11). Para fines del estudio, el manejo del aparato fue operado por un solo técnico entrenado en el uso del equipo, la posición correcta que debe tener el paciente y la interpretación de los datos para obtener la información precisa de cada medición.

MÉTODOS ANALÍTICOS

Se obtuvieron muestras de sangre por venopunción previo ayuno de 12 horas. Posterior a la obtención de suero, se procedió a centrifugar a 3,500 rpm durante diez minutos a 4 °C y a almacenar en alícuotas a -80 °C hasta su análisis.

La cuantificación de TG y colesterol sérico se realizó mediante un método enzimático colorimétrico, utilizando un analizador automático Roche/Hitachi cobas® 6000, Modular E-501 (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, Estados Unidos). Para el análisis de TG, este método utiliza una lipasa lipoproteica para hidrolizar triglicéridos a glicerol, con la oxidación posterior a dihidroxiacetonafofato y peróxido de hidrógeno, el cual reacciona bajo la acción catalítica de la peroxidasa con la 4-aminofenazona y el 4-clorofenol para formar un colorante rojo en una reacción de punto final según Trinder. La intensidad cromática del colorante rojo formado es directamente proporcional a la concentración de triglicéridos y puede medirse fotométricamente. En cuanto al colesterol, por este método, los ésteres de colesterol se desdoblan por la acción de la colesterol esterasa a colesterol libre y ácidos grasos. La colesterol oxidasa cataliza entonces la oxidación de colesterol a colest-4-en-3-ona y peróxido de hidrógeno. En presencia de peroxidasa, el peróxido de hidrógeno formado produce una unión oxidativa de fenol y 4-aminofenazona para formar un colorante rojo de quinoneimina. La intensidad cromática del colorante formado es directamente proporcional a la concentración de colesterol. Se determina midiendo el aumento de la absorbancia.

Las técnicas de control de calidad que se emplearon en el laboratorio se realizaron con base en lo establecido para cada una de las mediciones mencionadas anteriormente y en cada corrida se incluyeron controles.

DEFINICIONES

Se consideró dislipidemia la presencia de hipertrigliceridemia (TGL plasmáticos ≥ 150 mg/dl) o hipercolesterolemia (colesterol total > 200 mg/dl) (12). Se consideró sobrepeso u obesidad cuando el IMC estaba en percentil ≥ 85 para la edad y el sexo (12). El %GC y el CA/G se consideró patológico cuando estaba en percentil ≥ 95 de acuerdo a la edad y el sexo de los pacientes (13,14).

El protocolo de investigación fue aprobado por el Comité de Investigación del Hospital de Pediatría, con número de registro R-2010-3603-27. Los padres firmaron la carta de consentimiento informado y los pacientes mayores de ocho años firmaron la carta de asentimiento de acuerdo con las recomendaciones de la Declaración de Helsinki.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Los datos se analizaron utilizando el paquete estadístico Stata versión 12.0. En virtud de que no se encontró distribución normal para las variables cuantitativas, los datos se presentan como mediana, mínimo y máximo y las variables cualitativas, en frecuencia y porcentaje.

Para identificar si existía diferencia entre el *score Z* del IMC, los niveles séricos de triglicéridos y el colesterol total se aplicó la prueba de Friedman al inicio, seis meses y 12 meses. Para identificar diferencia entre las proporciones de obesidad, hipertrigliceridemia e hipercolesterolemia al inicio en comparación a los seis y 12 meses se aplicó prueba de Chi cuadrado o exacta de Fisher.

Se calculó la diferencia (delta) de los niveles séricos de TGL y del colesterol, restando los niveles a los 12 meses menos los iniciales. Esta misma operación se realizó para calcular el delta del *score Z* del IMC.

Utilizando el coeficiente de Spearman, se determinó la correlación del *score Z* del IMC, CA/G, grasa corporal y %GC con las concentraciones séricas de TGL, colesterol total al inicio, seis y 12 meses, así como con el delta de los TGL y colesterol total a los seis y 12 meses de seguimiento.

Mediante un modelo de análisis de regresión lineal múltiple se identificó la asociación entre el CA/G y el delta de los niveles de TGL, controlando por tipo de terapia dialítica, tiempo de evolución de la ERC y *score Z* del IMC.

RESULTADOS

De los 21 pacientes, nueve correspondieron al sexo femenino (43%), con una mediana de edad de 15 años (mín. siete años, máx. 16 años). Doce niños se encontraban en diálisis peritoneal (57%) y nueve, en hemodiálisis (43%), con una mediana de tiempo de evolución de la ERC de 19 meses (mín. dos meses, máx. 144 meses). Con respecto al estado nutricional, la mediana del *score Z* del IMC fue de -0,66 (mín. -3,0, máx. 2,1) y solo tres pacientes (14,3%) presentaron obesidad. El porcentaje de grasa tuvo una mediana de 21,8% y se mostró alterado en la mitad de los pacientes, mientras que el CA/G estuvo elevado en el 28,5% de los casos (Tabla I).

Durante el seguimiento de los pacientes a los seis y 12 meses, no se identificó una modificación significativa del *score Z* del IMC (basal -0,66 [-3,0-2,1] vs. seis meses -0,35 [-4,2-2,2] vs. 12 meses -0,14 [-3,0-3]; $p = 0,822$).

En relación al perfil de lípidos, el nivel de TGL no se modificó entre el inicial y los seis meses de seguimiento, pero entre los seis y 12 meses se detectó incremento (seis meses mediana:

Tabla I. Características demográficas, clínicas y composición corporal de los pacientes con enfermedad renal crónica terminal

	n = 21 Mediana (máximo, mínimo)
Sexo (F/M)*	9/12
Edad (años)	15 (7-16)
Tiempo de evolución de la ERC (meses)	19 (2-144)
Tipo de sustitución dialítica (diálisis peritoneal/hemodiálisis)*	12/9
Score Z del IMC	-0,66 (-3,0-2,1)
Sobrepeso u obesidad (12)*	3 (14,3)
Grasa corporal (kg)	13,17 (2,07-31,2)
Grasa corporal (%)	21,8 (5,2-46,4)
Grasa corporal alterado (13)*	10 (47,6)
CA/G	0,85 (0,35-1,22)
CA/G alterado (13)*	6 (28,5)

*Frecuencia (%). ERC: enfermedad renal crónica; IMC: índice de masa corporal; CA/G: cociente androide/ginecoide.

108 mg/dl vs. 12 meses: mediana de 147 mg/dl; $p = 0,05$). Además, se observó que el 40% ($n = 8$) de los pacientes en la medición basal presentaron hipertrigliceridemia, que ascendió al 47,6% ($n = 10$) a los 12 meses. Los niveles de colesterol no presentaron modificación significativa durante los 12 meses de seguimiento; sin embargo, el número de pacientes con hipercolesterolemia pasó de dos pacientes (9,5%) a cuatro pacientes (19%) (Tabla II).

En los análisis de correlación se identificó que a mayor CA/G, mayores niveles de TGL, lo cual fue estadísticamente significativo a los seis y 12 meses de seguimiento (Figs. 1 y 2). El resto de las variables de la composición corporal no se correlacionaron con los niveles de TGL y colesterol (Tabla III).

Por último, en el modelo multivariado para identificar el impacto del CA/G sobre la modificación de los niveles séricos de los

triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento se demostró asociación positiva, esto es, a mayor CA/G (coeficiente 216,4, $p = 0,008$), mayor incremento en las concentraciones de los triglicéridos, independientemente del score Z del IMC al inicio del estudio, el tiempo de evolución de la ERC y el tipo de sustitución dialítica (Tabla IV).

DISCUSIÓN

En el presente estudio, en pacientes pediátricos con ERC el CA/G se asoció con el incremento de las concentraciones séricas de triglicéridos, tras seis y 12 meses de seguimiento. Esto resulta clínicamente relevante dado que la dislipidemia es un factor de progresión, tanto de la ERC como de la enfermedad cardiovascular y el CA/G como marcador de riesgo metabólico (15,16). Actualmente, se reconoce que, independientemente de las características del paciente, la falla renal produce cambios en el perfil de lípidos (17). Estas modificaciones en el perfil de lípidos durante la evolución de ERC se caracterizan por niveles de C-LDL normales o discretamente elevados, C-HDL disminuido, TGL elevados y lipoproteínas aumentadas que se relacionan principalmente con el grado de daño renal, la etiología primaria de ERC, la presencia de síndrome nefrótico y la terapia sustitutiva utilizada (18,19). Estas alteraciones en el perfil lipoproteico son evidentes, incluso, en los niños con ERC moderada y se asocian con una disminución mayor del filtrado glomerular, la edad, la presencia de proteinuria y la obesidad (20). En nuestro estudio, solo el 14% presentó obesidad, mientras que el porcentaje de grasa corporal estuvo alterado en el 48% de los pacientes y en un 29% ($n = 6$) de los casos se identificó un CA/G elevado. En relación a las repercusiones negativas de la obesidad, estas no solo están relacionadas con la cantidad de grasa, sino también con su distribución y con un riesgo cardiovascular mayor. Un aumento de la acumulación de grasa abdominal, sobre todo en el compartimento visceral, se asocia a los factores de riesgo metabólico y aterosclerosis. El tejido adiposo visceral (TAV) es metabólicamente activo y secreta adipocinas, que causan inflamación vascular y resistencia a la insulina. El TAV se asocia a la enfermedad cardiovascular y constituye un marcador del riesgo cardiometabólico (21).

Tabla II. Seguimiento del perfil de lípidos y estado de nutrición de los pacientes con enfermedad renal crónica terminal durante 12 meses

	Inicio	6 meses	12 meses	p
	n = 21 Mediana (mín.-máx.)			
Colesterol total (mg/dl)	157 (131-230)	164 (98-305)	148 (124-245)	0,49
Hipercolesterolemia (12)*	2 (9,5)	3 (14,3)	4 (19)	0,77
Triglicéridos (mg/dl)	135,5 (56-328)	108 (64-276)	147 (56-342)	0,05
Hipertrigliceridemia (12)*	8 (40)	8 (40)	10 (47,6)	0,87
Score Z del IMC	-0,66 (-3 a 2,1)	-0,35 (-4,2 a 2,2)	-0,14 (-3 a 3)	0,98
Obesidad (12)*	3 (14,3)	5 (23,8)	5 (23,8)	0,57

*Frecuencia (%). IMC: índice de masa corporal.

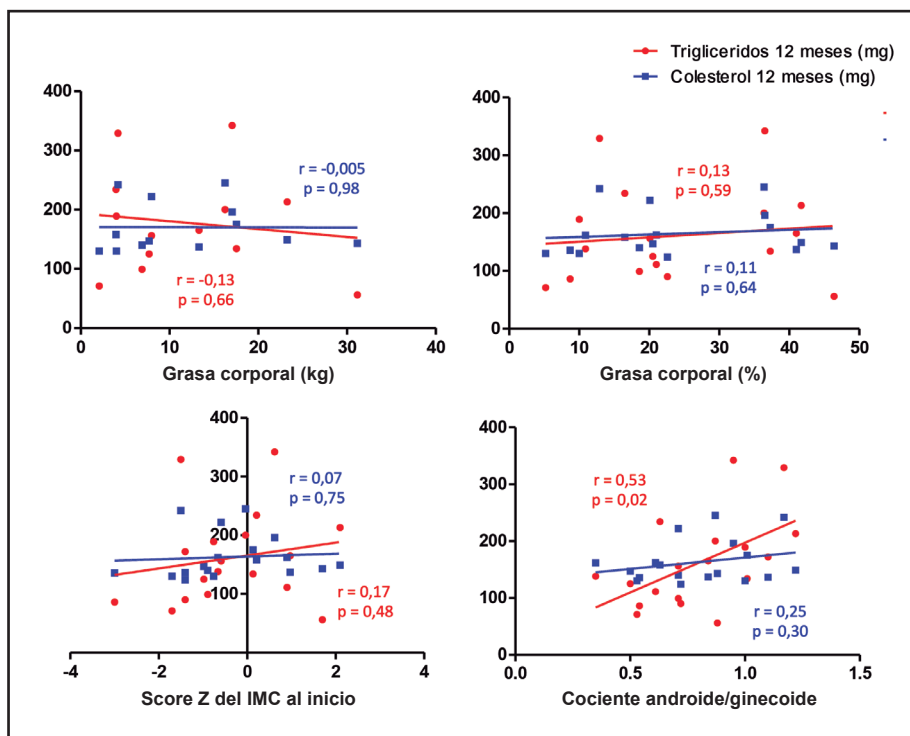


Figura 1.

Correlación de diferentes características de la composición corporal al inicio del seguimiento con las concentraciones séricas del colesterol y triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento.

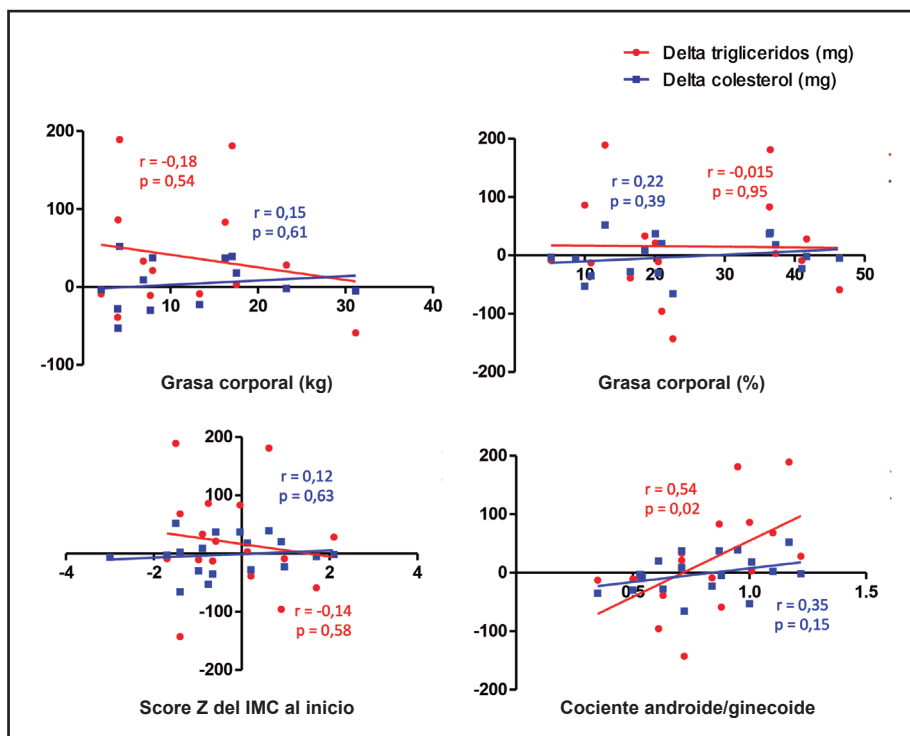


Figura 2.

Correlación de diferentes características de la composición corporal al inicio del seguimiento con el delta del colesterol y triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento.

Tabla III. Correlación del cociente androide/ginecoide con el colesterol y triglicéridos al inicio, seis y 12 meses y con el delta del colesterol total y triglicéridos a los seis y 12 meses de seguimiento

	Inicio		6 meses		12 meses	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Colesterol total (mg/dl)	0,05	0,8	0,17	0,45	0,25	0,3
Triglicéridos (mg/dl)	0,05	0,8	0,11	0,62	0,538	0,02
Delta de los triglicéridos (mg/dl)	-	-	0,65	0,003	0,549	0,02
Delta del colesterol total (mg/dl)	-	-	0,38	0,11	0,352	0,15

Tabla IV. Análisis multivariado para el efecto del cociente androide/ginecoide de grasa al inicio de la cohorte sobre la diferencia en los niveles de triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento

	Coficiente	Intervalo de confianza 95%	p
Cociente androide/ginecoide	216,4	69,4 a 363,3	0,008
Tipo de terapia dialítica	-15,4	-89,8 a 58,9	0,65
Score Z del IMC	-31,1	-65,8 a 3,5	0,07
Tiempo de evolución de la ERC	0,09	-0,9 a 1,2	0,84

ERC: enfermedad renal crónica.

En este estudio no se observaron cambios en la concentración de TGL entre la medición inicial y los seis meses de seguimiento. Sin embargo, entre los seis y 12 meses fue evidente un incremento significativo. Además, se observó que el 40% de los niños presentaron hipertrigliceridemia en la medición basal y el 48%, a los 12 meses. Los mecanismos por los que se producen estos cambios en el perfil lipídico se relacionan con la evolución de la enfermedad y el tipo de tratamiento sustitutivo renal. En estos pacientes, la acumulación de TGL se origina tanto por el exceso de producción de lipopartículas ricas en TGL, como por la disminución de su catabolismo, debido a un descenso en la actividad de la lipoprotein-lipasa (LPL) y de la lipasa hepática. Ello se debe a un incremento de los niveles de apoC-III, que provoca un aumento de la relación apoC-III/apoC-II, y a la disminución de la síntesis de LPL, que es secundaria a la presencia de hiperparatiroidismo o bien a la disminución de los niveles de insulina. Las alteraciones del C-HDL en la ERC disminuyen sus propiedades ateroprotectoras y pueden contribuir al exceso de mortalidad cardiovascular de los pacientes con ERC, aunque el efecto de la ERC avanzada sobre la composición y función de las HDL no está completamente esclarecido (17).

Algunos estudios han demostrado la asociación del CA/G con factores metabólicos y cardiovasculares en niños, principalmente en aquellos con sobrepeso y obesidad. Samsell y cols. determinaron en un grupo de niños de siete a 13 años de edad la asociación del CA/G con la resistencia a la insulina y la dislipemia, independientemente de la obesidad infantil, y reportaron que el CA/G se asoció con resistencia a la insulina y colesterol LDL y VLDL, lo que sugiere que este índice podría ser útil como una medición de riesgo de enfermedad metabólica y cardiovascular (22). En este

estudio se pudo identificar una asociación fuertemente positiva del CA/G sobre los cambios de los niveles séricos de los triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento, independientemente al score Z del IMC, el tiempo de evolución de la ERC y el tipo de sustitución dialítica. Esto es importante debido a que estudios previos han demostrado que la grasa de la parte superior del cuerpo, como la grasa del tronco, se asocia con un aumento de los factores de riesgo relacionados con la obesidad (enfermedad cardiovascular, niveles altos de TGL, colesterol HDL disminuido, presión arterial elevada), mientras que la grasa corporal inferior, que incluye la grasa del muslo y la pierna, está relacionada con una disminución de estos factores (23).

En un grupo de pacientes pediátricos urémicos en hemodiálisis ($n = 18$), González y cols., analizando los cambios en la grasa abdominal a lo largo de un año, evaluaron su posible asociación con los cambios en los niveles circulantes de adipocitocinas y la composición corporal, identificando una ganancia de grasa abdominal con el tiempo evidenciada por un aumento del CA/G, lo que podría explicar el aumento del riesgo cardiovascular que presentan (24). En contraposición con lo reportado por Gonzáles y cols., el nivel de triglicéridos, no el de colesterol, cambió significativamente entre los seis y los 12 meses de seguimiento. En relación al CA/G, el estudio tiene como limitación la falta de un análisis longitudinal de este indicador metabólico. Sin embargo, el CA/G presentó una asociación positiva con la modificación en las concentraciones séricas de triglicéridos a 12 meses de seguimiento, lo cual para nuestro conocimiento no ha sido descrito en otros estudios. No obstante, en forma indirecta se ha reportado una disminución del volumen de la masa muscular y el aumento de la masa grasa en pacientes con ERC (25,26).

Por su parte, Odamaki y cols. demostraron que el área de masa grasa abdominal visceral ajustada por el IMC fue significativamente mayor, mientras que el área de masa grasa subcutánea abdominal ajustada por IMC fue menor en pacientes con hemodiálisis cuando se comparó con un grupo control de niños sanos de la misma edad y sexo. También reportan una disminución en el área del músculo abdominal en los pacientes con hemodiálisis en comparación con los controles sanos. Los autores concluyen que la composición corporal es un factor relacionado con un aumento en la morbilidad en pacientes con ERC, asociado con una disminución en el músculo y aumento de la grasa corporal (26).

En relación a las limitaciones del estudio, es evidente el tamaño de muestra pequeño, lo que podría explicar que no se encontrara una correlación del colesterol con el CA/G. Sin embargo, a pesar de esta limitación del trabajo, los resultados obtenidos en relación al CA/G y la concentración de TGL, es necesario atender de forma temprana las complicaciones relacionadas con el acumulo de grasa abdominal y el riesgo incrementado de morbilidad en este grupo de pacientes.

No obstante, no está del todo claro si esta asociación en el paciente pediátrico con ERC es consistente a largo plazo, considerando la edad, la pubertad y la redistribución de la grasa corporal.

Para comprobar los datos obtenidos, se requiere realizar estudios futuros y dado los resultados obtenidos y recalculamos el tamaño de muestra, lo menos se requeriría incluir 30 sujetos.

En relación a las fortalezas del estudio, la adiposidad de los pacientes fue evaluada utilizando la técnica de absorciometría dual de rayos X, que se considera confiable y precisa en los niños y arroja mediciones duras de la distribución de la grasa, como las regiones androide y ginecoide del cuerpo, evaluadas en este estudio. La distribución androide y un CA/G alto se consideran factores de riesgo cardiovascular. No obstante, una segunda limitación del estudio se relaciona con el DXA, ya que esta técnica no permite separar entre la grasa visceral y la grasa abdominal subcutánea.

En conclusión, el CA/G se asocia fuertemente con los niveles de TGL a 12 meses de seguimiento en niños con ERC terminal.

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Trabajo Original

Concentration of ghrelin and leptin in serum and human milk in nursing mothers according to the type of feeding

Concentración de grelina y leptina en suero y leche humana en madres lactantes según el tipo de alimentación

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Abstract

Objective: we assessed the relationship between serum and human foremilk and hindmilk concentrations of ghrelin and leptin in nursing mothers according to the type of feeding.

Methods: this cohort design was carried out on 131 mother-newborn dyads admitted to a physiological puerperium ward. The independent variables were the type of feeding, full breastfeeding (FBF, 56.5%) and partial breastfeeding (PBF, 43.5%). The dependent variables were the concentration of total ghrelin (pg/ml) and leptin (ng/ml) in serum, foremilk and hindmilk at eight and 16 weeks. Fasting blood samples were obtained from the nursing mothers at four months for serum assays. Unpaired Student's t-test, Mann-Whitney U test, Pearson's correlation tests, coefficient of determination and linear regression were used.

Results: the concentration of ghrelin and leptin in hindmilk was higher than that of foremilk in both groups at eight and 16 weeks. The concentration of ghrelin and leptin was higher in serum than in foremilk in both groups. These values showed a direct and significant linear correlation with the exception of ghrelin in the FBF group. The serum concentration of leptin in mothers explained 32% of the variance of its concentration in foremilk in the FBF and 13% in the PBF groups.

Conclusion: the hindmilk/foremilk gradient suggests an intake regulating mechanism during the fed. The concentration of ghrelin and leptin was higher in the serum than in foremilk and its correlation and determination coefficients could suggest plasma-milk transfer in addition to synthesis regulation by the mammary gland, adipose tissue or other organs.

Key words:

Human milk. Leptin.
Ghrelin. Nursing
mothers. Foremilk.
Hindmilk.

Resumen

Objetivo: evaluar la relación entre la concentración de suero y la leche materna y la concentración de grelina y leptina en leche materna en madres lactantes según el tipo de alimentación.

Métodos: diseño de cohorte realizado en 131 diadas madre-lactante que ingresaron en una sala de puerperio fisiológico. Variables independientes: tipo de alimentación, lactancia materna completa (LMC, 56,5%) y lactancia materna parcial (LMP, 43,5%). Variables dependientes: concentración sérica de grelina total (pg/ml) y leptina (ng/ml), leche humana pre-tetada y pos-tetada a las ocho y 16 semanas. Se utilizaron pruebas no pareadas t de Student, U de Mann-Whitney, correlación de Pearson, coeficiente de determinación y regresión lineal.

Resultados: la concentración de grelina y leptina en leche humana pre-tetada fue mayor que en leche humana pos-tetada en ambos grupos a las ocho y 16 semanas. La concentración de grelina y leptina fue mayor en suero que en leche humana en ambos grupos; estos valores mostraron una correlación lineal directa y significativa con la excepción de la grelina en el grupo de LMC. La concentración sérica de leptina en las madres explicó el 32% de la varianza de su concentración en leche humana en LMC y el 13% en madres en LMP.

Conclusión: el gradiente de leche humana pre-tetada/pos-tetada sugiere un mecanismo de regulación e ingestión de leche. La concentración de grelina y leptina fue mayor en suero que en leche humana y los coeficientes de determinación sugieren una transferencia de suero-leche, además de una regulación de la síntesis por la glándula mamaria, el tejido adiposo u otros órganos.

Palabras clave:

Leche humana.
Leptina. Grelina.
Madres lactantes.
Leche humana
pre-tetada. Leche
humana pos-tetada.

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INTRODUCTION

The World Health Organization (WHO) (1) recommends offering “exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months, the time when safe and nutritious foods are introduced while breastfeeding continues and can be extended to the second year of life”. The creation of the WHO growth standard of healthy breastfed infants supports the perception that growth and cognitive development are optimal when this standard is adhered to, and that formula-fed infants deviate from this reference (2,3). Theoretically, exclusive breastfeeding (EBF) for six months propitiates the ability to self-regulate energy intake by the infants according to their needs, unlike formula-fed infants (4,5). It has also been noted that the protective role of breastfeeding against the development of obesity could be partially explained by the composition of human milk and also by the presence of appetite-regulating hormones (ARHs) (6-8).

Breast milk contains many bioactive factors, including growth factors and hormones. It has been hypothesized that breast milk may act as a metabolic messenger between mother and infant, whose composition influence infant appetite and growth (9). ARHs have been identified in breast milk, and it has been suggested that they may also influence infant appetite and appetite-regulatory pathways (10). Andreas et al. have pointed out that if breastfeeding is capable of protecting infants against obesity in later life, this may potentially be partially explained by the presence of these ARHs (9). ARHs concentration has been investigated in foremilk and hindmilk to establish whether they changed over the course of a feeding, potentially acting as hunger or satiety factors. Apparently, leptin was not observed to alter its concentration between foremilk and hindmilk. Other investigators have shown lower concentration of ghrelin in hindmilk in comparison with foremilk, and have observed higher concentration of leptin in hindmilk (11,12).

It is accepted that satiety and ARHs play a role in the regulation of food intake and body composition by signaling satiety and energy reserves through hypothalamic receptors, during and after the lactation stage (13,14). Appetite-stimulating hormones, such as ghrelin, are important in the initiation, cessation and frequency of eating (15). Satiety-regulating hormones, such as leptin, decrease food intake, promote satiety, decrease the desire to eat, and increase the metabolic rate (11). Therefore, the purpose of this report is to show the relationship and differences between serum and human milk concentration of ghrelin and leptin in nursing mothers, between human milk and serum concentration in their infants and before and after breastfeeding in FBF and partially breastfed (PBF) infants.

METHODS

This non-random cohort design was carried out on mother-newborn dyads who were admitted to a physiological puerperium ward in a shared room at the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Dr. Juan I Menchaca (NHCG DJIM). The independent variables were

the type of feeding and the dependent variables were the human milk and serum ARHs total ghrelin (pg/ml) and leptin (ng/ml). Subjects were included and evaluated at two and four months if they met the inclusion criteria: healthy postpartum women living in the metropolitan area of Guadalajara who had signed an informed consent form and had a healthy full-term single infant of either sex, with an adequate weight for his/her 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 their newborns had congenital malformations and/or genetic diseases; dyads were also excluded by maternal causes such as loss of follow-up, presence of intercurrent subacute or chronic disease, occurrence of serious accident and/or infant causes such as subacute or chronic disease, occurrence of an accident, serious illness, or incomplete data regarding the mother or infant. With averages and variances of serum leptin from nursing and non-lactating mothers (16), an alpha of 0.05 and a power of 0.80. The sampling system was non-probabilistic at the site of birth concentration.

MEASURING INSTRUMENTS AND TECHNIQUES

Human milk

Human milk was collected from the mothers at eight and 16 weeks before and after breastfeeding. It was obtained with a breast pump and collected in previously labeled plastic containers. Immediately after collection, all of the samples were cold centrifuged at 4 °C at 3,000 rpm for ten minutes. The top layer of fat was removed using a Pasteur pipette and the remaining liquid phase was divided into eight aliquots. All of the aliquots were placed in a 0.6 ml tube and stored at -80 °C, until the day of the assay. The quantification determination of the leptin and ghrelin levels in the breast milk samples was performed using commercial ELISA kits (Leptin Ultrasensitive, ALPCO® USA and Human Ghrelin Total, EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA, respectively) and processed according to the manufacturer's instructions. All of the samples were duplicated and 1:5 dilutions were made for the leptin assay. The sensitivity of the leptin assay was 0.01 ng/ml while for ghrelin it was 50 pg/ml. Dilutions were made with the standards provided in the trials, and were analyzed in duplicate to generate standard curves of the hormones and subsequently adjusted to a four-parameter logistic regression model (4-PL). Both curves showed a correlation coefficient (r^2) above 0.95. The ghrelin and leptin sample levels were interpolated from the standard curve.

Collection of blood assays

At 16 weeks of age, postpartum blood samples were obtained from the mother (3 ml) while fasting. To stabilize the

ARHs, the samples were placed in Vacutainer® EDTA anticoagulant tubes treated with aprotinin protease inhibitor (500 KIU/ml, EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and inhibitor of dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP4, 10 µl/ml, EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). After collection, the plasma was separated by centrifugation at 3,000 g for 15 minutes at 4 °C, and aliquoted in 0.6 ml tubes; then, they were stored at -80 °C. The leptin hormones (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA) and ghrelin (EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) were analyzed with commercial ELISA kits. For the determination of leptin the samples were diluted 1:20. The sensitivity of the assay for leptin and ghrelin was 7.8 pg/ml and 30 pg/ml, respectively. The concentrations of the hormones were determined from curves generated from the standards of each kit, using a logistic regression model of four parameters. Both curves showed a correlation coefficient (r^2) above 0.95. The levels of leptin and ghrelin in the samples were interpolated from the standard curve.

Field work criteria and strategies

The recruitment of the dyads was performed at a physiological puerperium ward of the Gyneco-Obstetrics Division of the NHCG DJIM. Mothers were invited to participate after researchers (EGM and NME) promoted full breastfeeding for at least six months. We clarified that we were interested in including all of the mothers who wanted to participate regardless of the mode of feeding that they chose for their infants. At eight and 16 weeks, samples of human milk were collected from the mothers before and after feeding their infants; at 16 weeks a blood sample was also obtained from both.

Collection of information, databases and computer programs

Once the information was obtained, the database was elaborated, the data were captured, and the statistical analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 24.

Statistical analysis

Levene's test was used to assess equality of the variances and for two or more groups, and Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were used to explore the normality of the distributions. The unpaired Student's *t* tests were used to show the contrast between two independent samples with normal distribution. In variables with non-normal distribution, the Mann-Whitney *U* test on samples was used. Linear regressions and Pearson's correlation coefficient between parametric variables and Spearman's correlation between non-parametric variables with very wide variances were also obtained. The level of significance was a *p* value ≤ 0.05 .

Biosecurity

The handling of the biological samples was carried out according to the specifications of the Mexican Official Standard NOM-087-ECOL-SSA1-2002. The chemical substances were handled and stored in accordance with the Mexican Official Standards NOM-052-SEMARNAT-2005 and NOM-054-SEMARNAT-1993, in addition to information indicated in the biosafety sheets for each chemical substance used in each experiment.

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 once the mother had given her authorization by signing the informed consent form. The protocol was approved by the Committees of Bioethics and Research of the HCG DJIM and the Committees of Biosecurity, Bioethics and Research at the University of Guadalajara, Center of Health Sciences (CI-01314).

RESULTS

A total of 131 mothers of infants who were cared for at the NHCG DJIM from the birth of their children were studied. Seventy-four (56.5%) fed their children with FBF and 57 (43.5%) with PBF. The age of the mothers in the FBF group was 23.7 (± 4.6) years and that of the PBF group 23.5 (± 4.5) years, without difference of means ($p = 0.819$).

HRAs IN HUMAN MILK, COMPARISON BETWEEN GROUPS

The results of the comparison of HRAs in human milk are presented in table I. The concentrations of ghrelin and leptin on milk samples taken at eight and 16 weeks, before and after the feeding to the breast between the FBF and PBF groups are presented in table I. In some cases, it was not possible to obtain enough breast milk for the ARHs assay, particularly in the postprandial sample. The comparison of the ghrelin concentration between the FBF and PBF groups at eight and 16 weeks and both in the foremilk and hindmilk did not show statistical differences. In the PBF group, the concentration of leptin in breast milk was significantly higher in the hindmilk than in foremilk at eight but not at 16 weeks.

HRAs IN HUMAN MILK, COMPARISON WITHIN GROUPS

In the FBF group the concentration of ghrelin in the hindmilk was higher than in the foremilk at eight and 16 weeks. In the

Table I. Ghrelin (pg/ml) and leptin (ng/ml) concentration in milk of lactating mothers according to the type of feeding at eight and 16 weeks postpartum and at the time of lactation (foremilk and hindmilk)* (the p-values < 0.05 of the intragroup comparisons are noted at the bottom of the table)

ARH	Age (weeks)	Feeding time	Full breastfeeding			Partial breastfeeding			p [†]
			n	Median	IQR	n	Median	IQR	
Ghrelin	8	Foremilk	74	154.1	75.1	53	192.2	113.1	0.510
		Hindmilk	74	178.8	88.1	47	185.4	87.3	0.832
	16	Foremilk	74	162.4	102.1	51	168.2	96.0	0.800
		Hindmilk	69	210.6	153.1	47	211.2	115	0.948
Leptin	8	Foremilk	69	0.316	0.50	54	0.359	0.63	0.298
		Hindmilk	68	0.317	0.57	46	0.468	0.6	0.032
	16	Foremilk	67	0.447	0.48	46	0.574	0.12	0.407
		Hindmilk	62	0.411	0.64	43	0.492	0.01	0.393

ARH: appetite regulatory hormones; FBF: exclusive breastfeeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding; IQR: interquartile range (percentile 75-percentile 25). *Some "n" values are smaller because they were excluded as outliers. [†]Mann-Whitney test. Ghrelin, FBF, eight weeks, foremilk versus hindmilk, Wilcoxon test: $p < 0.001$. Ghrelin, FBF, 16 weeks, foremilk versus hindmilk, Wilcoxon test: $p < 0.001$. Ghrelin, FBF, foremilk eight weeks versus foremilk 16 weeks, Wilcoxon test: $p = 0.038$. Ghrelin, FBF, hindmilk eight weeks versus hindmilk 16 weeks, Wilcoxon test: $p = 0.020$. Leptin, FBF, foremilk eight weeks versus foremilk 16 weeks, $p = 0.024$. PBF, foremilk eight versus 16 weeks, $p = 0.454$.

PBF group, no differences were observed in the concentration of ghrelin in foremilk when compared with hindmilk at eight and 16 weeks.

In the FBF group, the comparison of leptin in foremilk and hindmilk was greater at 16 weeks compared to eight weeks. In the PBF group no differences were observed in foremilk or hindmilk when comparing their concentration between eight and 16 weeks.

signed as dependent variable) are shown in table II. The correlation of the serum ghrelin values with those of human milk showed a nonsignificant trend in the FBF group. However, in the PBF group they presented a weak significant linear correlation with a prediction value less than 1. The values of the leptin showed a direct and significant linear correlation. The leptin serum concentration in the mothers explained 32% of the variance of concentration in milk in the FBF and 13% in the PBF groups.

HRAs IN THE SERUM OF MOTHERS AND IN HUMAN MILK

The comparison, correlations and linear regressions between the serum of the mothers and breast milk are presented in table II. The concentration of ghrelin and leptin was higher in serum than in foremilk in both groups. The correlations and linear regressions between the concentrations of ARHs in maternal serum (assigned as independent variable) versus the concentration in milk (as-

DISCUSSION

Almost no differences were found in the comparison of FBF vs PBF regarding foremilk and hindmilk ghrelin concentration and in foremilk and hindmilk leptin concentration at eight and 16 weeks postpartum except for hindmilk leptin at eight weeks, which was higher in the PBF group. Our results were very similar to those reported by Karatas et al. (12). These findings are likely to coin-

Table II. Comparison, correlation and determination coefficients between the concentration of ghrelin (pg/ml) and leptin (ng/ml) measured in serum (independent variable) and in foremilk (dependent variable) of four-month-old infant's mothers

ARH	Feeding type	n	Mother's serum		Mother's milk		p*	r	r ²	p [†]
			Median	IQR	Median	IQR				
Ghrelin	FBF	70	336.3	234.9	162.4	100.4	< 0.001	0.222	0.048	0.065
	PBF	55	313.2	229.2	168.2	139	< 0.001	0.208	0.084	0.044
Leptin	FBF	67	9.3	11.9	0.55	0.49	< 0.001	0.570	0.325	< 0.001
	PBF	46	14.9	26	0.63	0.75	< 0.001	0.366	0.134	0.013

ARH: appetite regulatory hormones; IQR: interquartile range (IQR = centile 75-centile 15); FBF: full breastfeeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding. *Comparison between mother's serum and mother's milk, Mann-Whitney U t-test. [†]p value of correlations and linear regressions.

cide with the greater amount of fat in the hindmilk at two months of postnatal infant age, which is a critical time of lactation. It is known that hindmilk is a high-fat, high-calorie human milk (17); in addition, it has also been described that leptin is produced and secreted by mammary epithelial cells in milk fat globules, although other amounts of leptin may be transferred from the blood to milk by secretory epithelial cells (18,19).

The concentration of ghrelin in human milk in the FBF group was significantly higher at eight and 16 weeks postpartum in the foremilk vs hindmilk sample ($p < 0.001$). Andreas et al. (9) also found higher concentration of ghrelin and leptin in foremilk vs hindmilk at three months of postnatal age. The powerful orexigenic action of ghrelin is well known and one might think that the reason for this is the body's natural pretension to stimulate the infant's appetite so that he obtains a greater quantity of human milk in a critical period of growth and mass increase. It has been suggested that ghrelin in human milk could be absorbed by the infant's gut and thus influences metabolic pathways and growth based on infant's needs (20). Savino et al. have pointed out that considering the orexigenic function of ghrelin, its presence in human milk may directly influence milk intake in breastfed infants, acting on feeding behavior, and control infants growth in the early period of life (21). Ghrelin concentration in human milk has been found to increase during lactation and it correlates with serum ghrelin levels in BF infants (22).

It was also noted that in the PBF group the concentration of ghrelin in the foremilk at eight weeks postpartum was significantly higher than the concentration of this hormone in the foremilk at 16 weeks postpartum. It is likely that it is due to the same reason. At four months the infant has practically doubled his weight and has less need of a higher amount of milk than the mother already produces at that infant's age.

A slightly more contradictory effect is observed in infants receiving PBF because the concentration of ghrelin is slightly lower in the foremilk phase than in the hindmilk phase at eight weeks postpartum ($p = 0.026$). However, at 16 weeks postpartum the foremilk concentration of ghrelin is significantly lower than the hindmilk ghrelin concentration ($p < 0.001$). These results do not coincide with others (12). It is likely that a gradually smaller amount of human milk and gradually higher amount of human milk substitutes is the reason for a lower production of ghrelin in the first moment of milk extraction by the infant.

In the FBF group the concentration of leptin was higher at eight weeks postpartum in the foremilk phase than at 16 weeks postpartum in the same phase ($p = 0.046$). It is likely that this effect is related to the greater adiposity that characterizes the infant in the fourth month of life. If this effect is valid, the adiposity of the infant would influence more than the adiposity of the mother in the concentration of leptin in human milk. In fact, some investigators (9) have suggested that the concentrations of ghrelin and leptin in human milk are regulated independently of maternal body mass index, with other factors determining their concentrations in this milk.

The estimation of the correlation and the coefficient of determination between the serum concentration of ghrelin and its concen-

tration in human milk was observed to be discrete in both the FBF ($r = 0.222$, $p = 0.065$) and PBF ($r = 0.208$, $p = 0.044$) groups. This finding would indicate that the concentration of ghrelin in human milk would reflect the needs of the infant more than the concentration of this hormonal biomarker in the mother's serum, which would be more related to her own physiological needs. Our results partially agree with those in other studies in which ghrelin levels in human milk correlated positively with maternal serum concentrations and that ghrelin has a direct passage from serum to milk; its production by the mammary glands is more likely (23).

In contrast, the concentration of leptin in maternal serum correlated more with its concentration in human milk in both the FBF group ($r = 0.570$, $p < 0.001$) and in the PBF group ($r = 0.366$, $p = 0.013$). A particularly noticeable effect was observed in the FBF group. The characteristics of the mother, such as her body composition and adiposity, would have a greater influence on the concentration of anorexigenic hormones in human milk. This finding could be interpreted as an effect of prevention of an excessive consumption of food of the infant, trying to avoid an excess of adiposity as it has been pointed out in other studies (21,24,25). Leptin is known to play an important role in the central regulation of energy balance, acting both at the level of the hypothalamus, inhibiting the hunger center with an anorexigenic effect, and at the peripheral level, inhibiting the synthesis of fatty acids and triglycerides and increasing the oxidation of fatty acids (21).

One strength of this study is the determination of ghrelin and leptin in human milk in FBF and PBF at eight and 16 months of postnatal age, two crucial moments of infant's growth. One limitation is that we determined total ghrelin, which is the sum of the acylated and deacylated ghrelin instead of the acylated form (known as active ghrelin) because it is thought to be essential for binding to the growth hormone secretagogue receptor 1a. However, the deacylated form is not totally inactive; it has influence on both cell proliferation and adipogenesis and counteracts the metabolic effects of active ghrelin (12).

In conclusion, the comparison of the concentration of ghrelin and leptin in human milk was made under different approaches: foremilk vs hindmilk in FBF and in PBF; two different moments of breastfeeding, eight and 16 weeks postpartum and FBF vs PBF. Our results showed significant differences with ghrelin and leptin that might have different interpretations. Ghrelin concentration in human milk showed a mild positive correlation with maternal serum concentration; therefore, it is likely that the main concentration in human milk comes from the mammary glands. In contrast, the concentration of leptin in maternal serum highly correlated with the concentration in human milk. It is likely that the characteristics of the mother, probably her body composition and adiposity, would have a greater influence on the concentration of this hormone in human milk.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Nutrición en el anciano

Determinantes de la satisfacción con la alimentación en adultos mayores chilenos *Determinants of satisfaction with food-related life in older Chileans adults*

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Resumen

El presente trabajo busca determinar qué factores demográficos y conductuales inciden sobre la satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación de los adultos mayores (AM) de la región del Maule, Chile. Se aplicó un cuestionario a 785 AM pertenecientes a los Centros del Adulto Mayor de 30 comunas de la región del Maule, Chile. Se aplicaron los cuestionarios Satisfaction with Food-related Life, Satisfaction with Life Scale, Subjective Happiness Scale y cuestionario de independencia en Actividades de la Vida Diaria. Se incluyeron preguntas de caracterización sociodemográficas sobre el consumo de once grupos de alimentos y bebidas en el hogar, además de los gastos en restaurantes. Se realizó análisis descriptivo y regresión logística, utilizando medidas de ajuste estadístico y diagnóstico de colinealidad de las variables. En conclusión, los principales factores relacionados positivamente con una alta satisfacción relacionada con los alimentos son el sexo femenino, estar casado o en pareja, mayor percepción de satisfacción con la vida y el consumo de pescado y vino. Se determinaron buenos niveles de comensalidad en las tres comidas estudiadas. En consecuencia, reunir a la familia y compartir a diario puede contribuir positivamente al bienestar. Sin embargo, la satisfacción con la alimentación fue mayor en las áreas rurales que en las urbanas y el grupo con mayor edad (> 80 años) reportó menor satisfacción con la alimentación cuando fue analizado de forma bivariable.

Palabras clave:

Satisfacción con la alimentación.
Adultos mayores.
Alimentación.
Satisfacción con la vida.
Envejecimiento.

Abstract

The present study seeks to determine which demographic and behavioral factors affect satisfaction with food-related life in older Chilean adults. A questionnaire was applied to 785 older adults belonging to the adult centers of 30 communes in the Maule region, Chile. The questionnaires Satisfaction with Food-related Life, Satisfaction with Life Scale, Subjective Happiness Scale and independence in Activities of the Daily Life were applied. Sociodemographic characterization questions were included, in addition to questions about the consumption of eleven groups of foods and drinks at home, besides the expenses in restaurants. A descriptive analysis and logistic regression were performed, using statistical adjustment measures and collinearity diagnosis of the variables. In conclusion, the main factors positively related to a high satisfaction related to food are the female gender, being married or in a couple, greater perception of satisfaction with life and consumption of fish and wine. Good levels of commensality were determined in the three meals studied; consequently, reuniting the family and sharing daily can contribute positively to well-being. However, satisfaction with food was higher in rural areas than in urban areas and the group with the highest age (> 80 years) reported lower satisfaction with food when it was analyzed in a bivariable manner.

Key words:

Satisfaction with food-related life.
Older adults. Eating.
Satisfaction with life.
Aging.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Asumiendo que el envejecimiento es un proceso multidimensional (1) que incluye componentes genéticos, ambientales, de bienestar y de calidad de vida de los adultos mayores (AM), entre otros, el componente salud complejiza esta multidimensionalidad por cuanto posee relevancia social (2).

En general, los problemas de salud en parte son el efecto de causas tales como el bajo control de factores de riesgo y la escasa efectividad de factores protectores (3), pero que, sin embargo, pueden ser evitados mediante la promoción de hábitos saludables a temprana edad (1). Es así como, en Chile, más de la mitad de la población de AM presenta problemas de obesidad y sobrepeso y las principales causas de muertes en mayores de 65 años son las enfermedades del sistema circulatorio y neoplasias (4), lo que sin duda incide sobre el bienestar subjetivo de este segmento de la población.

Desde la perspectiva del bienestar percibido, algunos estudios sugieren que la satisfacción con la vida de las personas mayores difiere de la del resto de la población, ya que viven situaciones de especial vulnerabilidad que afectan a sus capacidades físicas y mentales (1). Por una parte, por la necesidad de adaptarse al hecho de haber salido del mercado laboral y, por otra, por la relativa mayor dependencia y probabilidad de aislamiento, entre otros (5), que pueden incidir directa o indirectamente sobre la calidad de vida de los AM.

En teoría, el bienestar subjetivo incluye conceptualmente Satisfacción con la Vida, Percepción de Felicidad y auto Percepción de Salud (6), en consecuencia, estas percepciones basan conductas que influyen en sus posibilidades de realización de sus metas personales (6,7). Por lo tanto, llevando en cuenta que la calidad de vida depende de la autopercepción de salud (8) y de satisfactores diversos (9), tales como la alimentación (10,11), resulta bastante evidente la necesidad de estudiar este último componente.

La población, en general, es cada vez más consciente de que los buenos hábitos alimenticios mejoran la salud y por ende, el bienestar (10). Además, dado que los alimentos ocupan parte significativa de la vida de una persona en términos de tiempo y recursos (11), la satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación depende de la forma en la que las personas se alimentan (11,12) y de cómo esta depende de su situación socioeconómica (13).

En consecuencia, dado que la alimentación incide sobre la salud física y mental de las personas (10) y se precisan cambios de conducta (3) y estilos de vida saludables (1), el presente trabajo busca determinar qué factores demográficos y conductuales inciden sobre la satisfacción relacionada con la alimentación de los adultos mayores de la región del Maule, Chile.

MÉTODOS

El presente trabajo es de tipo transversal analítico y es parte de un Programa de Investigación de Excelencia Interdisciplinaria debidamente aprobado por el Comité Ético Científico de la Uni-

versidad de Talca, el cual consideró la aplicación de un consentimiento informado que fue aceptado por los adultos mayores antes de ser entrevistados.

La muestra consideró sexo y procedencia rural o urbana de los AM, de 60 años o más. Para la selección de los casos, se aplicó un muestreo bietápico, estratificado por conglomerados con submuestreo incidental (casual) y por redes (bola de nieve) (14) dentro del conglomerado.

La cobertura fue de 30 comunas de la Región del Maule, Chile, con afijación proporcional al tamaño de la población muestreada. Dentro de cada comuna se realizó la afijación por conglomerado, también de forma proporcional al tamaño de la población muestreada. El estrato quedó definido como la intersección de comuna y conglomerado (12,13).

Como conglomerados se utilizaron los centros de adulto mayor (CAM), los cuales fueron seleccionados dentro de cada estrato mediante un muestreo aleatorio simple, con la función "muestra aleatoria de casos" de SPSS. El nivel de error absoluto máximo esperado de los resultados del cuestionario es de $\pm 5\%$ para un nivel de confianza del 95%.

En lo procedimental, el trabajo de campo fue ejecutado por un equipo de entrevistadores debidamente cualificados por el equipo del proyecto. Con el objetivo de evitar sesgos de medición, la entrevista se realizó en forma personalizada y desde las preguntas más simples hasta las más complejas, considerando las opciones de respuestas, algunas solicitadas en escala Likert y otras requiriendo respuestas directas de frecuencia y cantidades de alimentos consumidos cada día.

El trabajo de campo se realizó durante los meses de diciembre de 2014 y enero de 2015 y alcanzó una duración promedio de 20 a 30 minutos aproximadamente. La recolección de datos ocurrió en los centros de adultos mayores (CAM). El análisis de los datos se realizó resguardando anonimato y la confidencialidad de los respondientes.

Se obtuvo una muestra total de 785 casos, la cual fue sometida a depuración a través de análisis de diagrama de caja, eliminando casos atípicos y valores extremos. Se obtuvo una muestra depurada de 574 casos que supera el criterio de muestra mínima (> 500).

INSTRUMENTOS DE RECOGIDA DE DATOS

El cuestionario de Satisfaction with Food-related Life (SWFL) (11), aplicado en su versión original, posee cinco reactivos en una dimensión y una escala Likert de seis puntos (5-30), donde 1 = completamente en desacuerdo y 6 = completamente de acuerdo. Fue validado en ocho países europeos mostrando índices alfa de Cronbach entre 0,81 y 0,85. Para Chile, esta escala presenta valores alfa entre 0,86-0,90 y omega de McDonald de 0,90.

Del instrumento SWFL se generó una variable promedio de los puntajes de los cinco ítems y se dicotomizó mediante clasificación de percentiles (p25) (14), definiendo "baja satisfacción" (ponderaciones bajo 4) y "alta satisfacción" (igual o superior a 4).

El cuestionario Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (15) está conformado por cinco ítems en una dimensión y escala Likert de seis puntos (5-30), donde 1 = totalmente en desacuerdo y

6 = totalmente de acuerdo. Sin perjuicio de su diseño original, este fue adaptado de su versión original con cinco ítems y una escala Likert de siete puntos impar. La consistencia interna para su versión en español se ubicó en 0,82-0,84 (España) (16) y 0,82-0,88 (Chile) (12). Para el presente estudio se obtuvieron alfas de 0,81-0,85 y omega de 0,86.

Como tercer instrumento se utilizó la Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) (17). Se aplica en su versión original, que cuenta con cuatro ítems y escala Likert de siete puntos (4-28). La consistencia interna se ubica entre 0,79-0,94; para este trabajo el alfa se ubica entre 0,71-0,78 y el índice omega, en 0,80.

Finalmente, el instrumento Índice de Independencia en Actividades de la Vida Diaria (KATZ) (18), aplicado en su versión original, cuenta con seis ítems y una escala de tres niveles ($I = 2$, $A = 1$ y $D = 0$), donde I responde a "completamente capaz"; A , a "necesita ayuda"; y D , a "completamente incapaz". Este índice fue modificado para su aplicación en Chile adaptándolo a una escala Likert de tres puntos considerando seis reactivos (6-18), donde el valor 1 indica "no puedo hacerlo" y 3, "puedo hacerlo sin dificultad". Los índices de consistencia interna muestran un alfa entre 0,91-0,97 y un omega de 0,91.

Se recogió información sociodemográfica de sexo, edad, estado marital, zona de residencia, nivel de educación, número de integrantes del hogar y peso y estatura reportados, para el cálculo del índice de masa corporal (IMC).

Respecto de los hábitos de consumo, se obtuvo información tanto de la frecuencia como de la cantidad de consumo de once grupos de alimentos y bebidas en el hogar, entre estos cereales y pastas; carne; pescados y mariscos; leche, queso y huevos; aceite, mantequilla y margarina; fruta; verduras y tubérculos; azúcar, café y té; bebidas y jugos; vino; y cerveza. Para fines de este estudio, solamente se consideró si se consumían o no tales grupos de alimentos.

Los gastos en restaurantes fueron dicotomizados con puntuaciones "0" para el caso de "no consume" y "1" para "sí consume". Complementariamente, la frecuencia de comensalidad se definió como el acto de comer con otros (19), lo que ocurre en el desayuno, almuerzo y once, con niveles de respuesta "diariamente", "dos a tres veces por semana", "solo los fines de semana" y "ocasionalmente".

ANÁLISIS DESCRIPTIVO Y REGRESIÓN

Las variables categóricas se describieron mediante frecuencias y proporciones y las variables cuantitativas continuas, con medidas de tendencia central y dispersión.

Para la comparación entre los grupos se aplicaron la prueba Chi-cuadrado y el test de Wilcoxon y para la verificación de la normalidad de las variables continuas se utilizó el test de Shapiro-Wilk. Se utilizó como medida de ajuste el estadístico de verosimilitud -2LL, considerando el criterio del valor más pequeño, y se analizó la prueba de Hosmer y Lemeshow para verificar el ajuste del modelo final.

En lo procedimental, se aplicó el método paso a paso automático con selección hacia atrás para llegar al modelo de efectos

principales para la variable *alta satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación*. Además, se determinaron los R^2 de Cox y Snell y de Nagelkerke para el ajuste global del modelo, considerando valores cercanos a 1. Asimismo, como medida de asociación y magnitud del riesgo se usó la *odd-ratio*, considerando intervalo de confianza (95%) y significancia ($< 5\%$). Finalmente, se verificó colinealidad de las variables del análisis principal mediante el índice FIV < 4 y tolerancia $> 0,10$, para confirmar no existencia de multicolinealidad.

Para el análisis de los datos, estimaciones y corroboración de resultados, se utilizaron los programas Stata v.13 para IOS y Windows y SPSS v.21 para Windows.

RESULTADOS

La tabla I muestra que los AM alcanzan edades de entre 60 y 92 años con una mediana de 71 años y donde el 88,28% corresponde a menores a 80 años. En su mayor parte (67,6%) son mujeres. Un 53,8% se declaran casados o viven en pareja, pertenecen a la zona urbana (64,1%) y en su mayoría tienen nivel educacional básico o medio (79,1%).

Se observa, además, que el 37,2% de los AM presentan un estado nutricional normal (IMC), mientras que los enflaquecidos, con sobrepeso y obesos representan el 21,6%, 28,6% y 12,6%, respectivamente, lo cual evidencia que existe un claro problema nutricional que alcanza el 62,8% de la muestra.

Por otra parte, la mayor frecuencia de comensalidad se ubica en la categoría "diariamente" tanto para desayuno (57,7%), como para almuerzo (66,1%) y once (68,9%), y donde en este último se refleja la preferencia de comer acompañado. Se observa, además, que cerca del 83% de los AM presentan altos niveles de SWFL y que, en términos de su autonomía relativa, la mayor concentración (82,78%) alcanza ponderaciones iguales a 18, indicando alta funcionalidad.

Respecto de la felicidad, con ponderaciones entre cuatro y 28 puntos, un 89,19% indica sentirse de feliz a muy feliz. Además, la satisfacción con la vida de los AM indica que un 72,35% registra ponderaciones ≥ 20 puntos, lo cual confirma un nivel de SHS relativamente alto. El grupo de alimentos mayormente consumido es el de cereal y pastas, con un 96,9%, seguido de la carne (95,6%); verduras y tubérculos y fruta (94,5%); leche, queso y huevos (93,5%); y aceites (91,2%). Por último, los gastos en restaurantes (47,1%) y el consumo de cerveza (39,6%) son las dimensiones que registran menores frecuencias (Tabla I).

El análisis bivariado de la tabla II muestra que ser mujer, estar casado o vivir en pareja, vivir en la zona rural, consumir pescados y mariscos, tomar vino y cerveza, frecuentar restaurantes, tener mejor percepción de SHS y felicidad son factores que se asocian a un alto puntaje de SWFL, con niveles de significancia altos (5% y 0,1%).

Por otra parte, en el análisis multivariable (Tabla III), algunas de las asociaciones encontradas en el análisis bivariado no se mantienen significativas, quedando fuera los ítems: zona de residencia ($OR = 1,5$; $p = 0,294$), gastos en restaurantes ($OR = 1,44$; $p = 0,409$), consumo de cerveza ($OR = 0,61$; $p = 0,321$), puntaje de funcionalidad ($OR = 1,01$; $p = 0,890$) y puntaje de felicidad ($OR = 1,04$; $p = 0,300$).

Tabla I. Caracterización de los adultos mayores según variables de estudio.
Región del Maule, Chile, 2014

Variable			
Edad (años); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	71 (9)	60-92	
Género femenino (n, %)	369 (67,6%)		
Estado marital (n, %)	Soltero(a) Separado(a) Divorciado(a) o viudo(a)	252 (46,2%)	
	Casado(a) o vive en pareja	294 (53,8%)	
Zona de residencia (n, %)	Urbana	350 (64,1)	
	Rural	196 (35,9%)	
Nivel educacional	Sin estudios formales	46 (8,4%)	
	Básico o medio	432 (79,1%)	
	Técnico o superior	68 (12,5%)	
Número de integrantes en el hogar; mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	2 (1)	1-15	
Índice de masa corporal (n, %)	Enflaquecido	118 (21,6%)	
	Normal	203 (37,2%)	
	Sobrepeso	156 (28,6%)	
	Obeso	69 (12,6%)	
Comensalidad (n, %)	Desayuno	Almuerzo	Cena
Diariamente	315 (57,7%)	361 (66,1%)	376 (68,9%)
2-3 veces a la semana	79 (14,5%)	71 (13,0%)	68 (12,4%)
Solo los fines de semana	44 (8,0%)	41 (7,5%)	29 (5,3%)
Ocasionalmente	108 (19,8%)	73 (13,4%)	73 (13,4%)
Consumo alimentario (sí)			
Cereal y pasta	529 (96,9%)		
Carne (pollo, vacuno, cerdo, etc.)	522 (95,6%)		
Pescado y marisco	478 (87,6%)		
Leche, queso y huevos	510 (93,5%)		
Aceite, mantequilla y margarina	498 (91,2%)		
Verduras y tubérculos	516 (94,5%)		
Fruta	515 (94,5%)		
Azúcar, café y té	475 (87,0%)		
Bebidas, jugos, etc.	394 (72,2%)		
Gastos en restaurantes	257 (47,1%)		
Vino	285 (52,2%)		
Cerveza	216 (39,6%)		
Instrumentos de medición			
Puntaje funcionalidad (KATZ); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	18 (9)	9-18	
Puntaje satisfacción con la vida (SWLS); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	22 (6)	6-30	
Puntaje felicidad (SHS); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	21 (6)	5-28	
Satisfacción con alimentación (SWFL); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.*	24 (5)	5-30	

*Variable de estudio.

Como resultado de esto, se obtuvo que los AM casados o que viven en parejas tienen 2,8 veces mayor posibilidad de tener

una alta satisfacción con la alimentación que los AM solteros, separados, divorciados o viudos. Complementariamente, las mu-

Tabla II. Análisis bivariado comparativo de las características entre grupos de SWFL. Región del Maule, Chile, 2014

Variable	Grupo baja satisfacción con alimentación (n = 95)	Grupo alta satisfacción con alimentación (n = 451)	p*
<i>Grupo de edad</i>			
60-79 años	78 (82,1%)	404 (89,6%)	0,04 [‡]
Mayor de 80 años	17 (17,9%)	47 (10,4%)	
<i>Sexo (n, %)</i>			
Femenino	46 (12,5%)	323 (87,5%)	0,000 [†]
Masculino	49 (27,7%)	128 (72,3%)	
<i>Estado marital (n, %)</i>			
Soltero(a), separado(a), divorciado(a) o viudo(a)	58 (23,0%)	194 (77,0%)	0,001 [†]
Casado(a) o vive en pareja	37 (12,6%)	257 (87,4%)	
<i>Zona de residencia (n, %)</i>			
Rural	20 (10,2%)	176 (89,8%)	0,001 [†]
Urbana	75 (21,4%)	275 (78,6%)	
<i>Nivel educacional (n, %)</i>			
Sin estudios formales	9 (19,6%)	37 (80,4%)	0,895
Básico o medio	75 (17,4%)	357 (82,6%)	
Técnico o superior	11 (16,2%)	57 (83,8%)	
Número de integrantes en el hogar; mediana (RIC)	2 (1)	2 (2)	0,3788
Índice de masa corpórea; mediana (RIC)	26 (3); 18-39	27 (5); 17-40	0,1382
<i>Consumo alimentario (sí)</i>			
Cereal y pasta	92 (17,4%)	437 (82,6%)	0,978
Carne (pollo, vacuno, cerdo, etc.)	91 (17,4%)	431 (82,6%)	0,923
Pescado y marisco	73 (15,3%)	405 (84,7%)	0,001 [†]
Leche, queso y huevos	85 (16,7%)	425 (83,3%)	0,089
Aceite, mantequilla y margarina	87 (17,5%)	411 (82,5%)	0,889
Verduras y tubérculos	90 (17,4%)	426 (82,6%)	0,913
Fruta	88 (17,4%)	427 (82,9%)	0,433
Azúcar, café y té	87 (18,3%)	388 (81,7%)	0,144
Bebidas, jugos, etc.	61 (15,5%)	451 (82,6%)	0,057
Gastos en restaurantes	29 (11,3%)	228 (88,7%)	0,000 [†]
Vino	36 (12,6%)	249 (87,4%)	0,002 [†]
Cerveza	26 (12,0%)	190 (88,0%)	0,007 [†]
Instrumentos de medición			p[†]
Puntaje funcionalidad (KATZ); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	18 (1); 9-18	18 (0); 10-18	0,0163 [§]
Puntaje satisfacción con la vida (SWLS); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	18 (3); 6-29	23 (5); 6-30	0,0000 [†]
Puntaje felicidad (SHS); mediana (RIC); mín.-máx.	18 (5); 11-28	21 (5); 5-28	0,0000 [†]

*Chi-cuadrado de Pearson. [†]Wilcoxon rank-sum test. [‡]Significativo al 5%. [§]Significativo al 1%. [†]Significativo 0,1%.

jeros tienen 2,3 veces más posibilidad de tener alto puntaje de satisfacción con la alimentación que los hombres.

Además, existe una fuerte asociación entre SWFL y SWL. Considerando el puntaje del instrumento SWL (6 a 30), el aumento en un punto incrementa en un 39% la posibilidad de tener alta SWFL. Además, quienes consumen pescado y vino tienen, respectivamente, 2,27 y 2,0 veces más posibilidad de tener alta SWFL que los que no consumen.

Complementariamente, comer en compañía en el desayuno y solo los fines de semana disminuye en un 60% la posibilidad de tener alta SWFL, en comparación con los que comen en compañía en el

desayuno diariamente. Todos estos hallazgos descritos para cada variable del modelo multivariable (al 5%) se determinan considerando que las demás variables del modelo se mantienen constantes.

En cuanto al Resumen del modelo, se observa que los coeficientes de determinación (R^2) explican entre el 24,6% y el 40,8% de la varianza de la variable dependiente en función de las variables incluidas en el modelo, lo que, junto con el estadístico de verosimilitud (-2LL), confirma que el modelo se encuentra ajustado y es relativamente explicativo. A su vez, el test de Hosmer-Lemeshow, con un valor p de 0,318 > 0,05, indica que lo observado

Tabla III. Factores independientemente asociados a alta satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación*. Región del Maule, Chile, 2014 (n = 574)

Variables	OR	p	IC
Casado o vive en pareja	2,82	0,001 [†]	1,53-5,21
Puntaje satisfacción con la vida (SWLS)	1,39	0,000 [†]	1,28-1,51
Sexo (femenino)	2,3	0,004 [§]	1,31-4,04
Comensalidad en desayuno: solo fines de semana [†]	0,4	0,045 [‡]	0,16-0,98
Consumo de pescado (si consume)	2,27	0,022 [‡]	1,13-4,58
Consumo de vino (si consume)	2,0	0,015 [‡]	1,15-3,48
Constante	0,0000429	0,000 [†]	
<i>Resumen de modelo</i>			
R ² de Cox y Snell	0,246		
R ² de Nagelkerke	0,408		
Pseudo R ²	0,306		
-2 LL (estadístico de verosimilitud)	350,381		
p value test Hosmer-Lemeshow	0,3186		

*Ajustado por años de edad. [†]En comparación con diariamente. [‡]Significativo al 5%. [§]Significativo al 1%. [†]Significativo al 0,1%.

se ajusta suficientemente a lo esperado y que la probabilidad de ocurrencia entre lo observado y esperado coincide para los subgrupos de la muestra.

Los estadísticos de colinealidad de la tabla IV indican que para las variables finales del modelo de regresión logística, las pruebas t poseen ponderaciones relativamente altas, exceptuando el caso de la comensalidad en el desayuno, que se ubica por debajo de 1.

Pese a lo anterior, tanto la *tolerancia* como el índice inflacionario de la varianza (FIV) se encuentran dentro de los valores requeridos (tolerancia > 0,1 y FIV < 4) para todas las variables del modelo especificado, confirmando la no existencia de colinealidad. Se observa, además, que el índice de *condición* no supera los 20 puntos y que las proporciones de las varianzas relativas a las variables en cuestión concentran sus valores en una sola variable, ratificando los resultados obtenidos por esta prueba.

DISCUSIÓN

Los hallazgos de este estudio revelan que los principales factores relacionados positivamente con una alta SWFL son el sexo femenino, estar casado o en pareja, mayor percepción de SWL y el consumo de pescado y vino. Caso contrario ocurre con la baja comensalidad en el desayuno, la cual se relaciona negativamente con SWFL. Esta relación entre género y SWFL es equivalente a la encontrada por Schnettler y cols. (2014) (13) en una población adulta y donde ser hombre disminuye la posibilidad de una alta SWFL, lo que se ratifica en otros estudios que indican que en la población mayor también se ha encontrado esta relación (20) y que la misma relación positiva se da entre mayor satisfacción relacionada con la alimentación y satisfacción con la vida (11,21-23).

La relación positiva entre SWFL y SWL puede reforzar la noción de que la alimentación tiene importancia biológica, pero también subjetiva y social (21). En el presente estudio no se encontró re-

lación entre el tamaño de la familia y la satisfacción con la vida en relación con la alimentación, aunque la muestra resultó uniforme en este parámetro, con un 58% de personas mayores que vivían con una o dos personas y un 88% con hasta cuatro personas.

Por otra parte, el hallazgo de que las personas casadas o que viven en pareja tienen más posibilidad de tener alta satisfacción con la alimentación confirma que interacciones agradables y actividades compartidas potencian sentimientos de bienestar e intimidad (19), previniendo sensaciones de aislamiento social en AM. Además, Seo y cols. (2013) (23) encontraron una relación negativa entre la satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación, el aislamiento y la depresión en adultos mayores, lo que incide en la salud mental de las personas mayores.

La muestra reportó buenos niveles de comensalidad en las tres comidas estudiadas (entre el 57,7% y el 68,9% compartían comidas diariamente), aunque una proporción considerable de adultos mayores comparte en ocasiones las comidas (13,4% y 19,8%); en consecuencia, reunir a la familia y compartir a diario puede contribuir positivamente al bienestar (21). Sin embargo, el análisis multivariable indica que solamente la comensalidad en el desayuno en los fines de semana se mostró asociada a menor posibilidad de alta satisfacción con relación a la alimentación (en comparación a la comensalidad en el desayuno todos los días).

Seo y cols. (2013) (23) encontraron que los adultos mayores que tuvieron compañía durante una comida o durante la preparación mostraron una mayor satisfacción con su vida y con la alimentación. Schnettler y cols. (2017) (24) determinaron que la mayor satisfacción vital y relacionada con los alimentos en las AM ecuatorianas se asocia con hábitos alimenticios saludables y almuerzos en compañía, menos problemas de salud mental y mayor importancia de la familia, hallazgos que resultan consistentes con los del presente estudio. En consecuencia, comer puede ser visto como una actividad social y la ausencia de compañía puede llevar a pérdida del placer asociado a comer y cocinar (25), lo que permite explicar el hallazgo de que vivir

Tabla IV. Estadísticos de colinealidad

Variables		t	Tolerancia	FIV
Comensalidad desayuno		0,635	0,922	1,085
Pescados y mariscos		2,442	0,972	1,028
Vino		2,136	0,937	1,068
Estado marital		3,048	0,847	1,180
Sexo		3,307	0,903	1,107
Puntaje calidad de vida (SWLS)		10,416	0,922	1,085

Diagnósticos de colinealidad									
Dimensión	Autovalores	Índice de condición	Proporciones de la varianza						
			(Constante)	Comensalidad desayuno	Pescados y mariscos	Vino	Estados marital	Edad	Sexo
1	6,786	1,000	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,01	0,00	0,00	0,00
2	0,490	3,721	0,00	0,04	0,00	0,68	0,00	0,00	0,11
3	0,281	4,918	0,00	0,52	0,00	0,01	0,00	0,00	0,45
4	0,246	5,255	0,00	0,26	0,04	0,30	0,05	0,00	0,32
5	0,111	7,831	0,00	0,01	0,78	0,00	0,19	0,00	0,00
6	0,060	10,636	0,01	0,10	0,16	0,00	0,60	0,02	0,06
7	0,024	16,913	0,02	0,02	0,00	0,00	0,01	0,08	0,03

en pareja se relaciona con mayor satisfacción con relación a la alimentación, en tanto que comer solo y vivir solo puede asociarse con una mayor prevalencia de obesidad, bajo peso y conductas alimentarias poco saludables en AM (26).

Un estudio sobre tipologías de consumidores de alimentos en la población adulta chilena halló una mayor frecuencia de respuestas extremadamente satisfechas con SWFL en el grupo de personas con altos valores en vida social, que disfrutaban de salir a comer fuera y de cenas con amigos en casa (27). Al respecto, este trabajo indica que gastos en restaurantes y satisfacción con la alimentación están asociados, pero en el análisis multivariable esta asociación no se mantuvo, aunque comer en restaurantes puede romper la monotonía (28) e incrementar la SWFL.

En lo particular, aunque no fue un objetivo explícitamente buscado en el presente estudio, cabe resaltar que el consumo de pescado en Chile es en general bajo y en la población adulta mayor solamente un 13,1% cumple la recomendación de las guías alimentarias para la población chilena de consumo de pescado dos veces a la semana (29). Así, este consumo puede ocurrir más frecuentemente en la población con mayores ingresos o con más conocimientos sobre nutrición y cuidado sobre su alimentación, lo que puede relacionarse con mayor satisfacción con la alimentación (27). Se podría esperar una relación entre satisfacción con la alimentación y escolaridad, no obstante, en este estudio esto no ocurrió, aunque la satisfacción con la alimentación y los ingresos estuvieron relacionados de forma positiva en otro estudio (30).

En el presente trabajo, la satisfacción con la alimentación fue mayor en las áreas rurales que en las urbanas, lo que confirma un estudio con población adulta mayor realizado en Corea (31). Por otro lado, Schnettler y cols. (2017) (24) encontraron que las tipologías de consumidores de alimentos que vivían en zona urbana tenían mayor satisfacción con la alimentación que los de la zona rural de Ecuador. Estas diferencias pueden deberse a las diferencias propias del entorno rural y de la cultura alimentaria de cada país. Además, Kim y cols. (2012) (31) encontraron relación entre una alimentación más saludable y mayor satisfacción con la alimentación en la población AM, relación que este trabajo no estudió.

El grupo con mayor edad (> 80 años) reportó menor satisfacción con la alimentación cuando fue analizado de forma bivariable. Sin embargo, estudios sugieren que ocurriría una relación positiva entre edad y satisfacción con la alimentación (24), lo contrario de lo determinado aquí.

Alimentación, buena salud y alta calidad de vida son esenciales para los adultos mayores y pueden

evolucionar positiva o negativamente dependiendo de las conductas relacionadas con la alimentación. Los adultos mayores de este estudio tuvieron mayor promedio de satisfacción con la vida relacionada con la alimentación (4,57) que lo relatado para la población Coreana (3,52) (23), pero menor que el promedio de la población ecuatoriana (4,68) (24). Los puntajes fueron semejantes a los de la población chilena de otras edades (entre 41 y 65 años: 4,62; entre 20 y 40 años: 4,56) (32).

El presente trabajo se realizó con una muestra restringida a una región de Chile que, a pesar de su magnitud y diversidad, puede limitar que sea representativa de la población del país. Además, como limitaciones de este estudio, comentamos que no se contó con datos de deterioro cognitivo, ingreso de los adultos mayores y datos de actividad física, variables que pueden relacionarse con la satisfacción relacionada con la alimentación y la percepción de la calidad de vida.

En conclusión, los hallazgos de este estudio demuestran que los factores sociodemográficos y los hábitos alimentarios desempeñan un papel importante en la satisfacción con la vida relacionada a la alimentación e identifica grupos vulnerables a una baja satisfacción con la alimentación en la población adulta mayor chilena, para quienes se deben direccionar prioritariamente intervenciones.

Además, este estudio muestra que diferentes factores contribuyen de manera diferente a la SWFL en adultos mayores. Direccionar acciones a posibilitar la comensalidad diaria, el consumo de pescado y el incremento de la satisfacción con la vida en general podrá mejorar la satisfacción con la alimentación en la población adulta mayor.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición en el anciano

Prevalencia de sarcopenia y características de los sarcopénicos en pacientes mayores de 80 años ingresados por fractura de cadera

Prevalence of sarcopenia and characteristics of sarcopenic subjects in patients over 80 years with hip fracture

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Resumen

Objetivo: calcular la prevalencia de sarcopenia en ancianos ingresados por fractura de cadera (FC) y comparar las características de sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos.

Método: se incluyeron 150 pacientes consecutivos de 80 o más años ingresados por una FC. Se diagnosticó sarcopenia a aquellos con baja masa muscular (bioimpedanciometría, puntos de corte de Janssen y Masanés) y baja fuerza muscular (dinamómetro de Jamar). Se recogieron variables sociodemográficas, cognitivas (Pfeiffer, GDS-Reisberg), funcionales (Barthel, FAC), nutricionales (MNA-SF, índice de masa corporal [IMC], ángulo de fase) y se registró el número de caídas y el número de fármacos.

Resultados: edad media: $87,6 \pm 4,9$ años (78,7% mujeres). La prevalencia de sarcopenia fue del 11,5% (Janssen) y 34,9% (Masanés). Del 77,5% que deambulaba de forma independiente, un 40% había sufrido ≥ 3 caídas. El 38% padecía demencia. Un 80,4% presentaba dependencia leve-moderada y el 14,2% era independiente para actividades básicas de la vida diaria (ABVD). El MNA era compatible con malnutrición en el 12,6% y tomaba ≥ 4 medicamentos el 85,2%. Los pacientes sarcopénicos (Masanés) presentaban índice de masa corporal más bajo (18,6 vs. 24,3, $p = 0,003$); no se encontraron diferencias entre sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos en otras variables. No hubo asociación entre el ángulo de fase y la sarcopenia.

Conclusiones: hasta un tercio de los pacientes mayores que ingresaron por FC presentan sarcopenia en el momento del ingreso. La prevalencia, en el presente estudio, depende de los puntos de corte usados para definir la baja masa muscular. En contra de lo previsible, los pacientes sarcopénicos con FC muy mayores apenas se diferencian de los no sarcopénicos, salvo por un menor IMC.

Palabras clave:

Sarcopenia. Fractura de cadera. Estado cognitivo. Estado funcional. Estado nutricional.

Abstract

Aim: to estimate the prevalence of sarcopenia in very old patients admitted to an Orthogeriatric Unit for the treatment of a hip fracture (HF), and to compare characteristics of patients with and without sarcopenia.

Methods: one hundred and fifty consecutive patients ≥ 80 years old admitted with HF were included. Sarcopenia was diagnosed with low muscle mass (bioimpedance, using two different cut-off points, Janssen and Masanés) and low grip strength (Jamar's dynamometer). Socio-demographic, nutritional variables (MNA-SF, body mass index [BMI], phase angle), cognitive (Pfeiffer, Reisberg's GDS) and functional variables (Barthel index, FAC) were registered, as well as the number of recent falls and medications on admission.

Results: mean age: 87.6 ± 4.9 years (78.7% women). Prevalence of sarcopenia: 11.5% (Janssen's cut-offs) and 34.9% (Masanés cut-offs). Of the 77.5% who had independent ambulation before the fracture, 40% reported three or more recent falls. Before admission, 38% had dementia and 80.4% had mild to moderate dependence to BADL before admission; 14.2% were independent for all BADL. MNA was suggestive of malnutrition in 12.6%, and 85.2% were on four or more prescribed drugs. Sarcopenic (Masanés) had a lower BMI than non-sarcopenic participants (18.6 vs 24.3, $p = 0.003$), but no other significant differences were found between both groups. Phase angle was also unrelated to sarcopenia status.

Conclusions: up to one third of very old patients with HF had sarcopenia on admission. Prevalence varied widely depending on the cut-off points selected to define low muscle mass. Sarcopenic patients in this setting were mostly similar to non-sarcopenic patients, except for a lower BMI.

Key words:

Sarcopenia. Hip fracture. Cognitive, functional and nutritional variables.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La sarcopenia y las fracturas de cadera son dos problemas frecuentes en las personas mayores. Ambas pueden ser tanto causa como consecuencia de una malnutrición y se relacionan estrechamente entre sí. El concepto de sarcopenia ha sido revisado recientemente (1) y se han establecido nuevos criterios diagnósticos. Se ha evidenciado ampliamente que la sarcopenia es un factor de riesgo de caídas (2), fracturas (3) y, en particular, de fractura de cadera (4). La osteoporosis y la sarcopenia coexisten con frecuencia en los pacientes con fractura de cadera y cuando lo hacen aumentan el riesgo de experimentar malos resultados de salud tras la fractura, incluidas peor recuperación funcional, institucionalización y mayor mortalidad (5,6). De hecho, se está desarrollando el concepto de osteosarcopenia para describir esta asociación (7). Además, una fractura de cadera conlleva periodos de inmovilidad que derivan en una mayor pérdida de masa muscular (sarcopenia aguda), que se suma a la sarcopenia crónica existente en muchas personas.

La prevalencia de sarcopenia publicada en los pacientes mayores con fractura de cadera oscila entre un 21 y un 74% en varones y entre un 12 y un 68% en mujeres (6,8-11), dependiendo de la definición de sarcopenia utilizada. Habitualmente, la prevalencia es mayor en varones y en servicios de rehabilitación, comparados con unidades de agudos. Hay pocos estudios sobre las características de los pacientes con fractura de cadera en función de que tengan o no sarcopenia, especialmente en el momento del ingreso, ya que en muchos casos la determinación de la existencia de la misma se hace tras el alta, cuando se suma la sarcopenia preexistente con la secundaria a la inmovilidad y la cirugía.

Diseñamos un estudio para determinar biomarcadores inflamatorios y neuromusculares en sangre periférica para el diagnóstico de sarcopenia en pacientes hospitalizados para el tratamiento quirúrgico de una fractura de cadera. Dentro de dicho estudio, aún en curso, buscamos también determinar la prevalencia de sarcopenia en estos pacientes y conocer las características diferenciales entre los sarcopénicos y los no sarcopénicos.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

PARTICIPANTES

Se reclutaron de forma prospectiva 150 pacientes de 80 o más años hospitalizados en una unidad de Ortopediátrica para el tratamiento quirúrgico de una fractura osteoporótica de cadera, que estuvieron de acuerdo en participar en un estudio sobre biomarcadores para el diagnóstico de sarcopenia. Los criterios de exclusión fueron: a) cirugía urgente antes de la recogida del consentimiento informado; b) portadores de marcapasos; c) cáncer activo; y d) haber recibido transfusión sanguínea antes de la extracción de una muestra sanguínea para el análisis de biomarcadores potenciales.

RECOGIDA DE DATOS

La evaluación de los participantes incluyó datos sociodemográficos, estado nutricional (Mininutritional Assessment-Short Form [MNA-SF]; índice de masa corporal [IMC]), situación cognitiva (cuestionario de Pfeiffer y Global Deterioration Scale [GDS] de Reisberg), estado funcional previo a la fractura (índice de Barthel, Functional Ambulatory Categories [FAC]), número de caídas y número de medicamentos al ingreso.

DIAGNÓSTICO DE SARCOPENIA

El diagnóstico de sarcopenia se basó en los criterios del European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP) (12), adaptados a este medio, en el que el rendimiento físico (velocidad de la marcha o Short Physical Performance Battery [SPPB]) no puede ser evaluado al ser los pacientes incapaces de deambular en el momento de la evaluación (primeras 72 horas desde el ingreso y antes de la cirugía).

La masa muscular se estimó en el preoperatorio usando análisis de impedancia bioeléctrica (BIA, Quantum/S Bioelectrical Body Composition Analyzer, Akern®). El índice de músculo esquelético (SMI [kg/m^2]) se calculó dividiendo la masa muscular absoluta (estimada a partir de los parámetros de la BIA con la ecuación de Janssen [13]) entre el cuadrado de la talla. La talla se calculó mediante el índice talón-rodilla. Se utilizaron dos puntos de corte distintos para definir una masa muscular baja, el internacional propuesto por Janssen (13) y el nacional de Masanés (basado en una población de referencia española) (14,15).

Con los resultados de la BIA también se calculó el ángulo de fase en función de la resistencia (R) y la reactancia (Xc): $(Xc/R) \times 180^\circ/\pi$ (16).

La fuerza muscular se evaluó mediante la fuerza de prensión del brazo dominante, usando un dinamómetro (Jamar®). Para el análisis se usó el valor máximo de tres medidas consecutivas. Se definieron como baja fuerza de prensión los valores menores de 30 kg y de 20 kg para varones y mujeres, respectivamente (12). En la fase de análisis de datos se publicó la actualización de los criterios del European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP2) (1), por lo que volvimos a definir la sarcopenia probable utilizando solo la fuerza de prensión muscular con los puntos de corte recomendados en este nuevo consenso, es decir, valores menores de 27 kg para los varones y menores de 16 kg para el grupo de mujeres, y con este criterio se volvió a realizar el análisis.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Se calculó que era necesaria una muestra de 146 participantes, con una sensibilidad del 95% para la BIA/dinamometría, con un intervalo de confianza del 95% y una prevalencia de sarcopenia esperada del 50% en esta población.

Todos los análisis se llevaron a cabo usando el software Stata, versión 13.0 (Stata Inc, College Station, Texas). Los resultados

para las variables cuantitativas se describieron mediante la media aritmética y su desviación estándar y los de las cualitativas, con la frecuencia absoluta y la frecuencia relativa.

Se realizó un análisis bivalente para comparar las características de los participantes con y sin sarcopenia, utilizando ambas definiciones o puntos de corte (Janssen y Masanés). Se aplicaron los test t de Student y U de Mann-Whitney para las variables cuantitativas y el test de la Chi cuadrado (χ^2) para las cualitativas.

Se midió la concordancia entre las dos fórmulas, para detectar sarcopenia, usando el coeficiente kappa de Cohen.

ASPECTOS ÉTICOS

El estudio fue aprobado por el Comité de Ética del Hospital Universitario Ramón y Cajal. Todos los participantes firmaron un consentimiento informado escrito y, para aquellos con deterioro cognitivo, un familiar cercano firmó dicho consentimiento.

RESULTADOS

Las características basales de los 150 participantes se presentan en la tabla I. La edad media fue de $87,6 \pm 4,9$ años y el 78,7% fueron mujeres.

La prevalencia de sarcopenia fue del 11,5% (10,3% en mujeres, 16,1% en varones) usando los puntos de corte de Janssen y del 34,9% (36,5% en mujeres, 29% en varones) usando los de Masanés. La concordancia entre ambas medidas de prevalencia de sarcopenia (basadas en los puntos de corte de Janssen y de Masanés, respectivamente) fue débil, con un índice de kappa de 0,316.

Las características de los participantes sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos, usando ambas definiciones, se presentan también en la tabla I. Los pacientes sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos fueron similares en todas sus características basales (con la única excepción de un IMC menor en los participantes con sarcopenia definida según los puntos de corte de Masanés, 18,6 vs. 24,3, $p = 0,003$).

En la tabla II se presentan las características de los participantes en función de la fuerza de prensión medida según los criterios EWGSOP2. La prevalencia de sarcopenia probable fue del 93,3% (94% en mujeres y 90,3% en varones). Comparando los dos grupos con este criterio, encontramos que aquellos con sarcopenia probable tenían mayor probabilidad de ser mujer, padecer demencia (según la escala GDS), sufrir una fractura peritrocantérea y tener peor situación funcional y movilidad previa, medidas por las escalas de Barthel y FAC, respectivamente.

Finalmente, no encontramos ninguna asociación entre el ángulo de fase y las distintas definiciones de sarcopenia. Estos resultados se muestran en la tabla III.

DISCUSIÓN

En nuestro estudio se confirma que la prevalencia de sarcopenia en pacientes muy mayores con fractura de cadera es relevante

y depende de los puntos de corte usados para definir baja masa muscular. En estudios previos (15) se describe la influencia de los puntos de corte de la masa muscular en la prevalencia respecto a la fuerza muscular. Aunque esperábamos encontrar diferencias entre los pacientes que tenían y no tenían sarcopenia en el momento del ingreso, los resultados indican que estos dos grupos son muy similares en sus características generales en el momento del ingreso hospitalario.

Solo el estado nutricional, en términos de IMC, fue significativamente mayor en el grupo de no sarcopénicos, como se había encontrado en un estudio sobre función muscular y biomarcadores inflamatorios en mujeres mayores sarcopénicas y no sarcopénicas (17), en el estudio de Yoo y cols. (8) sobre factores de riesgo de malnutrición e inflamación crónica y en el estudio de González Montalvo, llevado a cabo en un entorno similar al nuestro (10). En este último estudio, la prevalencia de sarcopenia en pacientes hospitalizados por fractura de cadera, siguiendo los criterios de la EWGSOP, fue del 17,1% (puntos de corte de Janssen), discretamente mayor que en nuestra muestra, usando los mismos puntos de corte. Las diferencias por sexo son muy próximas a las encontradas en nuestro estudio: 12,4% de sarcopénicos entre los varones y 18,3% entre las mujeres frente a nuestras diferencias de 16,1% y 10,3%, respectivamente. Es interesante la coincidencia en una mayor prevalencia de sarcopenia en varones que ingresan por fractura de cadera con respecto a la población general, si bien de nuevo las diferencias entre géneros parecen ser muy sensibles a los puntos de corte utilizados.

En nuestro estudio, al igual que en el estudio de Marzetti y cols. (18), los valores de fuerza de prensión en nuestra cohorte fueron en su mayoría más bajos que los puntos de corte establecidos por el EWGSOP para la definición de debilidad muscular debida a sarcopenia. Es más, existe una similitud entre nuestros resultados en fuerza de prensión muscular y los de González-Montalvo y cols. (10). La prevalencia de sarcopenia en función de la masa muscular (según Masanés) y de la fuerza de prensión es mucho mayor en el grupo de mujeres, como se evidencia en el estudio de Dodds y cols. (19) sobre fuerza muscular a lo largo de la vida, y esto ocurre a lo largo de todas las franjas de edad. Según este estudio, se produce un pico de masa muscular en el adulto joven que se mantiene en la edad media de la vida y que empieza a declinar en adultos mayores. El pico, en los varones, es de 51 kg y se produce entre los 29 y los 39 años, mientras que en mujeres es de 31 kg y se produce entre los 26 y los 42 años. La debilidad en esa fuerza de prensión, que se define como una disminución de 2,5 DE respecto al pico específico por sexo, aumenta con la edad y alcanza prevalencias del 23% en varones y 27% en mujeres a la edad de 80 años. En nuestro estudio, la media de fuerza muscular es claramente menor que la descrita en este estudio británico, seguramente por el sesgo de selección, al ser la fractura de cadera un marcador de fragilidad.

La falta de diferencias entre sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos es difícil de explicar. Puede deberse a que las diferencias sean pequeñas (y se necesite por tanto una muestra mucho mayor para detectarlas), a que los factores de riesgo que les han llevado a sufrir la caída y la fractura sean de mayor relevancia que la

Tabla I. Características de todos los participantes y características en función de la presencia de sarcopenia (según criterios EWGSOP)

	Todos los participantes	Sarcopenia (Janssen)		Sarcopenia (Masanés)	
		Sí	No	Sí	No
n	150	17	133	52	98
Edad (años), media $\pm$ DE	87,6 $\pm$ 4,9	87,4 $\pm$ 5,3	87,7 $\pm$ 4,9	87,7 $\pm$ 4,9	87,8 $\pm$ 5,0
Sexo (% mujeres)	78,7%	70,6%	80,2%	82,4%	76,8%
<i>Tipo de fractura</i>					
Pertrocanterea	53,0%	29,4%	55,4%	44,0%	56,8%
Subcapital	37,6%	58,8%	35,4%	42,0%	35,8%
Subtrocanterea	9,4%	11,8%	9,2%	14,0%	7,4%
<i>MNA[®]-SF</i>					
Malnutrición	12,6%	11,8%	13,0%	9,8%	13,7%
Riesgo malnutrición	49,0%	58,8%	47,3%	60,8%	43,2%
Normal	38,4%	29,4%	39,7%	29,4%	43,2%
<i>IMC</i>					
< 18,5	22,9%	33,3%	21,7%	36,0%	16,0%
18,5-24,9	35,4%	40,0%	34,9%	42,0%	31,9%
25-29,9	26,4%	20,0%	27,1%	14,0%	33,0%
$\geq$ 30	15,3%	6,7%	16,3%	8,0%	19,1%
<i>Marcha (FAC)</i>					
Independiente (4-5)	77,5%	88,2%	77,1%	78,4%	77,9%
Dependiente (0-3)	22,5%	11,8%	22,9%	21,6%	22,1%
<i>ABVD (Barthel)</i>					
Independiente (100)	14,2%	23,5%	13,2%	20,0%	11,7%
Dependencia leve (60-95)	66,9%	64,7%	67,4%	66,0%	68,1%
Dependencia moderada (40-55)	13,5%	5,9%	14,0%	6,0%	16,0%
Dependencia severa (0-35)	5,4%	5,9%	5,5%	8,0%	4,3%
<i>Cognición (Pfeiffer)</i>					
Normal	53,7%	50,0%	53,3%	54,8%	52,0%
$\geq$ 3 errores	46,3%	50,0%	46,7%	45,2%	48,0%
<i>GDS de Reisberg</i>					
Sin demencia	62,1%	50,0%	63,2%	60,0%	63,3%
Demencia leve	21,6%	37,5%	19,8%	25,7%	19,0%
Demencia moderada-severa	16,4%	12,5%	17,0%	14,3%	17,7%
Fármacos (n)	7,2 $\pm$ 3,6	7,7 $\pm$ 2,6	7,2 $\pm$ 3,8	7,7 $\pm$ 3,6	7,0 $\pm$ 3,7
Caídas previas ($\geq$ 3)	40,0%	1,4 $\pm$ 2,0	1,9 $\pm$ 2,8	2,0 $\pm$ 2,6	1,9 $\pm$ 2,8

DE: desviación estándar; MNA-SF: Mini Nutritional Assessment-Short Form; IMC: índice de masa corporal; FAC: functional ambulation categories; ABVD: actividades básicas de la vida diaria; GDS: Global Deterioration Scale.

sarcopenia, a que el elemento de rendimiento físico que no se puede medir en fase aguda de esta enfermedad tenga un papel relevante en marcar las diferencias (la nueva definición usa el rendimiento físico para definir la gravedad de la sarcopenia) o a que, de hecho, la sarcopenia no se acompañe en esta situación clínica de un fenotipo específico.

La nueva definición EWGSOP2, presentada durante la fase de análisis de datos de este estudio, nos permitió hacer un análisis exploratorio *post hoc* de las consecuencias de usar la fuerza de prensión como medida fundamental ante la sospecha de sarcopenia. En este caso, relacionamos la baja fuerza muscular con

la presencia de demencia y peor situación funcional y movilidad previa. La relación entre sarcopenia y deterioro cognitivo ha sido estudiada mediante un metaanálisis con cerca de 6.000 participantes (20), encontrándose que la sarcopenia se asocia de forma independiente con el deterioro cognitivo, aunque la relación causal o los mecanismos biológicos que subyacen a esta relación aún deben ser dilucidados.

En nuestro estudio, aquellos participantes que tenían peor movilidad previa al ingreso, medida por la escala FAC, y aquellos con mayor dependencia en las actividades de la vida diaria, medida por la escala de Barthel, también presentaban menor fuerza de prensión.

Tabla II. Características de los participantes según fuerza de prensión
(sarcopenia probable según criterios EWGSOP2)

	Sarcopenia	No sarcopenia	p
n	140	9	
Edad (años), media $\pm$ DE	87,8 $\pm$ 4,8	86,2 $\pm$ 6,0	0,858
Sexo (% mujeres)	79,9%	70%	0,000
<i>Tipo de fractura</i>			
Pertrocanterea	51,4%	70%	0,000
Subcapital	38,4%	30%	
Subtrocanterea	10,2%	0%	
<i>IMC</i>			
Delgadez	23,9%	10%	0,415
Normopeso	35%	40%	
Sobrepeso	26,1%	30%	
Obesidad	15%	20%	
IMC (P [kg]/T ² [cm ²]), media $\pm$ DE	22,2 $\pm$ 9,3	24,8 $\pm$ 5,8	0,267
<i>Marcha (FAC)</i>			
Independiente (4-5)	76,3%	100%	0,000
Dependiente (0-3)	23,7%	0%	
<i>ABVD (Barthel)</i>			
Independiente (100)	11,6%	50%	0,000
Dependencia leve (60-95)	67,4%	50%	
Dependencia moderada (40-55)	14,5%	0%	
Dependencia severa (0-35)	5%	0%	
<i>Cognición (Pfeiffer)</i>			
Normal	50,5%	88,9%	0,413
≥ 3 errores	49,5%	11,1%	
<i>GDS de Reisberg</i>			
Sin demencia	60,2%	85,7%	0,000
Demencia leve	23,1%	0%	
Demencia moderada-severa	16,7%	14,3%	
Fármacos (n)	7,3 $\pm$ 3,7	6,8 $\pm$ 2,8	0,400
Caidas previas	1,9 $\pm$ 2,6	1,7 $\pm$ 4,5	0,124

DE: desviación estándar; MNA-SF: Mini Nutritional Assessment-Short Form; IMC: índice de masa corporal; FAC: functional ambulation categories; ABVD: actividades básicas de la vida diaria; GDS: Global Deterioration Scale.

Tabla III. Asociación entre ángulo de fase y las distintas definiciones de sarcopenia

	Mujeres		Varones	
	Ángulo de fase	p	Ángulo de fase	p
<i>Fuerza de prensión</i>				
Sarcopenia	4,9° $\pm$ 1,9°	0,5	5,9° $\pm$ 3,6°	0,415
No sarcopenia	4,3° $\pm$ 1°		5,9° $\pm$ 0,1°	
<i>Janssen</i>				
Sarcopenia	4,8° $\pm$ 2,2°	0,5	5,4° $\pm$ 2,1°	0,415
No sarcopenia	4,9° $\pm$ 1,8°		6° $\pm$ 3,6°	
<i>Masanés</i>				
Sarcopenia	4,4° $\pm$ 0,8°	0,5	4,9° $\pm$ 1,7°	0,415
No sarcopenia	5° $\pm$ 2°		6,3° $\pm$ 3,8°	

Sabemos que la fuerza de prensión se asocia mejor con las consecuencias funcionales que la masa muscular, lo que es coherente con este hallazgo, que queda oscurecido por la incorporación de la estimación de la masa muscular a la definición de sarcopenia.

La asociación entre sarcopenia probable según los criterios EWGSOP2 y el sexo femenino, la peor funcionalidad previa y padecer demencia no se ha estudiado hasta la fecha en un nivel asistencial como es la unidad de Orto geriatria, debido a la publicación reciente de estos criterios. La diferencia entre el porcentaje de mujeres con sarcopenia utilizando este criterio y el porcentaje de varones es amplia y deberá comprobarse en estudios posteriores con series más grandes de pacientes con fractura de cadera.

El ángulo de fase se ha postulado como una medida adecuada para la valoración nutricional en los pacientes quirúrgicos (21), pero en nuestro estudio no encontramos asociación con ninguna variable de las estudiadas.

Nuestro estudio tiene, obviamente, varias limitaciones. En primer lugar, se trata de un subestudio de un estudio con el objetivo fundamental de determinar biomarcadores en sangre. Por ello, el tamaño muestral puede no haber permitido la potencia estadística suficiente. También es posible que esta muestra no sea representativa de todos los pacientes que ingresan por fractura de cadera en un hospital terciario, al tener que excluir para el estudio a los pacientes con cáncer y los portadores de marcapasos. Por último, es posible que en las características basales no hayamos analizado algún otro aspecto que podría diferenciar los pacientes con y sin sarcopenia.

CONCLUSIONES

La prevalencia de sarcopenia en pacientes muy mayores con fractura de cadera varía de acuerdo a los puntos de corte para masa muscular utilizados en su definición, siendo mayor con las referencias nacionales. Hasta un tercio de las personas mayores ingresadas por fractura de cadera padecen sarcopenia.

En nuestra muestra, los sujetos con fractura de cadera sarcopénicos y no sarcopénicos, en contra de lo esperado, no se diferencian en casi ninguna de sus características. Los criterios EWGSOP2 detectan más sarcopenia entre las mujeres, los que peor deambulaban y los que padecían demencia. El ángulo de fase no se asocia con ninguna de las definiciones de sarcopenia empleadas.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Comparison of the energy and metabolic nutritional profile of women with central obesity of socioeconomic classes A/B vs C/D/E

Comparación del perfil nutricional energético y metabólico de las mujeres con obesidad central de las clases socioeconómicas A/B versus C/D/E

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Abstract

Objective: to describe the characteristics of food consumption and energy intake of women with central obesity of socioeconomic classes A/B vs C/D/E.

Methodology: a cross-sectional study in which a structured questionnaire was answered containing data on socioeconomic and physical activities. Weight and waist circumference (WC) were measured and the 24-hour recall was assessed (24hR) in relation to food consumption. Biochemical exams were analyzed. The dietary analysis was performed on the Nutwin software and statistical analysis on the SPSS 23.0.

Results: there were 89 women assessed in each group and no significant differences were observed in relation to age, with averages of 51.2 ± 12.2 years vs 49 ± 14.4 years for classes C/D/E vs A/B, respectively. A sedentary lifestyle was predominant for class C/D/E 82 (92.13%) vs 22 (24.71%) ($p < 0.001$). Significant differences were observed between the groups for variables of hypertriglyceridemia ($p < 0.001$), predominant in the C/D/E socioeconomic group, and HDL-C ($p < 0.001$), predominant in the A/B socioeconomic group. Total energy consumption of women from class C/D/E vs A/B presented mean values of 1,528.72 kcal (1,128.8-1,697.3) vs 2,267.48 kcal (1,670.3-2,625.84), respectively. Significant differences were observed in the consumption of fiber between groups C/D/E vs A/B ($p < 0.001$), with less consumption in class C/D/E. With reference to income and schooling levels, we observed heterogeneity in the results and emphasize the marked contrast between low and high income that could influence the choice of food, contributing in the lower income to monotonous diets, less energy consumption and, furthermore, low quality in the ingested food.

Conclusion: in this study, all of the women presented metabolic profiles in different manners among the groups and, also, women of class C/D/E, who presented insufficient fiber consumption, directly contributing to this condition of obesity, also presented worse lipid (total cholesterol and triglycerides) and glycemic profiles.

Key words:

Abdominal obesity.
Women. Social class.
Ingestion of food.
Eating behavior.

Resumen

Objetivo: describir las características del consumo alimentario e ingestión energética de mujeres con obesidad central de clase socioeconómica A/B vs C/D/E.

Metodología: estudio transversal en el que respondieron a un cuestionario estructurado que contenía datos socioeconómicos y actividad física. Se evaluaron el peso, circunferencia de la cintura (CC) y se hizo un recordatorio de 24 horas (R24h) en relación al consumo alimentario y los exámenes bioquímicos. Los análisis dietéticos se realizaron en el software Nutwin y los análisis estadísticos en el SPSS 23.0.

Resultados: se valoraron 89 mujeres en cada grupo y no se observó diferencia significativa para la edad, con una media de 51.2 ± 12.2 años frente a 49 ± 14.4 años clase C/D/E vs A/B, respectivamente. El sedentarismo fue predominante en la clase C/D/E 82 (92,13%) vs 22 (24,71%), ($p < 0,001$). Se observaron diferencias significativas entre los grupos para las variables de hipertrigliceridemia ($p < 0,001$), predominantes en el grupo de clase socioeconómico C/D/E y HDL-C ($p < 0,001$), predominante en el grupo de clase socioeconómico A/B. El consumo energético total de las mujeres de clase C/D/E vs A / B, presentó medianas de 1528,72 kcal (1128,8-1697,3) frente a 2267,48 kcal (1670,3-2625,84), respectivamente. Se observó una diferencia significativa del consumo de fibra entre los grupos C/D/E vs A/B ($p < 0,001$), siendo el consumo menor en la clase C / D / E. En lo que se refiere a la renta y escolaridad, observamos la heterogeneidad de los resultados y destacamos el marcado contraste entre la baja y elevada renta lo que podría influir en la elección de los alimentos, contribuyendo en la menor renta para la monotonía alimentaria, menor consumo energético y, además, baja calidad de los alimentos ingeridos.

Conclusión: en este estudio, todas las mujeres presentaron perfiles metabólicos de maneras distintas entre los grupos. Las mujeres de la clase C/D/E, presentaron consumo insuficiente de fibra, lo que ciertamente contribuyó al cuadro de obesidad encontrado y paralelamente presentan peor perfil lipídico (colesterol total y triglicéridos) y glucémico.

Palabras clave:

Obesidad abdominal.
Mujeres. Clase
social. Ingestión de
alimentos. Conducta
alimentaria.

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INTRODUCTION

The high global prevalence of central obesity (CO) has epidemic characteristics, including countries with different degrees of socioeconomic development, requiring new public health policies. Nevertheless, in developing countries such as Brazil, anthropometric population and dietary data are still scarce, which shows the need for further investigations in this field (1,2).

Presently, evidences in literature indicate causal association of this excess adipose tissue on the abdominal region with the high consumption of saturated animal fat and simple carbohydrates, associated to low consumption of fibers, allied to genetic and behavioral factors, such as sedentary lifestyles (3,4). Further, this type of obesity creates metabolic conditions for increasing glycaemia (type II diabetes), blood lipid levels (hypercholesterolemia and hypertriglyceridemia) and blood pressure (hypertension), conditions that are responsible for the increase in the prevalence and incidence of chronic diseases.

The progress and dissemination of knowledge in the food industry after the Second World War (fifties) permitted the substitution of caloric hunger of quantity and quality of diets, observed in the Nazi concentration camps, in the droughts of the northeast of Brazil and in tropical regions with low income populations, for the hunger predominantly of quality of the diet due to excess consumption of food with higher caloric content and low nutritional value, characterized by the high level of simple carbohydrates and animal fat associated to a low content of fibers, mineral salts and vitamins. The undernourished of the past, with low weight associated to the loss of adipose and muscular tissue, was substituted by the individual with excess adipose tissue located mostly in the abdomen (3,4).

Currently, some aspects of these nutritional issues have been studied in a population of low income women attended at an Outpatient Obesity Teaching Clinic at Escola Bahiana de Medicina e Saúde Pública as part of a Research Project on Obesity of the Master's thesis by the author (5), published previously. The acquired knowledge led to an extension to the research with the purpose of comparing metabolic and clinical characteristics of the same type of obesity in women of socioeconomic class A/B, in order to better understand this apparent paradox of the coexistence of central obesity also associated to low-calorie diets, aiming also for more adequate prevention and treatment.

Thus, the objective of the present study was to describe the characteristics of food consumption and energy intake of women with central obesity of socioeconomic classes A/B vs C/D/E.

METHODOLOGY

Women with central obesity treated at the Research Project on People with Excess Weight (PEPE Project), at the Outpatient Teaching Clinic of Escola Bahiana de Medicina (EBMSP) and at a private clinic of Salvador, state of Bahia. Patients that fulfilled the criteria of eligibility were included. The study protocol was approved, under number 1314942/2015, by the Research Ethics

Committee of EBMSP and all of the participants signed the written informed consent form (WICF).

Inclusion criteria were: women with waist circumference (WC) over 84 cm and age over 18 years. The classification of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE) was used as the division criteria of the groups (6). Women with difficulties in expressing themselves, pregnant or nursing, undergoing hemodialysis, using chemotherapy, anorectic agents/appetite depressants and with psychiatric disorders were excluded. Schooling level was classified and categorized as under 12 years of study or higher education to 12 years of study.

Data collection began at the moment in which the patient accepted to participate in the study. Interviews were standardized and performed by the researcher responsible, with the assistance of a structured questionnaire containing questions on socioeconomic, clinical, anthropometric and dietary information. In relation to the dietary information, the 24-hour recall (24hR) was used, consisting of defining and quantifying the intake of all the food and drinks during a determined period prior to the interview, in other words, in the preceding 24 hours (7). For this study, three 24hR were applied in non-consecutive days, one on Monday, with reference to the consumption of Sunday (weekend); another on Tuesday, with reference to the consumption on Monday; and another on Wednesday, with reference to the consumption on Tuesday, with seven day intervals. Data collection was structured in accordance with this methodology in order to contemplate the variations that can occur and thus describe the diet of this group, in order to avoid the influence of consumption of one same week and permit the correction in the distribution of the estimative of nutrients. The food was examined in quantity in household measures, converted into grams, milliliters or liters, means of preparation, seasoning used, through the aid of a table of household measures (8). In the case of industrialized food, the trademarks were also investigated for the subsequent calculation of nutrients to be more reliable. The data obtained was converted into energy and nutrients using the Nutrition Data System for Research (NDSR) program of Minnesota University (Minneapolis, United States) (9), performed through double entry in order to certify that the data was correctly included. Considering also that the software presents as its main base the table of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (10), the typical Brazilian food and those not included in the table were inserted in accordance with the national data of the Brazilian Food Database (11). Absolute intake of macronutrients and fibers was calculated. The criteria for adequacy established for the macronutrients were: 55-75% of daily total energy value (TEV) for carbohydrates, 15-30% of daily TEV for lipids, 10-15% of daily TEV for proteins, in accordance with the recommendations of the World Health Organization (WHO) (12). The consumption of fibers was assessed in accordance with the recommendations established by the Dietary Reference Intakes (DRI) Committee, in which women should consume at least 25 g of fiber/day (13). The criteria for the consumption of fat were established in accordance with the Brazilian Cardiology Society (2017) (14), consonant to the recommendations of the National Heart Lung and Blood Institute (15) of the United States, which propose the consumption of

saturated fat of less than or equal to 7% of the total daily energy consumption, less or equal to 10% of the total daily consumption of polyunsaturated fat and of less or equal to 20% of the daily consumption of monounsaturated fat.

For the biochemical assessment, participants were guided to remain fasting for 8-12 hours and sent to a laboratory, in a reserved location, with exclusive equipment for this purpose, with all the material subsequently discarded in accordance with the laboratory safety standards (16). Blood was collected in a vacutainer tube containing ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) (1.0 mg/dl) used in antioxidants and anticoagulants for obtaining plasma. In order to assess plasmatic glucose, the colorimetric-enzymatic method was used with the GOD-Trinder da Labtest kit. Analyses were performed in duplicate and the results were classified in accordance with the Guidelines of the Brazilian Diabetes Society (17). Using the colorimetric-enzymatic method manual, the concentrations of total cholesterol, cholesterol associated to high-density lipoprotein (HDL) and total triglycerides in the plasma were determined. For determining the concentrations of total cholesterol, the Liquiform® Cholesterol kit was used (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil), to determine HDL cholesterol the HDL Liquiform® kit (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) was used, and to determine the triglycerides, the Triglycerides Liquiform® kit (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) was used. The cholesterol associated to low density lipoprotein (LDL) was determined using the Friedwald (1972) (14) equation from the concentration of total cholesterol, cholesterol in the HDL and triglycerides. The results were classified in accordance with the IV Brazilian Guideline for Dyslipidemia (15). Glycaemia alterations were classified in accordance with the Brazilian Guideline for Diabetes (2016) as normal when < 100 mg/dl. Alterations to the lipid profile were classified when the total cholesterol (TC) ≥ 200 mg/dl; hypertriglyceridemia (TG) ≥ 150 mg/dl; low levels of HDL-C, < 40 mg/dl; and high levels of LDL-C, > 130 mg/dl. Anthropometric measurements were obtained with patients using the minimum amount of clothing possible, barefoot, and standing in the erect position, with arms parallel to the body. Weight was measured in kilograms, on digital scales trademark InBody 520 - Biospace®, with a limited capacity for 250 kg and precision of 100 g; height was measured using an Altura Exata (TBW, São Paulo, Brazil) portable stadiometer with a limit for 2.1 m and a precision of 1.0 cm; and body mass index (BMI) was calculated from the measures of weight and height, using the Quetelet formula: division between the weight (in kg) and height (in meters), squared ($BMI = kg/m^2$) (18). Waist circumference (WC) was measured using an extensible tape, on the smaller curve, located between the ribs and iliac curve to guarantee accurate measures. It was verified that the tape did not compress the skin and was situated parallel to the floor, with the reading of the centimeter closest to the crossing of the tape. In relation to WC, central obesity was considered as > 84 cm (19).

Physical activity was assessed in the questionnaire, including closed questions: do you practice physical activities (yes or no). In accordance with the criteria of the WHO (20), lifestyles were considered as sedentary or active for those who informed the practice of any physical activity of, at least, five times a week, 30 minutes each.

Statistical analyses were made using the SPSS 23.0 (21) software for Windows. Participants were divided into two groups

based on their socioeconomic classification. The qualitative measures of the sample were described in absolute frequency and percentages and the results were expressed in mean $\pm$ SD or as median and interquartile interval. The Student's t test was used for comparison of the continuous variables with normal distribution and the Mann-Whitney test, for comparison of the non-parametric continuous variables between the groups. The Chi-square test was used for comparison of the categorical variables.

RESULTS

The women who fulfilled the eligibility criteria were invited to participate. There were 178 women evaluated; 89 of them were attended at an outpatient clinic for obesity at EBMSp, socioeconomic class C/D/E, and 89 women of socioeconomic class A/B were attended at a private clinic of Salvador-BA. No significant differences were observed as to age, with an average age of 48.74 ± 11.38 years, considering average ages of 51.2 ± 12.2 years vs 49 ± 14.4 years classes C/D/E vs A/B, respectively. Regarding sedentary lifestyles based on the absence of regular physical activity, such as 30 minute walks or more, five days a week, in accordance with the WHO criteria (20), there was a predominance for class C/D/E, 82 (92.13%), as compared to 22 (24.71%) in class A/B ($p < 0.001$). In relation to anthropometric data, central obesity, characterized by high values of waist circumference (CC) > 84 cm (19) used as inclusion criteria, was present in 100.0% of the sample, with an average of 100.26 cm (IIQ: 100-110.75) in group C/D/E vs 98.2 (IIQ: 98-103) cm in group A/B ($p = 0.33$). In relation to metabolic variables, an average of 207.8 mg/dl (IIQ: 171-231.75) was observed for total cholesterol in the socioeconomic group class C/D/E. For hypercholesterolemia (total cholesterol > 200 mg/dl), 28 (31.46%); for hypertriglyceridemia (Tg > 150 mg/dl), 21 (23.59%); and for HDL-c (> 60 mg/dl), 39 (43.22%). In turn, in socioeconomic class A/B, we observed total cholesterol with an average of 176 mg/dl (IIQ: 115-210), 28 (31.46%) presenting hypercholesterolemia (total cholesterol > 200 mg/dl); seven (8.3%), hypertriglyceridemia (Tg > 150 mg/dl); and 63 (73.3%), HDL-c (> 60 mg/dl). Accordingly, significant differences were observed between the groups for the variables of hypertriglyceridemia ($p < 0.001$), predominant in the group of socioeconomic class C/D/E, and HDL-C ($p < 0.001$), predominant in the group of socioeconomic class A/B (Table I).

The total energy consumption of women of classes C/D/E vs A/B presented averages of $1,528.72$ kcal ($1,128.8-1,697.3$) vs $2,267.48$ kcal ($1,670.3-2,625.84$), respectively. With regard to the macronutrients, in classes C/D/E vs A/B, an average consumption of carbohydrates was verified of 230.6 g (IIQ: 172.9-243.9) vs 321.67 g (243.8-344.26), lipids of 36.62 g (IIQ: 20.17-44.08) vs 69.36 g (IIQ: 36.23-80.44), and proteins of 69.36 g (44.08-80.44) vs 89.14 g (IIQ: 65.13-96.98). It should be emphasized that significant differences were observed in the consumption of macronutrients, carbohydrates and lipids between groups of socioeconomic classes C/D/E vs A/B ($p < 0.001$).

In both groups, insufficient consumption of fibers was observed. For the group of socioeconomic class C/D/E, an average

Table I. Sociodemographic, clinical and anthropometric characteristics of women with central obesity of socioeconomic classes C/D/E* vs A/B*, Salvador, Bahia, 2015-2016

Variables	Group C/D/E			Group A/B			p [†]
	n (%)	Average (SD)	Q1- Q3	n (%)	Average (SD)	Q1- Q3	
Age		51.2 (12.2)			49 (14.4)		0.08
Schooling < 12 years	86			0			< 0.001
Regular physical activity [‡] No	82 (92.13)			22 (24.1)			< 0.001
Body mass index		34.22	30.35-37.46		30.41	29.9-31.92	< 0.001
Waist circumference (WC) [¶]		100.26	100-110.75		98.2	98-103	0.3
Fasting glycaemia [‡] ≥ 100 mg/dl	29 (43.28)	102.94	90-110.75	10 (11.23)	87	81-91	< 0.001
Total cholesterol [¶] > 200 mg/dl	28 (31.46)	207.8	171-231.75	16 (33.7)	176	115-210	0.78
Hypertriglyceridemia [¶] >150 mg/dl	21 (23.59)	135	95-231.75	7 (8.3)	1	51-96	< 0.001
HDL cholesterol [¶] >40 mg/dl	39 (43.22)	45	39-53.75	63 (73.1)	62	50-73	< 0.001

*Classification in accordance with the IBGE (6).[†]p value: Chi-square test; p value: Mann-Whitney test. [‡]Criteria from the World Health Organization (20): walks five times per week for 30 minutes. WC cut-off recommended by Barbosa & Lessa (2006) (19). [¶]Guideline of the Brazilian Diabetes Society (2016) (17). [‡]Brazilian Guideline on Dyslipidemia and Prevention of Atherosclerosis (2017) (14).

consumption of 8.9 g (IQR: 6.98-14.40) was observed, being insufficient (> 25 g/day) in 100%. In the group of class A/B, an average consumption of 18.3 g (IQR: 17.4-31.12) was observed, with adequate frequency of consumption for only seven (8.05%). Significant differences for the consumption of fibers between the groups were observed between groups C/D/E vs A/B ($p < 0.001$), with lower consumption in class C/D/E. In relation to income and schooling, we observed heterogeneity in the results and emphasize the marked contrast between low and high income, which could influence the choice of food, contributing the lower income to a monotonous diet, lower energy consumption and, furthermore, low quality of the food consumed (22-30) (Table II).

DISCUSSION

According to our knowledge, this is the first study proposing to investigate and compare clinical, metabolic and dietary profiles of women with CO presenting socioeconomic aspects as main distinctive factor, permitting mainly to contribute towards elucidating the apparent paradox of CO coexisting in antagonist social groups in relation to socioeconomic and educational levels. The results of the analysis on *sociodemographic, clinical and metabolic* aspects found herein demonstrate that both groups (C/D/E vs A/B) assessed are similar in relation to age; this similarity is important as it permits to infer that it is a homogeneous population in relation to age. Regular physical activity, such as 30 minute walks, at least five times a week, as recommended by the

WHO (20), was a characteristic of the group with higher income, contrasting significantly with the low income group, occupied, mainly, in physical activities with household chores necessary for the subsistence of the family. According to Rodrigues et al. (2017), socioeconomic factors are determining for the choice of the type of physical activity, as those with higher income practice healthy physical activities guided towards their health, whereas the physical activities of those with lower income are related to household chores. Particularly, in class C/D/E, our findings corroborate the studies developed with low income women of the south of India, Africa, Salvador and of those living in the Rocinha *favela*, where a sedentary lifestyle was predominant (5,25,32,33). Nevertheless, we should consider that this type of physical activity is not yet inserted in this cultural level, in addition to the fact that the practice of physical activities may be hindered by topographical conditions, such as lack of safety in the housing location, usually on rugged terrain and full of alleyways (27,34-37). In parallel to these limitations, the financial aspect and less disposition and time are limiting factors that justify lower adhesion to the practice of physical activities towards the upkeep of their health (27). In this study, WC was defined as an inclusion criteria, once it is presently considered as the most specific and sensitive measure in relation to fat deposit on the abdominal region (visceral fat), used for the diagnosis of CO (19). Independently of the total fat (19,38,39), this parameter alone should be considered as a clinical risk factor for the development of complications (40-43). In relation to the accumulation of abdominal fat, our findings are important as we observe that, despite the women having presented different

Table II. Daily energy consumption, macronutrients and fibers of women with central obesity of classes C/D/E vs A/B*, Salvador, Bahia, 2015-2016

Variables	Class C/D/E Average (Q1-Q3)	Class A/B Average (Q1-Q3)	p [†]
Calories (kcal)	1,528.72 (1,128.8- 1,697.3)	2,267.48 (1,670.3-2,625.84)	< 0.001
Calories (kcal/kg)	17.78 (13.12-19.7)	27.95 (20.59-32.37)	
Carbohydrates (g)	230.6 (172.9-243.9)	321.67 (243.8-344.2)	< 0.001
Lipids (g)	36.62 (20.17-44.08)	69.36 (36.23-80.44)	< 0.001
Saturated fatty acids (g)	13.83 (9-22)	12.1 (7-17)	0.37
Polyunsaturated fatty acids (g)	2.6 (2.2-9)	16.74 (8.2-24.6)	< 0.001
Monounsaturated fatty acids (g)	4.5 (2.5-9.0)	12.5 (4.5-17.4)	< 0.001
Protein (g)	69.3 (44.08-80.44)	89.14 (65.13-96.98)	0.45
Protein (g/kg)	0.80 (0.51-0.93)	1.10 (0.89-1.29)	
Fiber (g)	8.9 (6.98-14.4)	18.3 (17.4-31.12)	< 0.001

*Classification in accordance with the IBGE. †p value: Chi-square test; p value: Mann-Whitney test.

socioeconomic profiles, the degree of CO with reference to the WC measurement was not different. In relation to the *metabolic variables*, such as hyperglycemia and hypertriglyceridemia, we observed that these were around four times higher in the low income group despite the comparable similar increase in WC, suggesting that one or more risk factors characteristic of the low income group would be responsible for these variables. Particularly, it is important to emphasize the significantly higher percentage of HDL-C in the high income group, suggesting the beneficial effects of regular physical activity in most of the group.

Regarding the *daily consumption of energy*, it should be observed that the TEV of the low income group is inferior to that of the high income group, characterizing low-calorie intake considered as inferior to the daily recommended amount, unlike the high income group characterized by normocaloric intake, considered within the values established by recommendations. Nevertheless, such findings do not explain the CO of these groups (13,44). Literature exposes curious findings in relation to the energy intake of the obese. Especially in the northeast, low energy intake has always appeared as a mark of nutritional disorders, independently of the nutritional state (6,45). In this manner, in relation to the low income group, we consider the information collected in this study to be similar to the rate other research found in literature whereby energy intake considered as low-calorie is observed in obese women (6,22,46,47). Emphasis is given to a previous research, performed at the obesity outpatient clinic of EBMSF, with women with central obesity and of low income, where caloric intake similar to that of the present study was observed, reinforcing the importance of our findings. In addition, it must be highlighted the consonance of our findings with those of the research developed with women from a *favela* in Maceió, where energy intake of the group of obese women was inferior to the eutrophic group (1,145.00 kcal vs 1,365.83 kcal, respectively) (22). The same applies in another study with low socioeconomic class women in Rio Grande do Sul, where the energy intake observed in the groups of obese women was

similar to that of the comparison groups (low weight, eutrophic) ($p = 0.157$) (46). We emphasize that these findings strengthen the relevance of the results obtained in this research, permitting to infer that energy intake should not be considered alone as the direct and exclusive cause of obesity, due to the complexity of the mechanisms involved. Even with some controversial studies, such complexity seems to be far from totally clarified. Nevertheless, it seems that the organism is programmed to maintain adiposity even when there is low availability of energy, what is known as adaptive thermogenesis. Such fact could be considered as one of the factors contributing to the development of obesity even with a low-calorie intake (48-50).

Analyzing the comparison of the consumption of *macronutrients* it is possible to observe similarities among the groups for the consumption of proteins, on the other hand, significant differences in carbohydrates and lipids. In particular, in this study, class C/D/E in comparison to class A/B obtained the contribution of the carbohydrates (60.2% vs 55%) and proteins (18% vs 15.7%), in contrast to lipids (21.2% vs 27.8%); such characteristics are similar to the dietary pattern of obese women in other regions of Brazil (51-54). Specifically with reference to carbohydrates, women of class C/D/E, in their majority, referred to consumption above the recommended amount exposing the need for changes in their diets, once the consumption of carbohydrates, mainly refined carbohydrates, favor the accumulation of body fat, as well as alterations to the metabolic, lipid and glycemic profile, which in this group was more frequent (25,46,52-59). It was verified that there was a different consumptions of lipids among the groups, whereby the higher consumption was observed in the socioeconomic class A/B. In this perspective, similar results were exposed in the latest Family Budget Survey (POP) (2008-2009) which indicated a higher consumption of fat among families of higher income, in contrast to the divergent results obtained. According to Mishra et al. (2002) (60) and Mullie et al. (2010) (61), in developed countries there is a higher consumption of fat in lower socioeconomic classes. In

relation to the consumption of *saturated fatty acids*, it demonstrated in this study to be high in both groups, corroborating other results exposed in studies developed in other regions of Brazil (25,27,36,46,56). Nevertheless, despite not reaching a significant level of difference, it is higher in the C/D/E group, in consonance with a prior research with a group of obese low income women with similar characteristics (6). The consumption of polyunsaturated fatty acids is significantly lower and the consumption of monounsaturated fatty acids is inexistent, contrasting to socioeconomic class A/B, being this point a lower atherogenic power of the diet in this class of obese women. Such findings may be attributed to the fact that the source of these (extra-virgin olive oil, oleaginous products, avocados) is not part of the reality of daily consumption of socioeconomic class C/D/E. The findings of this in relation to the intake of monounsaturated fatty acids and polyunsaturated fatty acids are unsettling, as it is known that they are associated to the decrease of cardiovascular risk, inflammation caused by obesity, total cholesterol (62) and glycaemia, which in the group of socioeconomic class are demonstrated to be higher.

With reference to *fibers*, the groups behave differently ($p < 0.001$). Fiber consumption in socioeconomic class C/D/E was totally insufficient, in contrast to that of socioeconomic class A/B. Such characteristics permitted us to infer that in this study there is an inadequate consumption of food considered as being rich in fibers, such as fruit, vegetables and whole grain in group C/D/E, a characteristic which reflects the reality of the Brazilian population and which can favor the accumulation of body fat, decrease the period of time for gastric emptying and, consequently, favor microbiota imbalance, as well as promoting various physiological effects such as the increase of inflammatory markers, which raise glycaemia, lipid profile and risk of cancer (6,25,55-58,63,64). Figueiredo et al. (2008), in a cross-sectional study in São Paulo, verified that women with a higher socioeconomic level consumed more fibers, corroborating our findings. In Brazil, the number of researches related to the consumption of fiber has increased, given the importance of adequate intake of fibers, being confirmed as having a preventive role in relation to reducing plasmatic cholesterol and its recognition as accessories in the control of overweight and obesity due to the sensation of satiety they promote (65).

It is necessary to stress that, in this study, all of the women presented metabolic profiles in different manners among the groups. In addition, the class C/D/E women, who presented insufficient consumption of fibers, which certainly contributed towards the obesity encountered, presented, in parallel, a worse profile of lipids (total cholesterol and triglycerides) and glycaemia. Thorough comparisons among the studies are hampered by possible differences among the characteristics of the sample, methods of dietary assessment and the manner in which the results are presented. In the case of the present study, the comparison of dietary characteristics among the groups presenting income as the difference makes these findings singular and relevant to elucidate the complexity of the issue and permeate future investigations.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Determinants of lifestyle associated with metabolic syndrome in Brazilian adolescents *Determinantes del estilo de vida asociado con el síndrome metabólico en adolescentes brasileños*

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Abstract

Background: metabolic syndrome (MetS) has been diagnosed in adolescents. However, it remains uncertain which determinants of lifestyle are independently associated with its occurrence.

Objective: to verify the association between lifestyle determinants (physical activity, sedentary behavior and food consumption) and MetS, by controlling demographic indicators and anthropometric nutritional status in a sample of adolescents from the southern region of Brazil.

Subjects and methods: a school-based cross-sectional study involving 1,035 adolescents (565 girls and 470 boys) aged 12 to 20 years. Anthropometric measurements were performed and a questionnaire was applied with structured questions. MetS was identified according to criteria proposed by the International Diabetes Federation. The data were treated using bivariate analysis and hierarchical multiple regression.

Results: the overall prevalence of MetS was equivalent to 4.5% (95% CI: 3.8 to 5.4). Multivariate analysis showed a significant association between MetS and age (OR = 1.34 [95% CI: 1.09 to 1.80]) and economic class (OR = 1.35 [95% CI: 1.08 to 1.86]). Among the determinants of lifestyle, high recreational screen time (OR = 1.32 [95% CI: 1.07 to 1.94]) and low fruit/vegetable intake (OR = 1.23 [95% CI: 1.01 to 1.87]) were independently associated with MetS. Likewise, obesity (OR = 1.62 [95% CI: 1.28 to 2.47]) was significantly associated with the outcome.

Conclusion: in view of the significant association with MetS, intervention strategies should be designed to reduce recreational screen time and encourage fruit/vegetable consumption, especially among older adolescents, with a high economic class and obesity status.

Key words:

Metabolic diseases.
Physical activity.
Sedentary lifestyle.
Feeding behavior.
Young.

Resumen

Introducción: el síndrome metabólico (SMet) se ha diagnosticado en adolescentes, sin embargo, sigue siendo incierto qué determinantes del estilo de vida se pueden asociar de forma independiente con su aparición.

Objetivo: verificar la asociación entre determinantes del estilo de vida (actividad física, comportamiento sedentario y consumo de alimentos) y SMet mediante el control de indicadores demográficos y el estado nutricional antropométrico en una muestra de adolescentes de la región sur de Brasil.

Sujetos y métodos: estudio transversal con 1.035 adolescentes (565 chicas y 470 chicos) de 12 a 20 años. Se midieron valores antropométricos y se aplicó un cuestionario con preguntas estructuradas. El SMet se identificó de acuerdo con los criterios propuestos por la International Diabetes Federation. Los datos fueron tratados mediante análisis bivariado y regresión múltiple jerarquizada.

Resultados: la prevalencia general de SMet fue del 4,5% [IC 95%: 3,8-5,4]. El análisis multivariado mostró una asociación significativa entre SMet y edad (OR = 1,34 [IC 95%: 1,09-1,80]) y clase económica (OR = 1,35 [IC 95%: 1,08-1,86]). Entre los determinantes del estilo de vida, el alto tiempo de pantalla en actividad recreativa (OR = 1,32 [IC 95%: 1,07-1,94]) y la baja ingesta de frutas/vegetales (OR = 1,23 [IC 95%: 1,01-1,87]) se asociaron de forma independiente con el SMet. Del mismo modo, la obesidad (OR = 1,62 [IC 95%: 1,28-2,47]) se asoció significativamente con el SMet.

Conclusión: en vista de la asociación significativa con el SMet, las estrategias de intervención deben diseñarse para reducir el tiempo de pantalla recreativo y fomentar el consumo de frutas y verduras, especialmente entre los adolescentes mayores, de clase económica más alta y obesos.

Palabras clave:

Enfermedades
metabólicas.
Actividad física. Estilo
de vida sedentario.
Hábitos alimenticios.
Joven.

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INTRODUCTION

The diagnosis of metabolic syndrome (MetS) is understood as an important clinical resource to identify the risk of onset and development of cardiometabolic outcomes (1-3). MetS carriers are, respectively, two and five times more likely to present cardiovascular diseases and type II diabetes mellitus (1). MetS is identified when at least three of the following components are altered: abdominal fat, blood pressure, triglycerides, fasting plasma glucose, and HDL-cholesterol (1-3).

Although the cut-off points that define alterations in each component of MetS were initially proposed for use in adults, adaptations were proposed allowing the diagnosis to be made in the young population, and thus enabling intervention strategies delineated to minimize the possibility of occurrence of diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular diseases as early as possible (4-6).

In young people, the prevalence of MetS is naturally lower than in adults. Nevertheless, studies have shown proportions close to 5%, which in some cases may exceed 10%, depending on the demographic factors and diagnostic criteria adopted (7). In addition, nutritional status is capable of strongly impacting the prevalence of MetS. In a survey that gathered approximately 37 thousand Brazilian adolescents, the overall prevalence of MetS was equivalent to 2.6%; however, it reached 21.3% in obese youngsters (8).

In this perspective, investigating the factors associated with MetS in adolescents becomes relevant to knowledge in the area. Lifestyle-related determinants potentially associated with a higher risk of MetS are becoming increasingly frequent in adolescents, such as insufficient physical activity (9), a high time spent in sedentary activities (10) and inadequate dietary intake (11).

A meta-analysis study showed that adolescents with insufficient physical activity were 35% more likely to be diagnosed with MetS, while sedentary behavior, represented by recreational screen time, did not present a significant association. It should be considered that in both analyses limitations were identified, such as the practice of physical activity dichotomized in only two strata (low and high), when in order to present sufficient discriminatory capacity a minimum of three strata should be considered. In the case of sedentary behavior, only six studies were considered in the analysis, which does not allow for safe statements (12).

With regard to food consumption, the few studies that sought an association with MetS in adolescents found contradictory results (13-16). For example, the intake of sugary beverages increased the chances of presenting MetS by ten times (13), while consumption of soft drinks or fast food did not present a significant association (14). In addition, no associations were found between diet quality and MetS (15), whereas when investigating the consumption of different types of foods, an inverse association was identified only between fruit consumption and MetS (16).

Therefore, considering the importance of monitoring MetS from the earliest ages and the possibility of different factors influencing its diagnosis, the objective of the present study was to verify the association between lifestyle determinants (physical activity, sedentary behavior, and food consumption) and MetS, through control

of demographic indicators and anthropometric nutritional status, in a sample of adolescents from southern Brazil.

METHODS

A cross-sectional survey was carried out in the city of Jacarezinho, Paraná, Brazil. The data collection extended from August to November 2014. The intervention protocols were approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Paraná - UNOPAR (Opinion 1,302,963). All participants and their representatives signed a free and informed consent form.

SAMPLE AND SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

The reference population included adolescents of both sexes, between 12 and 20 years of age, enrolled in public and private elementary schools (6th to 9th grade) and high school (1st to 3rd year). The sample size was established assuming a 95% confidence interval, a sampling error of three percentage points, an increase of 10% to cover possible cases of losses and, as the sample planning involved conglomerates (school structure, sex, shift, and year of study), a delineation effect (deff) equivalent to 1.5 was added, initially providing a minimum sample of 1,000 participants. However, the final sample used in the data analysis was composed of 1,035 adolescents (565 girls and 470 boys).

The criteria adopted to exclude some adolescents drawn for the study were: a) refusal to participate in the study; b) non-confirmation by signing the free and informed consent form; c) any health problem that temporarily or permanently prevented participation in the study; d) the use of any type of medication that could induce changes in the study variables; e) being subjected to any type of specific diet; f) pregnancy; and g) non attendance at school on the day scheduled to begin data collection. In these cases, a new draw was carried out to recover any sample losses.

DATA COLLECTION

Anthropometric measures (weight, height, and waist circumference) and other components used to identify MetS were collected, as well as a questionnaire consisting of items distributed in four sections: demographic aspects, food consumption, physical activity, and sedentary behavior. The questionnaire was applied at a single moment, individually for each adolescent in the place and time of the classes.

Regarding the demographic aspects, in addition to sex and age, information related to ethnicity, economic class, parental/guardian education, family structure, and eventual work activity were collected. The family economic class was identified according to the guidelines proposed by the National Association of Research Companies (17). Information on food consumption was obtained using food items from the Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS), translated, adapted, and validated for use in the Brazilian young

population (18). In this case, the adolescents answered how often they consumed fruits/vegetables and sugary/soft drink products, taking as a reference the week prior to data collection. From the frequency of consumption reported, the following indicators were considered: no consumption, consumption 1-4 days/week and consumption ≥ 5 days/week.

The Physical Activity Questionnaire for Adolescents (PAQ-A) was used to measure the practice of physical activity. This questionnaire was translated and validated for use in young Brazilians (19). The PAQ-A consists of eight questions structured and directed to different aspects of the practice of physical activity in the previous seven days. The response options are coded using an increasing scale of 1 to 5 points, and the physical activity practice score is computed through the arithmetic mean of the scores assigned to each question. Subsequently, specific cut-off points for sex and age were used based on the distribution of tertiles. Thus, adolescents with PAQ-A $\leq 1^{\text{st}}$ tertile scores were classified as having low physical activity, those with scores between the 1st and 2nd tertile as moderately active, and adolescents with scores $\geq 2^{\text{nd}}$ tertile as having high physical activity.

Sedentary behavior was considered through recreational exposure to high screen time, with structured questions about watching TV and using a computer, video game, tablet, and smartphone in a typical week. For the responses, a predefined questionnaire was made available, in which the adolescent indicated their option from six categories, with options between "none" to " ≥ 5 hours/day". The questions considered screen time equivalent to watching TV and using a computer, video game, tablet, and smartphone separately on weekdays and on weekends (Saturday and Sunday). Weighted means of the data on weekdays and weekends were used to identify the screen time per day reported by adolescents. Excessive screen time was defined by the combined use of TV and other screen devices for > 2 hours/day (20).

Regarding the anthropometric variables, measures of height, body weight, and waist circumference were performed according to a methodology described by the World Health Organization (WHO) (21). The body mass index (BMI) was calculated by the ratio between measurements of body mass in kilograms and height, expressed in square meters (kg/m^2). The nutritional status of adolescents was determined according to sex and age cut-off points proposed by the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF): low body weight, eutrophic, overweight, and obesity (22).

MetS was identified from the blood analysis of plasma lipids (triglycerides and HDL-C) and fasting blood glucose, resting blood pressure (systolic and diastolic), and abdominal fat accumulation (waist circumference), according to the criteria proposed by the International Diabetes Federation (IDF) (6). In this case, MetS is defined by the presence of a high waist circumference (< 16 years: both sexes $\geq$ percentile 90; ≥ 16 years: boys ≥ 90 cm and girls ≥ 80 cm) and at least two other compromised components: increased triglycerides (≥ 150 mg/dl), low HDL-C (< 16 years: both sexes < 40 mg/dl; ≥ 16 years: boys < 40 mg/dl and girls < 50 mg/dl), and altered blood pressure (systolic ≥ 130 mmHg or diastolic ≥ 85 mmHg).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Prevalences observed in the outcome of interest (MetS) according to demographic indicators, nutritional status and lifestyle determinants (physical activity, sedentary behavior, and food consumption) are presented together with the respective 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). To analyze the linearity of the associations between MetS and the set of independent variables, prevalence ratio calculations were used. Statistical differences among the strata under investigation were treated by the Chi-square test (χ^2). Subsequently, variables that indicated at least marginally significant associations ($p \leq 0.20$) in the bivariate analysis were selected to be included in the hierarchical multiple regression procedures. In this case, the variables were treated in blocks, and the demographic aspects (level one) were the first to be entered in the model, followed by the anthropometric nutritional indicators (level two) and, finally, the lifestyle determinants (level three). The retrograde procedure was adopted (backward), in which all the variables that presented statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) remained in the multivariate model. Data were processed in the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), version 22.

RESULTS

Descriptive data characterizing the study sample are provided in table I. Girls represented 54.6% of the sample and the highest concentration of adolescents was between the ages of 12 and 15 years (56.6%). The majority of adolescents in the study were Caucasian (81.6%), living with their parents (70.2%), and reported not working (78.2%). Regarding the economic class and schooling of the parents/guardians, the proportions of adolescents were distributed proportionally in the strata considered. Furthermore, 21.6% of the adolescents demonstrated high body weight (overweight + obesity), approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ were classified as low physically active (36.1%), and in each group of ten adolescents, seven reported staying > 2 hours in front of screen devices. Daily consumption of fruits and vegetables was reported by 24.9% of adolescents and 89.8% consumed sugary/soft drinks at least once a week. Regarding the individual components of MetS, decreased HDL-cholesterol was predominant (26.4%), while high fasting glycemia (4.4%) and high triglycerides (4.2%) were the least prevalent.

MetS prevalences with stratification for demographic indicators, anthropometric nutritional status, and lifestyle determinants are presented in table II. The overall prevalence was equivalent to 4.5% (95% CI: 3.8-5.4). The bivariate analysis showed that, from the list of variables considered, differences in MetS prevalence stratified by ethnicity, family structure and labor activity were not considered as marginally significant ($p \leq 0.20$).

Results of the hierarchical multiple regression are available in table III. In the case of demographic indicators, the final model confirmed significant associations between MetS, age and economic class, indicating greater exposure among older adolescents and those belonging to the higher economic class. Likewise, an-

Table I. Descriptive information of the sample selected for the study (n = 1,035)

	n (%)
Demographic indicators	
<i>Sex</i>	
Girls	565 (54.6)
Boys	470 (45.4)
<i>Age</i>	
12-15 years	586 (56.6)
16-20 years	449 (43.4)
<i>Ethnicity</i>	
Caucasian	845 (81.6)
Non-Caucasian	190 (18.4)
<i>Economic class</i>	
Class D-E (low)	346 (33.4)
Class C	391 (37.8)
Class A-B (high)	298 (28.8)
<i>Parent/Guardian education</i>	
≤ 4 years	292 (28.2)
5-8 years	274 (26.5)
9-11 years	248 (24.0)
≥ 12 years	221 (21.3)
<i>Family structure</i>	
Father and mother	727 (70.2)
Separated parents	205 (19.8)
Relatives	103 (10.0)
<i>Work activity</i>	
None	809 (78.2)
Eventually	119 (11.5)
≥ 20 hours/week	107 (10.3)
Anthropometric nutritional status	
<i>Body mass index</i>	
Low body weight	42 (4.1)
Eutrophic	769 (74.3)
Overweight	168 (16.2)
Obesity	56 (5.4)
Behavioral indicators	
<i>Physical activity</i>	
Low	374 (36.1)
Moderate	348 (33.6)
High	313 (30.3)
<i>Recreational screen time</i>	
≤ 2 hours/day	278 (26.9)
> 2 hours/day	757 (73.1)
<i>Consumption of fruits/Vegetables</i>	
No consumption	205 (19.8)
Consumption 1-4 days/week	572 (55.3)
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	258 (24.9)
<i>Consumption of sugary/Soft drinks</i>	
No consumption	106 (10.2)
Consumption 1-4 days/week	424 (41.0)
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	505 (48.8)

(Continuation in the next column)

Table I (Cont.). Descriptive information of the sample selected for the study (n = 1,035)

	n (%)
Components of metabolic syndrome	
High waist circumference	154 (14.9)
Increased triglyceride	43 (4.2)
HDL-cholesterol decreased	273 (26.4)
Elevated fasting glycemia	46 (4.4)
Altered blood pressure	93 (9.0)

thropometric nutritional status remained significantly associated with MetS, in which obese adolescents presented a 62% greater chance of the outcome (OR = 1.62 [95% CI: 1.28-2.47]). Among the determinants of lifestyle, recreational screen time and fruit/vegetable consumption remained associated with MetS.

DISCUSSION

The objective of the study was to provide information on the association between lifestyle determinants (physical activity, sedentary behavior and food consumption) and MetS, through the control of demographic indicators and anthropometric nutritional status, in a sample of adolescents from southern Brazil. The main findings revealed an overall MetS prevalence of 4.5%. In addition, an independent association with MetS was found among: older adolescents, of higher economic class, who reported excessive screen time, with lower intake of fruits/vegetables, and who were obese.

Using the same diagnostic criteria (IDF), the prevalence of MetS observed in the current study was higher than that found in the young Brazilian population (4.5% vs 2.6%). However, when comparing the data of adolescents specifically from the interior of the southern region of Brazil, prevalences became similar (4.5% vs 4.1%) (8). When compared with international data, the prevalence of MetS identified in the present study is higher than that described in North American and European adolescents; however, it is lower than that found in adolescents from Asian countries (7). In this context, it is interesting to note that, in comparison to the diagnostic criteria proposed by the IDF, studies that use other criteria to diagnose MetS invariably present higher prevalences (7). This is due to the fact that the IDF diagnostic criteria have more rigorous cut-off points, in addition to considering the greater accumulation of abdominal fat as a compulsory risk component (6). However, the advantage of using the IDF diagnostic criteria is the possibility of minimizing possible false-positive cases in the diagnosis of MetS (23).

In line with previous findings (7,24-26), age and economic class were significantly associated with the presence of MetS in the adolescents of this study. A systematic review has shown that the prevalence of MetS increases in significant proportions in the young population with advancing age, presenting values ranging from 3% to 6% between the beginning and end of adolescence, respectively (7).

Table II. Prevalence and prevalence ratio of metabolic syndrome with stratification for demographic indicators, nutritional status and determinants of the lifestyle of adolescents from Jacarezinho, Paraná, Brazil (2014)

	Prevalence (CI 95%)	Prevalence ratio (CI 95%)	p-value
Global	4.5 (3.8-5.4)		
Demographic Indicators			
Sex			
Girls	3.9 (3.4-4.5)	Reference	0.173
Boys	5.2 (4.3-6.2)	1.23 (1.02-1.58)	
Age			
12-15 years	3.7 (3.2-4.3)	Reference	0.127
16-20 years	5.3 (4.3-6.5)	1.33 (1.08-1.66)	
Ethnicity			
Caucasian	4.7 (3.9-5.6)	1.04 (0.91-1.27)	0.335
Non-Caucasian	4.4 (3.7-5.1)	Reference	
Economic class			
Class D-E (low)	3.6 (3.2-4.0)	Reference	0.119
Class C	4.7 (3.9-5.5)	1.16 (1.00-1.40)	
Class A-B (high)	5.3 (4.4-6.4)	1.35 (1.09-1.79)	
Parent/Guardian education			
≤ 4 years	3.8 (3.4-4.3)	Reference	0.168
5-8 years	4.5 (3.8-5.3)	1.11 (0.96-1.38)	
9-11 years	4.9 (4.0-5.9)	1.17 (0.99-1.46)	
≥ 12 years	5.1 (4.1-6.2)	1.22 (1.02-1.67)	
Family structure			
Father and mother	4.7 (3.9-5.7)	1.07 (0.93-1.34)	0.312
Separated parents	4.2 (3.6-5.0)	Reference	
Relatives	4.6 (3.9-5.4)	1.05 (0.92-1.38)	
Work activity			
None	4.7 (3.9-5.7)	1.03 (0.89-1.32)	0.304
Eventually	4.4 (3.7-5.2)	Reference	
≥ 20 hours/week	4.9 (3.9-6.2)	1.10 (0.97-1.37)	
Anthropometric nutritional status			
Body mass index			
Low body weight	3.6 (3.2-4.1)	Reference	0.001
Eutrophic	4.2 (3.6-4.9)	1.09 (0.96-1.33)	
Overweight	5.0 (4.0-6.2)	1.24 (1.02-1.69)	
Obesity	5.7 (4.5-7.1)	1.49 (1.19-2.02)	
Lifestyle determinants			
Physical activity			
Low	5.1 (4.1-6.3)	1.20 (1.01-1.57)	0.184
Moderate	4.6 (3.9-5.4)	1.13 (0.99-1.48)	
High	3.9 (3.4-4.5)	Reference	
Recreational screen time			
≤ 2 hours/day	3.8 (3.3-4.4)	Reference	0.139
> 2 hours/day	5.3 (4.2-6.6)	1.32 (1.07-1.74)	
Consumption of fruits/vegetables			
No consumption	5.4 (4.3-6.7)	1.46 (1.18-1.99)	0.003
Consumption 1-4 days/week	4.7 (3.9-5.7)	1.19 (1.01-1.61)	
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	3.5 (3.0-4.1)	Reference	

(Continuation in the next page)

Table II (Cont.). Prevalence and prevalence ratio of metabolic syndrome with stratification for demographic indicators, nutritional status and determinants of the lifestyle of adolescents from Jacarezinho, Paraná, Brazil (2014)

	Prevalence (CI 95%)	Prevalence ratio (CI 95%)	p-value
Lifestyle determinants			
<i>Consumption of sugary/Soft drinks</i>			
No consumption	4.0 (3.5-4.8)	Reference	0.195
Consumption 1-4 days/week	4.5 (3.7-5.3)	1.08 (0.95-1.43)	
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	5.1 (4.0-6.2)	1.19 (1.00-1.73)	

Initially, the expected increase in blood pressure, triglycerides, fasting glycemia, and visceral fat deposits in more advanced stages of biological maturation (27) may explain the higher proportion of MetS among older adolescents.

With regard to economic class, the prevalence of MetS was positively associated with the highest stratum. Another study involving Brazilian youths identified a significant association in the same direction (24); however, data collected in other countries indicate an inverse relationship between economic class and the presence of MetS (25,26). The different criteria used to classify the economic strata and the interactions between family income and attributes of the socio-cultural context in which it is inserted can contribute to understanding these differences. For example, unlike young people living in developed countries/regions, high-income adolescents from developing countries, such as Brazil, tend to have a higher prevalence of obesity and, in turn, a higher cardiometabolic risk, in comparison with those of low economic classes (28).

The findings of the present study demonstrated a significant and independent association between obesity and MetS. Similar findings are found in the literature (14,16,29), which reinforces the hypothesis that anthropometric nutritional status is strongly associated with the risk of MetS. In this sense, studies have detected important associations between obesity and MetS from very young ages. Using a longitudinal design, among a set of biological and behavioral variables, it was observed that childhood obesity is the strongest predictor of MetS and other predisposing risk factors for cardiovascular diseases in early adulthood (30).

However, even assuming that there may be consensus regarding the impact of overweight and obesity on the increased risk for MetS, lifestyle determinants invariably present significant associations with cardiometabolic risk parameters in adolescents, regardless of excess body weight (31,32). In the present study, through the control of demographic indicators and anthropometric nutritional status, no significant association between physical activity and MetS was identified. It is possible this occurred as the variable physical activity was evaluated by self-report, which weakens the reliability of the data, since adolescents may present some difficulty in recalling levels of intensity, volume and frequency of everyday activities (33). This limitation was evidenced in a meta-analysis study which, when taking into account only the accelerometry technique for the measurement of physical activity,

found three times higher chances of less physically active adolescents presenting MetS; however, in the analysis of subgroups, when considering only the use of self-report, the association disappeared (12).

Regarding sedentary behavior, the findings demonstrated that excessive recreational screen time was independently associated with MetS. Nevertheless, a fact that must be considered is the cut-off point used to define excessive screen time, typically recommended by current international guidelines and used in the present study; in particular, the cut-off point for excessive recreational screen time > 2 hours/day, proposed as the lowest risk for cardiovascular health (20), has shown a significant association with MetS in adults (34). Additionally, a study conducted in a representative sample of Brazilian adolescents also identified an independent association between recreational screen time ≤ 2 hours/day and lower cardiometabolic risk scores (32). However, it is worth highlighting a meta-analysis study, in which primary and sensitivity analyses based on this cut-off point did not reveal significant associations between recreational screen time and MetS in adolescents. In this case, the individual studies included in the meta-analysis that indicated significant associations assumed a cut-off point close to four hours/day (12).

Another finding from the present study was the independent association detected between fruit/vegetable consumption and MetS. It is important to highlight that this food habit remained significantly associated even after adjustments for potential confounding variables. The protection attributed to higher consumption of fruits/vegetables is consistent with evidence presented by other studies involving different experimental designs and statistical treatment (16,31). The food consumption pattern exerts an important influence on MetS through specific effects on the plasma lipid-lipoprotein profile, blood pressure, and body fat. Unlike diets in which fat-rich foods predominate, diets with higher fruit/vegetable consumption tend to have lower intake of simple carbohydrates and saturated fat, and a higher intake of complex carbohydrates and fibers, which are inversely related to altered glycemia and triglycerides, greater accumulation of abdominal fat, and high blood pressure, and positively with more favorable HDL-C, all known MetS components (35). On the other hand, in the case of consumption of sugary/soft drinks, in agreement with findings of some studies (14,16), but divergent from others (13), the significant association with MetS identified through bivariate

Table III. Hierarchical multiple logistic regression for demographic indicators (level 1), nutritional status (level 2) and determinants of lifestyle (level 3) of metabolic syndrome in adolescents from Jacarezinho, Paraná, Brazil (2014)

Correlates	Crude OR (CI 95%) ¹	Adjusted OR (CI 95%) ²
Level 1 - Demographic indicators		
<i>Sex</i>		
Girls	Reference	Reference
Boys	1.26 (1.02-2.02)	1.22 (0.99-1.87)
<i>Age</i>		
12-15 years	Reference	Reference
16-20 years	1.37 (1.10-1.95)	1.34 (1.09-1.80)
<i>Economic class</i>		
Class D-E (low)	Reference	Reference
Class C	1.19 (0.98-1.81)	1.16 (0.97-1.56)
Class A-B (high)	1.39 (1.11-2.02)	1.35 (1.08-1.86)
<i>Parent/Guardian education</i>		
≤ 4 years	Reference	Reference
5-8 years	1.16 (0.97-1.79)	1.11 (0.95-1.59)
9-11 years	1.19 (0.99-1.98)	1.13 (0.96-1.82)
≥ 12 years	1.24 (1.03-2.06)	1.20 (0.99-1.94)
Level 2 - Anthropometric nutritional status		
<i>Body mass index</i>		
Low body weight	Reference	Reference
Eutrophic	1.18 (0.99-1.77)	1.10 (0.95-1.59)
Overweight	1.30 (1.04-2.05)	1.21 (0.99-1.96)
Obesity	1.79 (1.41-2.68)	1.62 (1.28-2.47)
Level 3 - Lifestyle determinants		
<i>Physical activity</i>		
Low	1.24 (1.03-2.04)	1.17 (0.96-1.77)
Moderate	1.20 (1.00-1.83)	1.14 (0.95-1.69)
High	Reference	Reference
<i>Recreational screen time</i>		
≤ 2 hours/day	Reference	Reference
> 2 hours/day	1.37 (1.10-2.11)	1.32 (1.07-1.94)
<i>Consumption of fruits/Vegetables</i>		
No consumption	1.61 (1.26-2.65)	1.53 (1.25-2.31)
Consumption 1-4 days/week	1.27 (1.02-2.27)	1.23 (1.01-1.87)
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	Reference	Reference
<i>Consumption of sugary/Soft drinks</i>		
No consumption	Reference	Reference
Consumption 1-4 days/week	1.19 (0.99-1.98)	1.13 (0.95-1.66)
Consumption ≥ 5 days/week	1.23 (1.03-2.17)	1.17 (0.98-1.84)

¹Odds ratio not adjusted. ²Odds ratio adjusted by the other variables included in the model.

analysis was not confirmed after adjustment for demographic indicators and anthropometric nutritional status.

One of the limitations of the study is that the research method employed to identify the determinants of lifestyle involved self-report, thus allowing possible memory bias. In addition, the transverse nature of the data does not allow inferences of causality in the association between MetS and the other variables. Finally,

residual confounding caused by unidentified and unmeasured factors may potentiate eventual inaccuracies of the findings.

On the other hand, one of the strengths of the study is the simultaneous investigation of demographic indicators, anthropometric nutritional status and lifestyle determinants, which enabled adjustments in the final data analysis model, pointing to variables that were independently associated with MetS, and making it pos-

sible to plan and direct, personalized and more effective intervention actions. An additional strength of the study is the participation of a random and representative sample of adolescents aged 12 to 20 years who, together with the robustness of the procedures used in the data analysis, offer indications that the findings can be considered and generalized to other groups of young people with similar characteristics.

In conclusion, the present study identified that, due to the significant and independent association with MetS, intervention strategies should be designed to reduce recreational screen time and encourage daily consumption of fruits/vegetables in this population, with special attention to older adolescents, with a high economic class and excess body weight.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Microarquitectura ósea y otros parámetros de composición corporal en pacientes con sobrepeso u obesidad agrupados según alteraciones del metabolismo hidrocarbonado

Bone microarchitecture and other body composition parameters in patients with overweight or obesity grouped by glucose metabolism disorders

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Resumen

Introducción: la obesidad y la diabetes mellitus tipo 2 (DM-2) disminuyen el entramado trabecular óseo aun cuando puede coexistir aumento del hueso cortical. Otro hallazgo en común es la presarcopenia/sarcopenia secundaria posiblemente a la insulinoresistencia y el estrés oxidativo. Queda por aclarar si estos cambios dependen fundamentalmente de las alteraciones glucídicas precoces (pre DM-2) o tardías (DM-2 establecida), o más bien estarían vinculadas de forma predominante por el exceso de masa grasa en individuos obesos.

Objetivos: evaluar y comparar parámetros de composición corporal (compartimentos óseo, muscular y adiposo-visceral) en pacientes con sobrepeso/obesidad agrupados según presenten o no alteraciones glucídicas. Analizar si existen diferencias comparando FRAX vs. FRAX ajustado a trabecular bone score (TBS) en ambos grupos.

Métodos: se incluyeron 16 pacientes con sobrepeso/obesidad. A todos se les realizó evaluación clínica-antropométrica, bioimpedanciometría, absorciometría de rayos X de energía dual o densitometría ósea (DXA) y análisis, y se les agrupó según glucemia en tres grupos: a) normal; b) glucemia basal alterada en ayunas (GBA); y c) DM-2. Para el análisis estadístico empleamos pruebas no paramétricas.

Resultados: no se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas en los grupos respecto a microarquitectura ósea, masa muscular o grasa visceral. El grupo GBA mostró el mayor promedio de masa muscular y grasa visceral. Tras reclasificar en solo dos grupos, glucemia normal en el grupo 1 y glucemia alterada en el grupo 2 (GBA y DM-2), encontramos diferencias estadísticamente significativas con detrimento de la microarquitectura ósea trabecular en el grupo 2 ($p = 0,031$) y cifras de fósforo con niveles inferiores en el grupo 1 ($p = 0,42$).

Conclusiones: en nuestro estudio, la microarquitectura ósea está deteriorada en pacientes con glucemia alterada y obesos. Hacen falta estudios con mayor tamaño muestral para establecer en qué momento se instauran estos cambios en la evolución natural de la diabetes.

Palabras clave:

Obesidad. Diabetes.
Masa muscular.
Microarquitectura
ósea.
Bioimpedanciometría.
Densidad trabecular
ósea.

Abstract

Introduction: obesity and DM-2 decrease trabecular bone mass even though cortical bone increase may coexist. Another common finding is presarcopenia/sarcopenia, possibly due to insulin resistance and oxidative stress. It remains to be clarified whether these changes depend on either early (prediabetes) or late (established DM) glucidic alterations, or rather they would be linked predominantly by excess fat mass in obese patients.

Objectives: to evaluate and compare body composition parameters (bone, muscle and adipose-visceral tissues) in overweight/obese patients grouped by whether or not they present glucidic metabolism disorders. Analyze if there are differences between FRAX vs FRAX adjusted to trabecular bone score TBS in both groups.

Methods: sixteen overweight/obese patients were included. In all of them clinical-anthropometric evaluation, bioimpedance, DXA and analysis were performed. They were grouped by glycemia as: a) normal; b) impaired fasting glycemia (IFG); and c) DM-2. Non-parametric tests were performed.

Results: no statistically significant differences were found among groups regarding bone microarchitecture, muscle mass or visceral fat. The IFG group showed the highest average muscle mass and visceral fat. Then, patients were reclassified in only two groups, normal glycemia in group 1 and altered glycemia in group 2 (IFG and DM-2), and statistically significant differences were found at the expense of lower trabecular bone microarchitecture in group 2 ($p = 0.031$) and phosphorus lower levels in group 1 ($p = 0.042$).

Conclusions: in our study, the bone microarchitecture is impaired in patients with altered glycemia and obesity. Studies with larger sample size are needed to establish when these changes take place in the natural evolution of diabetes.

Key words:

Obesity. Diabetes.
Muscle mass. Bone
microarchitecture.
Bioimpedance.
Bone trabecular
density.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Hoy en día conocemos que tanto la obesidad como la DM-2 aumentan el riesgo de fractura, incluso aunque, paradójicamente, la densidad mineral ósea (DMO) se encuentre por encima del rango para la edad. Un metaanálisis que agrupó 12 estudios reportó un RR de 1.7 (IC 95%: 1.3-2.2) para fractura de cadera (con un 75% de hueso cortical en su composición) tanto en hombres como en mujeres con DM-2 (1). En pacientes obesos son más frecuentes las fracturas a nivel del esqueleto apendicular (que contienen el 66% del hueso trabecular) tales como, húmero, pie y tobillo. A pesar de ello, la obesidad probablemente juegue un rol en la patogénesis de las fracturas asociadas a la DM-2.

Para el estudio de la microestructura ósea, desde hace algunos años contamos con el *trabecular bone score* (TBS), que se calcula a partir de un *software* que emplea datos de la densitometría ósea (DXA) corporal total y tiene una óptima correlación con la tomografía computarizada cuantitativa (QTC) y las biopsias óseas transilíacas en cuanto a parámetros como: volumen óseo, número de trabéculas y su espaciado (2,3). En sujetos con obesidad y DM-2 se ha podido constatar que el espaciado trabecular es menos uniforme, lo cual determina una menor calidad de hueso.

Por otro lado, el FRAX nos ayuda a estimar el riesgo de fractura a diez años y actualmente orienta el tratamiento de pacientes con osteoporosis. En pacientes DM-2 u obesos su utilidad disminuye, dado que este índice considera únicamente la DMO, la misma que, como anteriormente se indicaba, está elevada. En los últimos años se ha propuesto como mejor herramienta en estos grupos el FRAX ajustado a TBS (4).

Asimismo, tanto la obesidad como la DM-2 convergen en cambios a nivel muscular. Se han observado estados de sarcopenia o sarcopenia establecida que comparten mecanismos fisiopatológicos en común, como la inflamación crónica, la cual inhibe la síntesis proteica muscular. Además, existen otras hipótesis propuestas para explicar la susceptibilidad de los pacientes diabéticos y obesos a la sarcopenia, tales como la resistencia a la acción de hormonas anabólicas, las citocinas proinflamatorias y la disfunción mitocondrial, sobre todo en casos de hiperglucemia crónica (5).

Para evaluar la masa muscular se pueden utilizar numerosas técnicas validadas, como la tomografía axial computarizada (TAC), la resonancia magnética (RM), la activación de neutrones o técnicas isotópicas y la propia DXA. El inconveniente de la mayoría de estas herramientas es su elevado coste, el riesgo que conlleva la radiación y la dificultad de ejecución e interpretación. Dado que en la práctica clínica la antropometría es muy variable y operador-dependiente, el European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP) recomienda usar como métodos la bioimpedancia (BIA) y la DXA.

Por último, un excesivo volumen de grasa visceral abdominal está asociado a inflamación crónica, intolerancia a la glucosa, hipercolesterolemia, disminución de la tasa de formación ósea, bajo TBS, así como disminución de la fuerza y la movilidad en ancianos. La interrelación entre hueso y grasa visceral parece tener su origen a partir de la célula madre mesenquimal que comparten

osteoblastos y adipocitos, con su posterior diferenciación excluyente hacia la vía Wnt- β catenina o la PPAR- γ , respectivamente. No obstante, la interconexión posterior como tejidos maduros es menos clara.

Dado que la obesidad es un factor de riesgo para el desarrollo de DM-2, ¿podría la osteosarcopenia (presente en ambas entidades) determinar qué sujetos son más proclives a ser diabéticos? O, desde otro punto de vista, ¿en qué medida la alteración del metabolismo glucídico nos alerta del deterioro de la masa musculoesquelética y en qué estadios?

Los objetivos del presente estudio son los siguientes:

1. Evaluar y comparar parámetros de composición corporal (compartimentos óseo, muscular y tejido adiposo visceral) en pacientes con sobrepeso u obesidad agrupados según presenten o no alteraciones del metabolismo glucídico.
2. Analizar si existen diferencias en cuanto al riesgo de fractura a diez años comparando FRAX vs. FRAX- TBS en los mismos grupos.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Se trata de un estudio prospectivo, transversal, en el cual participaron 16 pacientes de la consulta de Obesidad de una Unidad de Obesidad de un hospital de tercer nivel. Se incluyeron de forma aleatoria pacientes con índice de masa corporal (IMC) > 25, el 75% de los cuales tenía IMC > 30. Se incluyeron diez hombres y seis mujeres en seguimiento de pocos meses en dicha unidad, que seguían exclusivamente recomendaciones nutricionales y de actividad física. Se excluyeron, por tanto, los pacientes sometidos a tratamiento médico o quirúrgico de su obesidad, aquellos con osteoporosis o patología que hubiese supuesto inmovilidad en los últimos seis meses, pacientes con patologías digestivas que condicionen malabsorción de nutrientes o alguna comorbilidad relacionada que actuara como factor confusor al momento de evaluar los compartimentos corporales (distrofias musculares, enfermedades consuntivas como el cáncer, tuberculosis en tratamiento activo, VIH, cirrosis hepática, fallo renal crónico en fase prediálisis o superior al estadio 2, lipodistrofias, hiperparatiroidismo, osteomalacia, etc.), así como pacientes con DM tipo 1, LADA, MODY o con diabetes mitocondrial.

Tras acceder a su inclusión en el estudio mediante consentimiento informado, y con la aprobación del Comité Ético del hospital, todos fueron sometidos el mismo día a la realización de las siguientes pruebas: evaluación clínica y antropométrica con equipo Inbody 570 (bioimpedanciometría eléctrica tetrapolar), DXA corporal total (modelo Lunar iDXA- GE Healthcare), con software TBS insight v. 3.0 para calcular TBS y analítica basal.

Una vez realizadas las pruebas, se les agrupó según presentaran o no alteraciones glucídicas en sujetos con: a) glucemia normal; b) glucosa basal alterada en ayunas (GBA); y c) DM tipo 2.

De la anamnesis, se elaboró una plantilla de recolección de datos recabando antecedentes familiares de fractura de cadera, antecedentes personales de fracturas previas, comorbilidades, hábitos tóxicos (tabaquismo y enolismo) y toma de fármacos que

predispongan a osteopenia, principalmente glucocorticoides. Todos estos datos sirvieron para realizar el *score* de riesgo FRAX-10. Los datos antropométricos obtenidos fueron: peso, talla e IMC.

De la BIA tetrapolar se emplearon: porcentaje de grasa, nivel de grasa visceral, minerales/IMC, masa musculoesquelética y masa magra en kg.

La DXA corporal total nos permitió contar con los datos de: porcentaje de grasa corporal total, tejido adiposo visceral (volumen en cm³ y masa en g), masa magra (porcentaje y total en kg), masa magra apendicular (kg), índice androide/ginoide, T y Z-score L1-L4, T y Z-score de cuello femoral y DMO de cuello femoral (para la estimación del riesgo FRAX-10).

Los parámetros analíticos evaluados fueron glucosa, HbA1c, perfil lipídico, creatinina, filtrado glomerular, calcio y fósforo.

Para la evaluación de la masa muscular por BIA, se emplearon la fórmula y los puntos de corte del EGWSOP ($MM/T^2 = \text{masa muscular}/T^2$, VN mujeres > 6,76 y varones > 10,76), y para DXA, los de la Foundation for the National Institutes of Health ($ALM/IMC = \text{apendicular lean mass}/IMC$, VN mujeres > 0,512 y varones > 0,789) (7).

Para el análisis estadístico se empleó el programa SPSS, versión 20.

RESULTADOS

La media de edad de los 16 sujetos fue de 63 ± 15 años y el IMC, el porcentaje de grasa y el índice A/G, de $32 \pm 12,2$ kg/m², $42\% \pm 25,9$ y $1,26 \pm 0,53$, respectivamente. La HbA1c promedio según estuvieron los pacientes asignados a glucemia normal ($n = 7$), glucemia basal alterada en ayunas o GBA ($n = 6$) y DM-2 ($n = 3$) fue de $5,3 \pm 0,9$, $5,5 \pm 1,3$ y $8,1 \pm 3,4\%$, respectivamente. Se detallan en las tablas I y II otras de las características basales de los tres grupos.

Al aplicar los test de Kruskal-Wallis y ANOVA, no se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas en cuanto a parámetros óseos, compartimentos adiposo visceral y muscular con respecto a ninguna de las técnicas empleadas.

No obstante, en el grupo de paciente diabéticos, la microarquitectura ósea es de peor calidad en relación a los otros grupos. Asimismo, los pacientes con glucosa normal tienden a presentar mejores cifras de TBS ($1,41$ vs. $1,29$ vs. $1,3$, respectivamente). En el caso de aquellos catalogados como GBA, el panorama es de alta variabilidad, sin presentar ningún patrón claro (Fig. 1).

El riesgo de fractura mayor ajustado a TBS (FRAX-TBS) se incrementó en diabéticos en un 0,4%, aunque no fue significativo. El FRAX-TBS en cadera sufrió pocas modificaciones.

La menor masa muscular la registraron los pacientes diabéticos (MM/T^2 de $9,78 \pm 0,88$ frente a $11,56 \pm 3,8$ en individuos normales y $12,01 \pm 2,47$ en sujetos con GBA), sin diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos.

Contradictoriamente, el grupo de GBA, a pesar de tener el menor porcentaje de grasa, fue el que mayor volumen de grasa visceral presentó, con $3,100 \pm 1,586$ kg³ ($2,924 \pm 1,495$ kg³), sin hallar diferencias estadísticamente significativas. Ambas mediciones fueron realizadas con DXA.

No hubo diferencias significativas entre los tres grupos en cuanto a parámetros analíticos de calcio, fósforo, función renal y perfil lipídico.

Dado el escaso tamaño muestral, recurrimos a la prueba U de Mann-Whitney, por lo que se realizó la reclasificación en solo dos grupos: glucemia normal en el grupo 1 y glucemia alterada (prediabetes y diabetes) en el grupo 2. Se encontraron diferencias significativas en cuanto a microarquitectura ósea a favor de una masa preservada en pacientes con glucemia normal ($p = 0,031$). Lo mismo sucedió en cuanto a niveles de fósforo, con cifras menores en individuos con prediabetes y diabéticos ($p = 0,04$) (Tabla III).

DISCUSIÓN

El TBS nos permite ir más allá del estudio tradicional del hueso cortical y profundizar en los cambios que se llevan a cabo en el entramado trabecular, el cual es mucho más activo metabólicamente que su colindante porque se remodela en mayor cuantía.

Tabla I. Descripción de parámetros demográficos y bioquímicos según glucemia en tres grupos

	Glucosa									
	Normal (n = 7)			GBA (n = 6)			Diabetes (n = 3)			p
	Media	Mediana	Rango	Media	Mediana	Rango	Media	Mediana	Rango	
Edad (años)	61,7	10	62	63,5	11	64	68,7	5	67	0,122
IMC (kg/m²)	33,7	11,8	34,9	31,8	6,5	30,7	29	5,4	29	0,169
Hb A1c (%)	5,3	0,9	5,4	5,5	1,3	5,5	8,1	3,4	7	0,026
Colesterol total (mg/dl)	204	209	187	184,5	84,0	186,5	200	112	208	0,8
C-HDL (mg/dl)	45	29	40	48,5	41	45	61	23	54	0,119
C-LDL (mg/dl)	133,1	172	133	108	69	112,5	117	84	117	0,68
Triglicéridos (mg/dl)	130,4	121	127	164,5	212	146,5	111	135	88	0,487
Calcio (mg/dl)	9,4	1,2	9,3	9,5	0,7	9,4	9,8	0,8	9,8	0,298
Fósforo (mg/dl)	3,9	0,7	3,9	3,4	1	3,3	3,5	0,8	3,6	0,124

IMC: índice de masa corporal; GBA: glucemia basal alterada en ayunas.

Tabla II. Descripción de parámetros de composición grasa, muscular y ósea en BIA y DXA según clasificación de glucemia en tres grupos

	Glucosa									p
	Normal (n = 7)			GBA (n = 6)			Diabetes (n = 3)			
	Media	Mediana	Rango	Media	Mediana	Rango	Media	Mediana	Rango	
Tejido adiposo visceral DXA (cm³)	2.595	2.020	3.945	3.100,5	2.976,5	1.586	2.137	2.012	2.907	0,441
Tejido adiposo visceral DXA (g)	2.447,9	1.906	3.722	2.924,8	2.807,5	1.495	2.016	1.898	2.742	0,441
Índice A/G	1,2	1,3	0,5	1,4	1,4	0,4	1,2	1,2	0,3	0,069
T-score CF	-0,1	-0,2	2,8	-0,6	-0,4	2,8	-0,9	-0,8	0,8	0,254
Z-score CF	0,3	0,2	3,2	0,1	-0,1	4,4	0,1	-0,1	0,7	0,928
T-score L1- 4	-0,3	0	3,3	-0,3	0,1	5,3	-1	-1,7	3,2	0,744
Z-score L1- 4	-0,1	0	5,1	-0,2	-0,1	6,9	0,3	0,2	1,2	0,977
CMO/IMC	8,3	8,2	7,5	9,3	9,4	4,9	7,3	6,5	4	0,297
ALM/IMC	72,7	66,5	65,5	85,9	93,9	49,1	61,1	57	23,6	0,192
MM DXA	51,6	55,6	30,3	55,3	58,4	23,6	40,5	36,7	16,2	0,123
% grasa BIA	38,9	39,4	29,1	33,8	31,6	18,2	38,8	37,2	8,2	0,255
Nivel grasa BIA	16,1	20	11	14,2	14	8	14,3	16	5	0,648
Minerales/IMC BIA	11,8	12,2	8,9	14	15,5	8,5	11,1	10,6	4,6	0,345
MME BIA	31,7	33,3	19,4	35,3	37,1	16,9	24,3	21,7	8,2	0,075
MM BIA	56,8	59,2	31,7	63,1	65,9	28,7	44,9	40,2	14,4	0,074
MM/(talla)²	11,6	11,8	3,8	12	11,9	2,5	9,8	9,7	0,9	0,056
FRAX mayor (%)	2,8	2,2	4,3	2,1	2	1,4	4,2	3,8	6	0,596
FRAX cadera (%)	0,7	0,5	1,9	0,5	0,6	0,4	1,2	0,7	2,5	0,565
FRAX TBS mayor (%)	3,1	2,0	4	2,2	2,4	1,1	4,7	4,1	7	0,654
FRAX TBS cadera (%)	0,7	0,4	2,1	0,4	0,5	0,5	1,3	0,7	2,9	0,744

A/G: androide/ginecoide; ALM: appendicular lean mass; MM: masa muscular; MME: masa musculoesquelética.

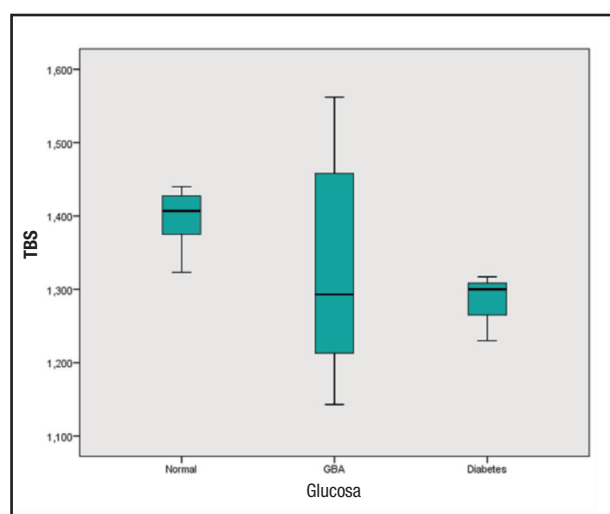


Figura 1.

TBS por grupos de glucemia en los tres grupos.

¿Podría la microarquitectura ósea deteriorarse precozmente en estados de prediabetes? A la luz de nuestros resultados en el grupo de pacientes prediabéticos, hay una gran disparidad y aunque no podemos establecer conclusiones a favor o en contra, sí que reviste interés de cara a conocer si reportaría beneficios la implementación de tratamiento médico de la diabetes en estadios tempranos (8,9).

Además, sería interesante ampliar investigaciones incluyendo como variable de estudio el tiempo de la evolución de la disglucosis, para establecer si juega algún papel propiciando en mayor medida estas alteraciones óseas. Como probable mecanismo, existe evidencia de que la insulinorresistencia afecta el remodelado óseo a través de efectos directos en los osteoblastos, osteoclastos y osteocitos, ya que todos ellos expresan receptores de insulina. Además, la hiperglucemia está asociada con la acumulación de productos avanzados de glicosilación (AGEs), los mismos que, al menos *in vitro*, inhiben la formación ósea. Este efecto parece mediado por el aumento de la producción de esclerostina en el osteocito (2).

Tabla III. Resultados según reclasificación en solo dos grupos de glucemia

	p
Edad	0,114
Masa muscular	0,758
TBS	0,031
% grasa DXA	0,606
Tejido adiposo visceral (cm ³)	0,681
Tejido adiposo visceral (g)	0,681
Índice A/G	0,408
T-score CF	0,174
Z-score CF	0,837
T-score L1 - 4	1
Z-score L1 - 4	0,918
CMO/IMC	0,837
ALM/IMC	0,606
MM DXA	0,470
% grasa BIA	0,408
Nivel grasa BIA	0,408
Minerales/IMC BIA	0,536
MME BIA	1
MM BIA	1
LM/T2	0,606
FRAX mayor (%)	0,758
FRAX cadera (%)	0,536
FRAX TBS mayor (%)	0,758
FRAX TBS cadera (%)	0,68
Colesterol	1
C-HDL	0,174
C-LDL	0,470
Triglicéridos	0,681
Calcio	0,351
Fósforo	0,042

IMC: índice de masa corporal; DXA: densitometría ósea; BIA: bioimpedancia; ALM: appendicular lean mass; MM: masa muscular; MME: masa musculoesquelética; TBS: trabecular bone score.

La falta de congruencia al momento de contrastar TBS y el FRAX ajustado a TBS obtenido en nuestro estudio podría atribuirse al tamaño muestral y a algunos casos con IMC > 35 kg/m² que podrían infraestimar el riesgo ajustado.

A pesar de ello, es posible que el FRAX-TBS en nuestro medio sea más preciso que el FRAX, considerando que este último parece infraestimar el riesgo de fractura global debido a que para su cálculo se han empleado las estadísticas suecas, por no contar con cifras propias de la población española.

La menor MM y MME encontrada en diabéticos, independiente de la presencia de neuropatía o enfermedad arterial periférica, podría estar relacionada con la infiltración grasa del músculo estriado.

Los pacientes con GBA obtuvieron el mayor porcentaje de MM y MME, lo cual nos podría conducir al razonamiento de que el músculo, con su entorno metabólico, juegue un papel protector en el inicio de la diabetes. Aún nos quedaría por profundizar en el estudio funcional y morfológico muscular para dar por válida esta afirmación (14,15).

Por otra parte, el grupo con más tejido adiposo visceral también fue el de GBA, lo cual podría sugerir (junto a lo encontrado previamente acerca de la mayor MME en el mismo grupo) hasta qué punto existiría una proporción beneficiosa entre estos dos compartimentos corporales capaz de detener la evolución de la disglucosis.

Por otro lado, el fósforo se encontró significativamente más bajo en el grupo de pacientes con prediabetes/diabetes. Esto resulta concordante con las cifras de hipofosfatemia obtenidas por Zhong Nan Da Xue y cols. (13) en 162 pacientes diabéticos de una población total de 244 pacientes. Otros estudios han encontrado niveles similares y abren la puerta a pensar que este hallazgo podría tener relación con la insulinorresistencia.

Ninguno de nuestros hallazgos guarda relación con la edad ni el sexo. Nuestra mayor limitación es el escaso tamaño muestral, especialmente en el grupo con diabetes. No obstante, cabe resaltar el carácter prospectivo del estudio, excluyendo sujetos con osteoporosis al inicio del mismo.

Por todo lo mencionado, hacen falta más estudios con poblaciones más numerosas para establecer si existe correlación entre los cambios incipientes sobre la microestructura ósea, la masa muscular y las alteraciones del metabolismo hidrocarbonado en fase de prediabetes en pacientes con obesidad y para evaluar si estos podrían ser reversibles.

CONCLUSIÓN

En nuestro estudio, la microarquitectura ósea está deteriorada en pacientes con prediabetes/diabetes y sobrepeso u obesidad. Hacen falta estudios con mayor número de muestra para establecer si estos cambios se instauran precozmente o no en la evolución natural de la diabetes. No encontramos diferencias en cuanto a FRAX ajustado a TBS en ninguno de los grupos.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Physical fitness and physical activity in women with obesity: short term effects of sleeve gastrectomy

Condición física y actividad física en mujeres con obesidad: efectos a corto plazo de una gastrectomía vertical

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Abstract

Introduction: the increase on prevalence of obesity has been linked to a higher number of bariatric surgeries, being sleeve gastrectomy (SG) the most frequent bariatric procedures in the world. However, there are few studies that determine the impact of SG on health's determinants such as physical fitness (PF) and physical activity (PA).

Objectives: to describe the changes in PF and PA of patients after SG.

Methods: twenty-three women with obesity (mean 36.1 ± 11.1 years old and body mass index [BMI] of 35.1 ± 3.4 kg/m²) were evaluated preoperatively to SG and at one and three months after surgery. An assessment of PF was conducted, including handgrip (HGS) and quadriceps muscle strength (QMS) with dynamometers and cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) with an ergospirometer. PA was assessed with a three-axis accelerometer.

Results: the absolute VO₂ peak decreased after the first and third month ($p < 0.001$) post SG. The VO₂ peak relative to body weight showed an increase from baseline after the SG ($p = 0.002$). After SG, there was a reduction in absolute values for HGS and QMS ($p < 0.001$) and an increase in relative HGS after three months post-surgery compared to preoperative ($p = 0.011$), without changes in relative QMS ($p = 0.596$). No changes in PA were observed.

Conclusions: after SG, there is a short term decline on PF when it is expressed on absolute values. However, when it is expressed in relative terms to body weight, some components of PF improve, while others showed no change. There was no modification in PA levels of the participants.

Key words:

Obesity. Bariatric surgery. Cardiorespiratory fitness. Muscle strength. Physical activity.

Resumen

Introducción: el incremento en la prevalencia de la obesidad se ha relacionado con un mayor número de cirugías bariátricas, siendo la gastrectomía vertical (SG) el procedimiento bariátrico más frecuente en el mundo. Sin embargo, hay pocos estudios que analicen el impacto de la SG en determinantes de la salud, como la condición física (PF) y la actividad física (PA).

Objetivo: describir los cambios en la PF y la PA después de la SG.

Métodos: veintitrés mujeres con obesidad ($36,1 \pm 11,1$ años e índice de masa corporal [IMC] de $35,1 \pm 3,4$ kg/m²) fueron evaluadas previo a una SG y al primer y tercer mes postoperatorio. Las evaluaciones incluyeron la valoración de fuerza de prensión manual (HGS) y de cuádriceps (QMS) con dinamómetros y de capacidad cardiorrespiratoria (CRF) con ergoespirometría. La PA fue evaluada con acelerómetros triaxiales.

Resultados: el VO₂ peak absoluto disminuyó al primer y tercer mes ($p < 0,001$) luego de la SG. El VO₂ peak relativo al peso corporal aumentó después de la SG ($p = 0,002$). Luego de la cirugía disminuyeron HGS y QMS absolutas ($p < 0,001$) y aumentó HGS relativa al peso corporal al tercer mes postoperatorio ($p = 0,011$), sin cambios en QMS relativa ($p = 0,559$). No se observaron cambios en la PA posterior a SG.

Conclusiones: después de SG hay un deterioro a corto plazo de la PF expresada en términos absolutos, pero al expresarse en relación al peso corporal, algunos componentes de la PF no cambian y otros mejoran. No se observaron cambios en la PA poscirugía.

Palabras clave:

Obesidad. Cirugía bariátrica. Capacidad cardiorrespiratoria. Fuerza muscular. Actividad física.

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INTRODUCTION

Physical inactivity and high-calorie foods have increased the prevalence of obesity worldwide above 13% (15% in women) (1). Obesity is a greater risk factor for cardiovascular disease for women than men (2) and it has been associated with multiple comorbidities (3) and adverse effects on physical fitness (4). Frequently, therapeutic strategies are insufficient, since they fail to prevent weight regain (5). Thus, surgical treatments are often adopted for morbid obesity or obesity in the presence of comorbidities (6).

The increase in obesity cases (7) has led to a parallel increase in the number of bariatric surgeries, particularly laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy (SG), which is currently the most frequent bariatric surgical procedure in the world (8). Although the surgical treatment of obesity has been demonstrated as an effective intervention for weight loss, as well as for remission or improvement of obesity-associated comorbidities (6,9), the impact on some components of physical fitness (PF), such as cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) and muscle strength (MS), is unclear. These physical factors are important for their predictive health value (10,11). Moreover, so far there is few information about the impact of SG in objectively assessed physical activity (PA) (12).

Cardiorespiratory fitness and muscle strength are strong determinants of morbidity and mortality (10,11,13) and the inclusion of serial CRF testing should be considered in the obese population when an intervention is applied (4). However, there is contradictory information regarding the impact of bariatric surgery on CRF (14-16) and MS (14,17,18). The vicious cycle between physical inactivity, obesity and poor physical fitness is well known (19). People with obesity perform less PA compared to eutrophic people (20), but there is contradictory information about changes in physical activity after bariatric surgery (12,18,21,22). Research into physical activity patterns of bariatric patients has primarily relied on self-report questionnaires (18,22), with only one study ($n = 4$) assessing the impact of sleeve gastrectomy on objectively assessed PA of subjects undergoing this surgery (12).

Considering that physical inactivity is associated with noncommunicable diseases (23) and has been considered by the World Health Organization (WHO) as the fourth risk factor for global mortality, and that cardiorespiratory fitness and muscle strength are indicators of health and life expectancy (10,11,13), the purpose of this study is to describe the changes in physical fitness and physical activity in patients with obesity after undergoing sleeve gastrectomy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SUBJECTS

In this observational study, 23 females with obesity who underwent SG were included. Two patients did not receive the second evaluation (one month after surgery). Exclusion criteria were severe cardiovascular diseases, chronic renal insufficiency and exercise-limiting comorbidities such as musculoskeletal im-

pairments. In addition, patients with smoking habits, postmenopausal women and patients with previous bariatric surgery were excluded. Inclusion criteria for adult women patients were a BMI equal to or greater than 30 kg/m² who were scheduled for sleeve gastrectomy.

Participants were recruited during the years 2015 and 2016, from different clinics in the region of Valparaíso, Chile. Subjects were required at least three hours of fasting, using comfortable clothes and to refrain from drinking coffee and alcoholic beverages and performing intense physical exercise at least 24 hours before each evaluation. Time was given for the familiarization of the participants with the laboratory and each one of the tests. The evaluations were performed in the morning, to avoid variations in circadian rhythm at the Laboratory of Exercise Physiology of Universidad Andres Bello, Viña del Mar, Chile.

Prior to surgery, and at one month and three months thereafter, an assessment of anthropometrics measures, physical fitness and physical activity was conducted.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the standards of the Ethic Committee for Research in Human Beings of the Faculty of Medicine of Universidad de Chile (registered number 149-2014) and with the Declaration of Helsinki of 1964 and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. Informed consent was approved by the corresponding ethic committee and was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

ANTHROPOMETRICS

Anthropometrics were taken using standardized protocols (24). Body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference (at iliac crests level) were determined using a Detecto 439 balance scale and a Rosscraft anthropometric tape, respectively. Weight loss was expressed as percentage excess weight loss (%EWL) (25).

MUSCLE STRENGTH ASSESSMENT

Static MS was evaluated by measuring the handgrip strength (HGS) with a Dynatron handgrip dynamometer (Dynatronics Corporation, Salt Lake City, USA). Patients stood in the anatomical position, with the elbow extended. The participants were verbally told to produce their maximal force and strongly encouraged to maintain it for five seconds.

Isometric quadriceps MS was assessed with the subjects seated with the hip angle fixed at 100° and knee angle set at 90° of flexion. A padded cuff was secured above the ankle malleolus and attached to the load cell artOficio FMON-1 (artOficio, Santiago, Chile). The subjects were fixed to chair and told verbally to produce their maximal force for five seconds.

For HGS and quadriceps MS, three trials were done (left and right side were alternated) with a pause of about two minutes between trials. The best score was registered and the average strength between both sides was calculated.

CARDIORESPIRATORY FITNESS ASSESSMENT

Patients performed a submaximal cardiopulmonary bicycle test on a cyclo-ergometer Monark 915 E (Monark Exercise AB, Vansbro, Sweden). A gradual protocol was used, starting at 0.5 Watts/kg of body weight with gradual increase of 20 W/2 minutes, with the subjects cycling at 60 rpm, until the stopping criteria (respiratory quotient ≥ 1.1 or modified Borg scale of perceived exertion $> 7/10$ points). After the patients reached their VO_2 peak, determined as the highest attained VO_2 over 30 seconds during the test, as previously recommended (4), subjects cycled during three minutes for active recovery with no load.

During the test, gas exchange was measured using an ergospirometry system Cortex Metalyzer® 3B (Cortex Biophysik, Leipzig, Germany) and heart rate was monitored with a Polar H7 telemetry heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland).

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY ASSESSMENT

Physical activity was measured using the Actigraph wGT3X monitor (ActiGraph, Pensacola, USA) and magnitude vector activity counts were analyzed. The interval of recorded time (epoch) was set at 60 seconds, shown as valid for measuring PA in adults (26). Participants were asked to wear the monitor on the dominant side, at waist level, during all waking hours for seven consecutive days and to remove it only for water activities. All women with ≥ 10 h/day of monitor wear time for ≥ 3 days at both the pre- and post-surgery assessments were included in the analysis. Non-wear time was defined as 60 minutes or more of consecutive zero counts (26).

Data were analyzed with Actilife 6 software (ActiGraph, Pensacola, USA), and the results were expressed as a percentage of light, moderate and vigorous PA using the cutoff points of Freedson for adults (27).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

For data distribution, the Shapiro-Wilk normality test was used. Data for all variables were normally distributed, except

for PA parameters. The changes in CRF and MS were evaluated using a repeated-measures ANOVA with the Bonferroni post-hoc analysis. To compare PA non-parametric tests were applied due to their non-normal distribution. Wilcoxon tests were used in cases where Friedman tests found differences in PA between values from the three evaluations. The statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 21.0 software (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA). A p-value of < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Twenty-three female patients were included in this study. Two patients had a diagnosis of controlled arterial hypertension, seven had controlled hypothyroidism and 14 had hepatic steatosis. All patients underwent laparoscopic SG. The mean age of these patients was 36.1 ± 11.1 years at admission.

ANTHROPOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS

After SG, body weight, excess weight, BMI and waist circumference decreased significantly ($p < 0.001$) (Table I).

MUSCLE STRENGTH

Patients had a decrease in absolute quadriceps strength one month ($p = 0.045$) and three months ($p = 0.001$) after surgery. Patients lost 19% of their quadriceps strength after three months. However, quadriceps strength relative to body weight did not change ($p = 0.596$) (Fig. 1).

Absolute handgrip strength decreased after both one and three months post SG ($p < 0.001$). There was also a reduction in absolute handgrip strength after three months post-surgery compared to the first postoperative month ($p = 0.003$) (Fig. 1). When expressing handgrip strength in proportion to body weight, there was an increase in handgrip strength after three months post-surgery compared to preoperative ($p = 0.011$) (Table II).

Table I. Anthropometric characteristics in the three moments of assessment

Characteristics	Pre-surgery (n = 23)	1 st month post-surgery (n = 21)	3 rd month post-surgery (n = 23)	p value
Height (m)	1.61 $\pm$ 0.06	-----	-----	-----
Weight (kg)	90.6 $\pm$ 10.7	80.8 $\pm$ 10.5*	73.0 $\pm$ 9.3*	< 0.001
EW (kg)	26.0 $\pm$ 9.2	16.6 $\pm$ 9.4*	8.4 $\pm$ 8.3*	< 0.001
%EWL	-----	39.7 $\pm$ 13.6	72.2 $\pm$ 21.9	$< 0.001^{\dagger}$
BMI (kg/m ²)	35.1 $\pm$ 3.4	31.5 $\pm$ 3.6*	28.3 $\pm$ 3.2*	< 0.001
WC IC (cm)	109.0 $\pm$ 7.3	102.6 $\pm$ 7.2*	94.6 $\pm$ 8.2*	< 0.001

OB: obesity; EW: excess weight; %EWL: percentage excess weight loss; WC IC: waist circumference at the level of iliac crests. Data are presented as means $\pm$ SD. ANOVA p value. * $p < 0.001$ compared with the preoperative values. † t-test p value.

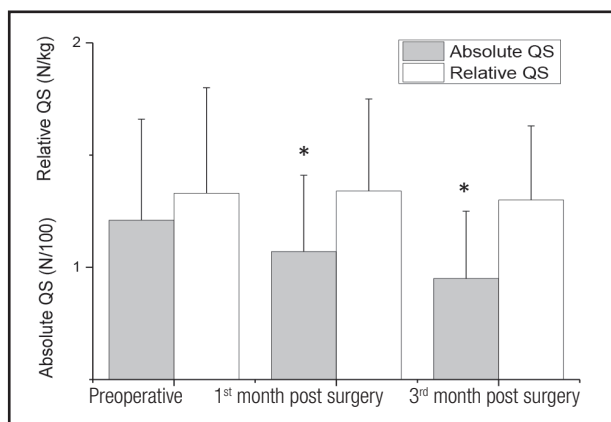


Figure 1.

Comparison of quadriceps strength (QS) between the three moments of assessment. * $p < 0.05$ compared with the preoperative values.

CARDIORESPIRATORY FITNESS

The absolute VO_2 peak significantly decreased by the first and third month ($p < 0.001$) post-surgery with respect to the preoperative assessment, without changes between the two postoperative assessments.

The VO_2 peak relative to body weight showed an increase from baseline at third months ($p = 0.005$) after SG (Table II).

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

The average number of valid days of PA assessed was six. No significant differences were observed between the three assessment periods for the percentages of light ($p = 0.056$), moderate ($p = 0.151$), and moderate-vigorous ($p = 0.056$) PA. Percent vigorous physical activity decreased only at the first postoperative month compared with baseline ($p = 0.022$) (Table III).

DISCUSSION

The present study indicates that sleeve gastrectomy results in a considerable decrease in absolute MS in the short term after surgery. This data concurs with another study which found absolute MS decreased four months after gastric bypass surgery (14). It is important to consider that these results were obtained in the periods of greater post-surgical caloric restriction, which may influence the loss of MS (28). However, a reduction of absolute MS in both upper and lower limbs one year after biliopancreatic diversion (17) and gastric bypass was also reported (29). These results are likely a consequence of the decrease in muscle mass that has been previously described (30). A decrease in ghrelin, hormone that has a protective effect against loss of muscle mass after bariatric surgery, could have a role in those changes (31). On the other hand, Otto et al. (32) showed no changes on absolute

HGS at six, 12 and 18 weeks after a SG or gastric bypass, and Neunhaeuser et al. (18) showed no changes in absolute HGS and in quadriceps MS in patients six months after SG.

As a palliative approach, exercise training after bariatric surgery could preserve absolute muscle strength and even increase it (14,33).

In the present study, when expressing HGS according to body weight, an increase in HGS three months post-surgery was observed when compared to preoperative HGS. These observations concur with previous studies evaluating one year after bariatric intervention (17,29). The most plausible explanation is the effect of the magnitude of the reduction in post-surgical body weight patients, thus, overestimating muscle strength by expressing it relative to body weight.

Regarding the evaluation of CRF, our research group suggest the use of cyclo ergometer instead of treadmill or walking test (i.e., six minutes walking test or shuttle walking test) in the evaluation of obese patients, where the impact of body weight is less relevant.

The VO_2 peak results in this study from the preoperative assessment are similar to those reported by Wilms et al. (34) and are associated with a high risk of mortality from any cause (35).

Some studies report maintained (14,15) or decreased (18) CRF when expressed in absolute values after bariatric surgery. These results could be explained by considering the significant loss of post-surgical muscle mass (30). Additionally, the reduction of ghrelin (31) could be a factor that would negatively influence myocardial contractility and cardiac output (36).

The results of this study showed an improvement in CRF relative to body weight after surgery, which agrees with those reported from other studies (14,15,18) and differ regarding the lack of changes in CRF related to body weight reported by De Souza et al. (16). The studies that presented VO_2 peak related to lean mass did not find changes after surgery (14,15).

On the other hand, bariatric patients should begin the exercise intervention before surgery (37) and continue it as soon as possible after the procedure (33). In addition, it is interesting to note that low values in preoperative VO_2 peak have been associated with an increase in short-term complications after bariatric surgery. So it has been suggested that CRF should be improved prior to intervention to potentially reduce postoperative complications (38).

Additionally, the results of this study show that SG does not affect patients' lifestyles, regarding their PA habits. The same has been described by studies of gastric bypass patients who did not change their level of PA, objectively measured, at six (21) and nine months postoperatively (39). However, when PA was subjectively assessed through questionnaires, an improvement in PA behavior was reported (18,21,22).

Given the importance of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) for health outcomes and surgical success, there is a need of using more valid methods for objectively measuring PA. Considering that the objectively measured amount of MVPA of obese subjects is below WHO recommendations for adults aged between 18 and 64 years, the maintenance of physical inactivity following bariatric surgery could mean an increased risk of regaining body

Table II. Physical fitness in the three moments of assessment

Characteristics	Pre-surgery (n = 23)	1 st month post-surgery (n = 21)	3 rd month post-surgery (n = 23)	p value
Absolute handgrip strength (kg)	31.8 ± 4.2	29.2 ± 4.1*	27.7 ± 4.0*	< 0.001
Relative handgrip strength (kg/kg body weight)	0.35 ± 0.04	0.36 ± 0.05	0.38 ± 0.05 [†]	0.004
Absolute quadriceps strength (N)	115.2 ± 34.8	102.4 ± 23.5 [†]	93.7 ± 28.9 [†]	< 0.001
Relative quadriceps strength (N/kg)	1.26 ± 0.34	1.27 ± 0.27	1.27 ± 0.32	0.596
Absolute VO ₂ peak (l/min)	1.89 ± 0.28	1.59 ± 0.29*	1.65 ± 0.29*	< 0.001
Relative VO ₂ peak (ml/kg/min)	20.94 ± 3.18	19.70 ± 2.55	22.53 ± 2.61 [†]	0.002

VO₂ peak: peak oxygen uptake; N: Newtons. Data are presented as means ± SD. ANOVA p value. *p < 0.001 compared with the preoperative values. [†]p < 0.05 compared with the preoperative values.

Table III. Percent physical activity in the three moments of assessment

Physical activity (%)	Pre-surgery (n = 23)	1 st month post-surgery (n = 21)	3 rd month post-surgery (n = 23)	p value
Light (0-2,689 counts min ⁻¹)	95.6 (89.3-98.0)	96.3 (92.3-97.4)	95.7 (89.3-97.6)	0.056
Moderate (2,690-6,166 counts min ⁻¹)	4.1 (1.9-10.2)	3.6 (2.6-7.2)	4.0 (1.4-10.2)	0.151
Vigorous (≥ 6,167 counts min ⁻¹)	0.2 (0.1-0.5)	0.1 (0.0-0.4)*	0.2 (0.1-1.0)	0.006
Moderate-vigorous	4.3 (2.0-10.7)	3.7 (2.6-7.6)	4.2 (2.4-10.7)	0.056

Data are presented as median values (min-max). Friedman p value. *p < 0.05 compared with the preoperative values.

weight lost with surgery. Further, there may also be an increased risk of developing non-communicable diseases (23).

For future studies, it is advisable to conduct a body composition evaluation through DEXA in order to express the variables of physical fitness not only in relation to body weight, but also to lean mass, as previously recommended (4).

Considering the fact that MS and CRF do not improve by weight loss only, we suggest adding physical fitness assessments before and after surgery to design personalized specific exercise programs for these patients and also implement PA counselling about the importance of changing their lifestyle (40).

In conclusion, large-scale weight loss through SG results in a decrease in absolute muscle strength. Despite a large decline in quadriceps strength, when it was expressed relative to body weight, its ratio remained unchanged. Also, regarding muscle strength, we observed an improvement in the handgrip strength/body weight ratio. In addition, patients with obesity have very low CRF, which decreases after SG. However, when peak oxygen consumption was expressed as a ratio to body weight, improvement was observed. Finally, no significant differences were observed in objectively measured PA with respect to the preoperative assessment.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Diferencias antropométricas por posición de juego en futbolistas profesionales chilenos *Anthropometric differences per playing position in Chilean professional footballers*

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Resumen

Introducción: dadas las características del fútbol, la tendencia en la selección de estos deportistas y su asignación en determinadas posiciones de juego se han visto condicionadas por las características morfológicas que estos presenten, por lo que el conocimiento de las particularidades antropométricas por posición de juego es un antecedente relevante para los cuerpos técnicos del fútbol de élite. El objetivo de la presente investigación es identificar y comparar las características antropométricas por posición de juego de jugadores de fútbol profesional chileno.

Métodos: un total de 390 futbolistas profesionales varones, pertenecientes a 15 clubes profesionales chilenos, fueron evaluados morfológicamente mediante la medición de 25 variables antropométricas, con las que se estimaron la composición corporal, el somatotipo y los Z-score de Phantom. Para la comparación de las variables entre los grupos se utilizó una prueba Chi-cuadrado con nivel de significancia de $p < 0,05$, utilizando el software SPSS versión 21.

Resultados: se observan diferencias entre las posiciones de juego, especialmente entre los porteros y el resto de los jugadores ($p < 0,001$), quienes presentan más de 2 kg de masa muscular y más de 1,8 kg de masa adiposa, frente a las otras posiciones de juego. Respecto de una muestra se sujetos activos, los futbolistas presentan una composición corporal significativamente distinta; de igual manera ocurre al comparar con Phantom, donde la estatura, el peso y la masa muscular son mayores y la masa adiposa es menor.

Conclusión: los futbolistas profesionales presentan diferencias por posición de juego y en comparación a otros sujetos no deportistas y a Phantom.

Palabras clave:

Antropometría.
Fútbol. Posición de
juego. Composición
corporal.

Abstract

Introduction: given the characteristics of soccer, the tendency in the selection of these athletes and their allocation in certain game positions has been conditioned by the morphological characteristics that they present, so that the knowledge of anthropometric particularities by playing position is a relevant antecedent for the technical bodies of professional football. The objective of the present investigation is to identify and compare the anthropometric characteristics by playing position of Chilean professional soccer players.

Methods: a total of 390 professional male soccer players, from 15 Chilean professional clubs, were evaluated morphologically by means of the measurement of 25 anthropometric variables, with which the body composition, the somatotype and the Z-score of Phantom were estimated. A Chi-square test with significance level of $p < 0.05$ was used to compare the variables between groups using SPSS software others players (greater adipose and muscular mass). As for a sample of active subjects, soccer players have a significantly different body composition, similarly occurs when compared to Phantom, where height, weight and muscle mass are greater and fat mass is lower.

Conclusion: professional footballers differ by game position compared to other non-sports players and Phantom.

Key words:

Anthropometry.
Soccer. Playing
position. Body
composition.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El fútbol es el deporte más popular del mundo, y Chile no escapa a esa tendencia. El 49% de los chilenos declaran que les interesa el fútbol (69% de los hombres y 28% de las mujeres), de los cuales el 14,5% es practicante activo (1).

Su popularidad se debe a que no requiere que los practicantes posean cualidades o capacidades físicas desarrolladas al máximo, ya que el rendimiento depende de una gran variedad de factores, incluidos el desarrollo anaeróbico, la potencia aeróbica, la agilidad, la velocidad y la coordinación (2), entre otras habilidades técnicas y tácticas propias del deporte.

De la diversidad de factores que aportan al rendimiento en el fútbol, la antropometría juega un papel muy relevante, dado que no solo influye en la identificación de las características físicas para el deporte (3), sino que también contribuye en la definición de la posición de juego más adecuada para el deportista, lo que se sustenta en las necesidades particulares de cada posición de juego (4).

Los estudios científicos orientados a la mejora del rendimiento en el fútbol han aumentado significativamente en los últimos años (5) y han considerado una serie de aspectos, especialmente el análisis del rendimiento en fútbol (6). Estos aportes de la ciencia son actualmente más aceptados por entrenadores y jugadores, quienes comprenden la necesidad de contar con esta información para mejorar tanto el rendimiento como la preparación para las competiciones (7).

En efecto, las mejores condiciones en las variables estatura y masa muscular han sido indicadas como predictores de mayor fuerza en el futbolista (8), mientras que una baja cantidad de masa grasa en estos deportistas podría ser beneficiosa al realizar movimientos o gestos deportivos contra la gravedad de forma repetida (por ejemplo: saltos continuos o largas distancias recorridas, como realizan los jugadores del medio campo), ya que disminuye el peso corporal, lo que aumenta la eficiencia de los movimientos (3,9).

En consecuencia, el conocimiento de los parámetros morfológicos de los futbolistas pasa a formar parte de la información necesaria en la evaluación y selección de los deportistas, situación que llega a ser particularmente relevante en aquellos países en donde no se cuenta con valores de referencia antropométrica, como Chile y otros países de Latinoamérica. De esta manera, contar con estos antecedentes permitiría contribuir tanto en la selección deportiva como en la evolución física del jugador, lo que ayudaría en la intervención de los mismos, buscando mejoras morfológicas acordes con las necesidades de la especialidad y de su posición de juego.

Dado lo descrito anteriormente, el presente estudio tiene como objetivo determinar y comparar las características morfológicas, tanto en las variables individuales como en la composición corporal, de los futbolistas chilenos de acuerdo a sus posiciones de juego.

MÉTODOS

SUJETOS

La muestra del estudio corresponde a 390 futbolistas profesionales chilenos pertenecientes a 15 clubes de primera división.

Los criterios de inclusión fueron pertenecer al plantel de honor de cada equipo, no estar lesionado e inactivo y tener más de 18 años de edad; es decir, no pertenecer a categorías no profesionales.

Del grupo total se evaluó y clasificó a los jugadores en cuatro categorías: porteros ($n = 44$), defensas centrales y laterales ($n = 119$), volantes de contención y de salida ($n = 133$) y delanteros centrales y netos ($n = 94$).

ANTROPOMETRÍA

Tanto el marcaje corporal como la evaluación antropométrica se llevaron a cabo de acuerdo a las recomendaciones propuestas por la Sociedad Internacional para Avances de la Cineantropometría (International Society for the Advancement in Kineantropometry [ISAK]) (10). Se consideró la evaluación de 25 variables antropométricas: a) variables básicas: peso, estatura y estatura sentado; b) pliegues cutáneos: tríceps, subescapular, supraespal, abdominal, muslo frontal y pierna; c) perímetros corporales: cabeza, brazo relajado, brazo en contracción, antebrazo, tórax, cintura, cadera, muslo superior, muslo medio y pierna; y d) diámetros corporales: biacromial, bi-iliocrestídeo, transversal del tórax, anteroposterior del tórax, húmero y fémur.

La evaluación antropométrica fue llevada a cabo por un antropometrista certificado por la ISAK (niveles 2 y 3), cuyo error técnico de medición promedio para las variables evaluadas fue del 1%. De igual manera, la recolección de los datos fue facilitada por un asistente (certificado ISAK nivel 1), quien ayudó al evaluador a registrar las variables en una proforma electrónica.

INSTRUMENTOS

Se utilizó un Kit Gaucho Pro "Mercosur", fabricado en Argentina (licencia Rosscraft), validado por la ISAK, el cual está compuesto por los instrumentos y calibres: Antropómetro Campbell 20 (*caliper* largo), Antropómetro Campbell 10 (*caliper* corto), segmómetro retráctil, escuadra metálica, *caliper* de pliegues cutáneos plástico o plícometro, cinta métrica metálica, un estadiómetro portátil marca Seca® modelo 2013 y una balanza digital Tanita® HD-314 para el peso con precisión de 100 g.

ANÁLISIS DE LOS DATOS

La estimación de las masas corporales fue determinada a través del método de fraccionamiento pentacompartimental (11), lo que permitió la identificación de las masas adiposa, muscular, ósea, residual y piel, todas tanto en valores absolutos (kg) como relativos (%). Adicionalmente, se estimó la masa muscular de los miembros superiores e inferiores a través de las fórmulas propuestas por Rodríguez en 2010 (12). También se obtuvo el somatotipo de los sujetos (13) y se calcularon los valores *Z-score* de la estrategia Phantom (14).

Para el análisis estadístico se utilizó el programa estadístico SPSS (versión 21). Se aplicó estadística descriptiva para determi-

nar la media y desviación estándar de cada variable y por posición de juego. Para la comparación de medias entre los grupos de deportistas por posición de juego se utilizó la prueba Chi-cuadrado, con un nivel de significancia de $p < 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

En la tabla I se observan los resultados de las variables antropométricas consideradas en el estudio, así como los índices corporales, la composición corporal y el somatotipo.

Se pueden apreciar las similitudes y diferencias entre las variables por cada posición de juego, especialmente en aquellas que son de mayor importancia, como el peso corporal y la estatura (mayor en porteros). La sumatoria de pliegues y masa adiposa presenta el menor valor en "volantes", al igual que la masa muscular y el índice músculo/óseo, respecto de las otras posiciones.

Las diferencias estadísticas por posición de juego se pueden apreciar en la tabla II.

En la tabla II se pueden destacar una serie de diferencias por cada posición de juego, donde, por ejemplo, los "porteros" presentan mayor estatura, peso corporal, sumatoria de seis pliegues y masa muscular que los demás jugadores. La masa muscular por segmentos (brazos y piernas) también es significativamente mayor en los "porteros" que en los demás jugadores ($p < 0,001$).

Respecto de los "defensas", estos no presentan diferencias significativas en ninguna variable antropométrica respecto de los "delanteros". Sin embargo, presentan menor masa muscular y menor masa adiposa que los "porteros", aunque son mayores al compararlos con sus compañeros "volantes".

Los "volantes" presentan menor peso, menor estatura y menor masa muscular total y por segmentos que las otras posiciones. No obstante, presentan bastantes similitudes con los "delanteros".

Los "delanteros" no presentan diferencias en el somatotipo en comparación a las otras posiciones, excepto en el endomorfismo con los "porteros". Por otro lado, tienen menor masa adiposa que los "porteros" y mayor masa muscular que los "volantes".

En la tabla III se pueden observar los valores *Z-score* del modelo antropométrico Phantom, donde destacaremos aquellos valores que presentan un valor < -1 y > 1 .

Al respecto, destacan los valores de tórax anteroposterior, que son más altos en los "volantes".

En general, los jugadores presentan un diámetro bi-iliocrestídeo menor al modelo Phantom, pero mayor en el diámetro humeral, especialmente en los "volantes".

Respecto de los perímetros, los "porteros" presentan altos valores respecto del Phantom en perímetro de cabeza, brazo relajado, brazo flexionado, cintura y tórax mesoesternal, siendo este último mayor (> 1 *Z-score*) en todas las posiciones de juego.

Tabla I. Promedio y desviación estándar ($\pm$) de variables e índices antropométricos por posición de juego

	Porteros (n = 44)		Defensas (n = 119)		Volantes (n = 133)		Delanteros (n = 94)	
Edad (años)	25,1	$\pm 5,5$	25,3	$\pm 4,8$	25,2	$\pm 4,8$	23,5	$\pm 4,1$
Peso (kg)	81,4	$\pm 5,9$	77,1	$\pm 6,2$	71,7	$\pm 6,0$	75,2	$\pm 7,2$
Talla (cm)	181,3	$\pm 3,8$	178,2	$\pm 5,6$	172,9	$\pm 5,6$	176,6	$\pm 6,2$
Talla sentado (cm)	93,1	$\pm 3,2$	92,8	$\pm 3,8$	90,1	$\pm 3,1$	91,8	$\pm 4,0$
IMC	24,8	$\pm 1,5$	24,3	$\pm 1,5$	24,0	$\pm 1,8$	24,1	$\pm 1,7$
Estatura sentado/estatura (cm)	0,51	$\pm 0,01$	0,52	$\pm 0,02$	0,52	$\pm 0,02$	0,52	$\pm 0,02$
Σ 6 pliegues	58,9	$\pm 12,0$	51,4	$\pm 13,7$	50,6	$\pm 11,6$	48,8	$\pm 11,5$
kg masa piel	4,1	$\pm 0,2$	4,0	$\pm 0,2$	3,8	$\pm 0,2$	3,9	$\pm 0,3$
kg masa adiposa	18,0	$\pm 2,1$	16,2	$\pm 2,6$	15,0	$\pm 2,0$	15,5	$\pm 2,4$
kg masa muscular	40,7	$\pm 4,1$	38,9	$\pm 3,6$	35,8	$\pm 3,6$	37,8	$\pm 5,1$
kg masa residual	9,4	$\pm 1,1$	9,2	$\pm 1,1$	8,9	$\pm 1,5$	9,1	$\pm 1,1$
kg masa ósea	9,2	$\pm 0,9$	8,9	$\pm 0,9$	8,4	$\pm 0,9$	8,7	$\pm 0,9$
kg músculo brazos	7,5	$\pm 0,8$	6,8	$\pm 0,8$	6,2	$\pm 0,8$	6,6	$\pm 0,9$
kg músculo piernas	17,7	$\pm 1,8$	16,9	$\pm 1,8$	15,8	$\pm 1,9$	16,4	$\pm 1,8$
Índice músculo/óseo	4,44	$\pm 0,53$	4,40	$\pm 0,51$	4,27	$\pm 0,42$	4,37	$\pm 0,58$
Endomorfismo	2,5	$\pm 0,5$	2,3	$\pm 0,7$	2,3	$\pm 0,6$	2,1	$\pm 0,6$
Mesomorfismo	5,5	$\pm 0,9$	5,4	$\pm 0,9$	5,5	$\pm 1,0$	5,3	$\pm 1,1$
Ectomorfismo	2,1	$\pm 0,7$	2,1	$\pm 0,7$	1,9	$\pm 0,8$	2,1	$\pm 0,7$

IMC: Índice de masa corporal; Σ 6 pliegues: *triceps, subescapular, supraespinal, abdominal, muslo (medio), pierna*.

Tabla II. Diferencias entre grupos por posición de juego de las variables e índices antropométricos

	Port/Def	Port/Vol	Port/Del	Def/Vol	Def/Del	Vol/Del
Edad	NS	NS	0,004	NS	0,002	0,002
Peso corporal	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
Estatura	0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
Estatura sentado	NS	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
IMC	NS	0,004	0,009	NS	NS	NS
Estatura sentado/estatura	0,009	0,004	NS	NS	NS	NS
Σ 6 pliegues	0,002	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	NS	NS
kg masa piel	NS	< 0,001	0,008	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
kg masa adiposa	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	NS
kg masa muscular	0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
kg masa residual	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
kg masa ósea	NS	< 0,001	0,002	< 0,001	NS	NS
Músculo brazos	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	< 0,001
Músculo piernas	0,007	< 0,001	< 0,001	< 0,001	NS	0,007
Índice músculo/óseo	NS	0,006	NS	NS	NS	NS
Endomorfismo	NS	NS	< 0,001	NS	NS	NS
Mesomorfismo	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Ectomorfismo	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

NS: no significativo. Prueba t de Student con un valor de significancia de $p < 0,001$.

Tabla III. Valores de Z-score del método Phantom por posición de juego

	Porteros	Defensas	Volantes	Delanteros
<i>Díametros óseos</i>				
Biacromial	0,66	0,59	0,75	0,74
Tórax transverso	0,54	0,37	0,48	0,56
Tórax anteroposterior	1,32	1,35	2,11	1,36
Bi-iliocrestídeo	-1,09	-1,00	-0,89	-1,12
Humeral (biepicondilar)	0,88	0,83	1,01	0,65
Femoral (biepicondilar)	0,33	0,28	0,50	0,20
<i>Perímetros</i>				
Cabeza	-1,64	-1,18	-0,43	-1,05
Brazo relajado	1,31	0,96	0,94	0,91
Brazo flexionado en tensión	1,12	1,07	0,86	0,81
Antebrazo	0,97	0,53	0,70	0,66
Tórax mesoesternal	1,29	1,10	1,14	1,07
Cintura (mínima)	1,27	1,17	1,42	1,18
Caderas (máxima)	-0,34	-0,30	-0,21	-0,33
Muslo (superior)	0,04	0,10	0,12	0,04
Muslo (medio)	0,44	0,40	0,14	0,23
Pierna (máxima)	0,36	0,46	0,55	0,52
<i>Pliegues cutáneos</i>				
Tríceps	-1,64	-1,80	-1,79	-1,93
Subescapular	-1,63	-1,77	-1,71	-1,78
Supraespinal	-1,61	-1,80	-1,82	-1,90
Abdominal	-1,30	-1,61	-1,60	-1,68
Muslo (medio)	-2,18	-2,25	-2,22	-2,29
Pierna	-2,16	-2,34	-2,34	-2,37

En relación a los pliegues cutáneos, los jugadores presentan un valor < -1 Z-score en tríceps, subescapular, supraespinal y abdominal y < -2 Z-score en muslo y pierna.

La figura 1 muestra los valores de Z-score de Phantom sobre la composición corporal de cada posición de juego, destacando valores cercanos a -2 Z-score para la masa adiposa, > 1 Z-score de masa muscular y valores > 2 Z-score en masa residual, respecto de los "porteros".

En la tabla IV se pueden observar las diferencias por cada posición de juego, frente a una referencia chilena de sujetos hombres activos no deportistas de entre 18 y 29 años (CHIREF) (12). En esta tabla se pueden observar las diferencias con la media referencial (Δ) y la significancia estadística (p valor), donde el peso corporal es mayor en los jugadores, al igual que la estatura, a excepción de los "volantes", en los que es menor. La sumatoria de seis pliegues es menor, a excepción de en los "porteros", donde es mayor que en CHIREF. Las masas corporales son significativamente mayores en los futbolistas respecto a CHIREF. Se

destaca la masa muscular de los "porteros", que es mayor en 6,3 kg en promedio, por lo que representa la mayor diferencia. En los "volantes" se presenta la menor diferencia de 1,3 kg más de masa muscular que CHIREF.

El endomorfismo es no significativo entre CHIREF y jugadores, al igual que el endomorfismo entre "defensas" y CHIREF.

DISCUSIÓN

VARIABLES BÁSICAS

Los "porteros" presentan diferencias significativas mayores respecto de los otros grupos en el peso corporal, la estatura, la sumatoria de seis pliegues y la masa adiposa ($p < 0,001$), la cual podría asociarse al menor gasto energético asociado al menor tiempo en movimiento que realizan los porteros en los entrenamientos y competencias. Los jugadores con mayor des-

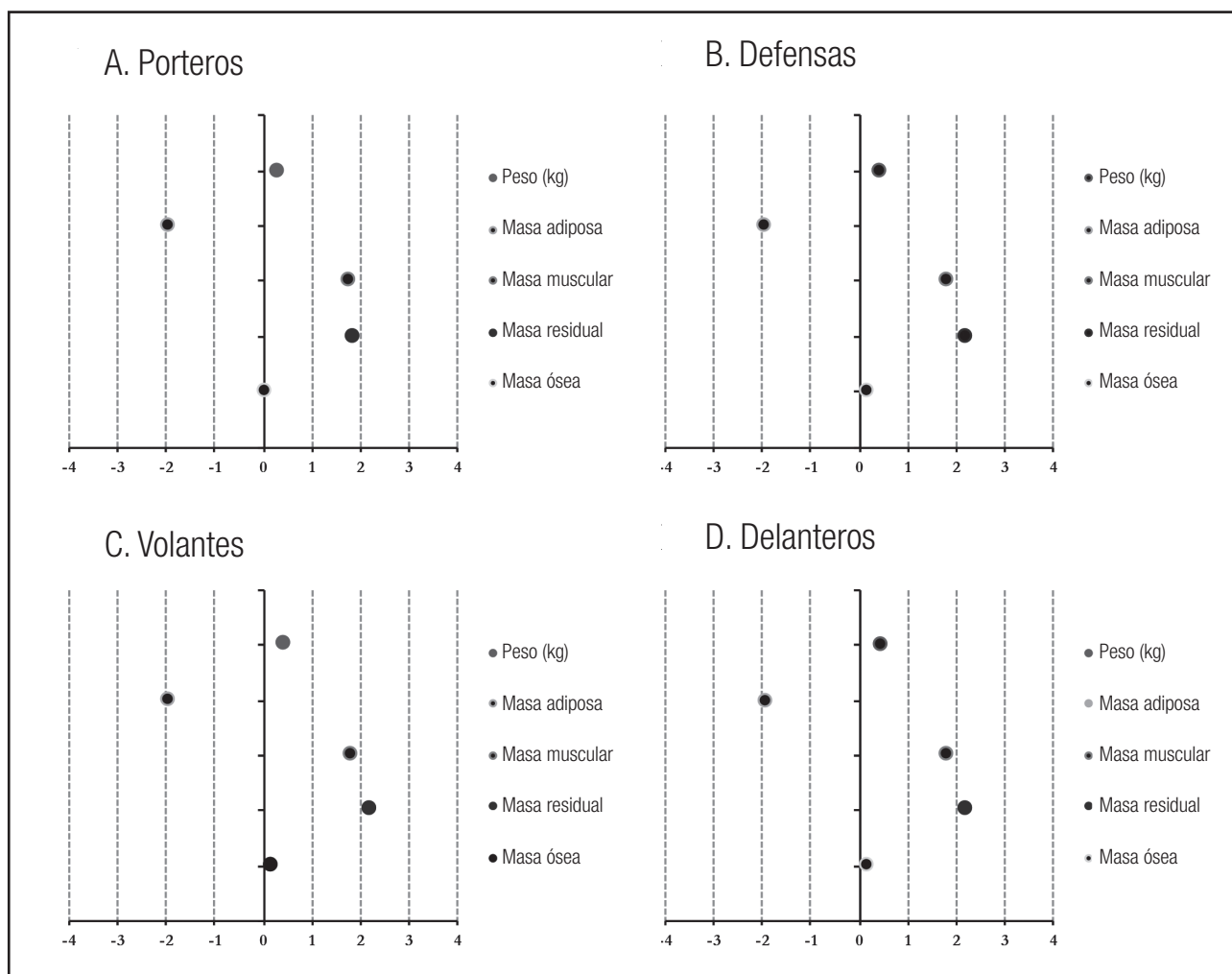


Figura 1.

Representación de los valores de Z-score de Phantom para composición corporal por posición de juego.

Tabla IV. Diferencias entre la referencia CHIREF, con los futbolistas por posición de juego

	CHIREF n = 100	Porteros n = 44		Defensas n = 119		Volantes n = 133		Delanteros n = 94	
	Media	Δ	p valor	Δ	p valor	Δ	p valor	Δ	p valor
Peso (kg)	69,2	12,2	< 0,001	7,9	< 0,001	2,5	< 0,001	6,0	< 0,001
Talla (cm)	173,3	7,9	< 0,001	4,8	< 0,001	-0,4	< 0,001	3,3	< 0,001
Talla sentado (cm)	90,9	2,2	0,009	1,9	0,009	-0,8	0,003	0,9	0,002
IMC	23,0	1,7	< 0,001	1,2	< 0,001	0,9	< 0,001	1,1	< 0,001
Estatura Sentado/estatura	0,53	-0,02	< 0,001	-0,01	0,001	-0,01	NS	-0,01	NS
Σ 6 pliegues	52,6	6,4	0,021	-1,2	0,021	-2,0	0,022	-3,7	0,012
kg piel	3,7	0,4	< 0,001	0,3	< 0,001	0,1	< 0,001	0,2	< 0,001
kg adiposa	14,9	3,1	< 0,001	1,3	< 0,001	0,1	< 0,001	0,6	< 0,001
kg muscular	34,4	6,3	< 0,001	4,4	< 0,001	1,3	< 0,001	3,4	< 0,001
kg residual	8,0	1,4	< 0,001	1,2	< 0,001	0,9	< 0,001	1,1	< 0,001
kg ósea	8,1	1,2	< 0,001	0,8	< 0,001	0,3	< 0,001	0,6	< 0,001
MMMS	6,0	1,5	< 0,001	0,7	< 0,001	0,1	< 0,001	0,5	< 0,001
MMMI	15,7	2,1	< 0,001	1,3	< 0,001	0,1	< 0,001	0,8	< 0,001
Índice músculo/óseo	4,3	0,2	NS	0,1	NS	0,0	0,028	0,1	0,009
Endomorfismo	2,4	0,1	NS	-0,1	NS	-0,1	NS	-0,3	NS
Mesomorfismo	5,1	0,4	0,001	0,3	NS	0,4	0,003	0,2	0,002
Ectomorfismo	2,4	-0,4	0,003	-0,3	0,004	-0,5	0,006	-0,3	0,009

plazamiento en el campo de juego pueden llegar a recorrer entre 10 y 11 km por partido (15-18). Un estudio realizado en porteros de la Premier League (19) ha definido que estos recorren alrededor de 5,6 km por juego, casi la mitad de la distancia que otras posiciones, lo cual tiene efectos sobre las características antropométricas de los “porteros”.

Es coherente pensar que los jugadores que disputen balones aéreos tengan mayor estatura para mejorar el éxito en la posesión del balón, por lo que los defensas deben tener una estatura mayor frente a los otros puestos de juego. En este estudio, los “defensas” son más altos que los “volantes” ($p < 0,001$), pero no más altos que los “porteros”. El hecho de que no existan diferencias en la estatura en “defensas” y “delanteros” pone en igualdad de condición al ataque y la defensa en el juego aéreo. Un estudio demostró que la estatura de los “defensas” daneses es de $189 \pm 0,04$ cm (20), más de 10 cm de diferencia con este grupo, lo que podría influir en el juego aéreo en competencias internacionales. Es necesario destacar que la estatura es considerada como un factor importante para el desarrollo de ciertas acciones del juego (21).

COMPOSICIÓN CORPORAL

Como se informó antes, existen diferencias en la masa muscular y adiposa entre las posiciones de juego. Se ha estudiado previamente que existe una asociación entre la capacidad de

hacer *sprints* repetidos con un alto perfil muscular y la baja adiposidad en futbolistas (22). En este estudio podemos identificar a los “delanteros”, quienes se acercan más a ese perfil, lo que sería correcto para expresar un mejor rendimiento en el juego.

Un estudio piloto ha definido que aquellos futbolistas con mayor masa muscular presentan aceleraciones al *sprints* peores (23), probablemente por el peso extra que eso significa. En el caso de los “delanteros” en este estudio, presentan menos masa muscular que los “defensas” (37,8% y 38,9%, respectivamente), al tiempo que son más livianos (75,2 kg y 77,1 kg, respectivamente), lo que los hace más eficientes en sus acciones deportivas.

Al comparar con otro estudio la masa muscular por segmentos de un equipo profesional de fútbol (24), se obtienen resultados similares de $6,7 \pm 1$ kg para brazos y $17,2 \pm 1,7$ para piernas al comparar con este estudio.

La masa adiposa es más baja en los “volantes”, lo cual se asocia a su mayor distancia de desplazamiento en campo de juego, y en los “porteros” es mayor por su menor desplazamiento.

Efectivamente, los “volantes” de la liga inglesa (25) recorren significativamente mayor distancia (volantes centrales: 11,4 km; volantes de salida: 11,5 km) que sus compañeros de otras posiciones (defensas centrales: 9,8 km; delanteros: 10,3 km), con más de 1 km de diferencia por partido, lo que influye en su masa adiposa y masa muscular. Al respecto, al calcular la masa muscular por segmentos (brazos y piernas), los “volantes” presentan la menor masa muscular del estudio, que es casi 2 kg menor que en los “porteros”.

Al comparar los futbolistas de este estudio, se aprecian diferencias con la referencia CHIREF en muchas de las variables, lo que denota la exigencia y el nivel de entrenamiento de estos deportistas que, en general, son más altos, más pesados, con menos pliegues cutáneos y con mayor masa muscular total y segmentada. Es decir, se deben tener ciertas características morfológicas para jugar en el fútbol profesional, en el cual no bastaría solo con la técnica y la estrategia.

SOMATOTIPO

El somatotipo predominante en los jugadores de este estudio es mesomórfico balanceado, sin que existan diferencias significativas en los somatotipos por posición de juego, a excepción del endomorfismo de los "porteros" y "delanteros" ($p = 0,000$).

Un estudio hecho en futbolistas turcos definió también un somatotipo mesomórfico balanceado (26). Otro estudio similar hecho en 305 futbolistas (27) definió valores de somatotipo de 3,0-4,5-2,6 (endo-meso-ecto) con una prevalencia del 23,6% de mesomorfismo balanceado. Otro estudio chileno más reciente, con 100 jugadores profesionales (28), ha definido un somatotipo promedio de 2,6-5,3-2,3, obteniendo también un mesomorfismo balanceado, a excepción de los "delanteros medios", quienes presentan endo-mesomorfismo.

PHANTOM

Como se muestra en los resultados, los valores de tórax anteroposterior son más altos en los "volantes". Esto puede asociarse a que su mayor distancia recorrida en el campo de juego (25) requiere de una mejor capacidad aeróbica, la cual se facilita con un espacio torácico mayor.

Los "porteros" presentan mayores perímetros de brazo relajado y brazo flexionado, que estiman la masa muscular, que el resto de los jugadores, expresándose esto en mejor potencia que en otros jugadores (29). Los perímetros de cintura y tórax mesoesternal más altos representan un tamaño corporal mayor y coherente con las acciones de alcance del balón en el arco que desarrollan los porteros.

Se destaca que los perímetros de los miembros inferiores de los jugadores son cercanos al valor de referencia Phantom, para el cual se debe considerar la relación entre masa muscular y adiposa de estas zonas, que es distinta en futbolistas (más músculo, menos adiposidad) que en la referencia Phantom (más adiposidad, menos músculo), sin afectar necesariamente el volumen total de las extremidades.

Esto se puede comprobar con los pliegues cutáneos de los jugadores de este estudio, que presentan un valor < -1 Z-score en tríceps, subescapular, supraespinal y abdominal y < -2 Z-score en muslo y pierna, valores similares a los de otros futbolistas profesionales suramericanos, pero diferentes de jugadores de niveles más bajos, como universitarios, cuyos valores son más cercanos a Z-score = 0 (30).

CONCLUSIÓN

Existen diferencias significativas en la composición corporal por cada posición de juego, excepto entre "defensas" y "volantes", lo que permite definir un perfil antropométrico de especialización y entrenamiento diferenciado para cada puesto de juego. A pesar de no existir tantas diferencias en el somatotipo de los jugadores con respecto a otros sujetos de referencia no deportistas, en lo específico sí las hay, tanto en las medidas antropométricas como en las masas corporales. A pesar de la importancia que tienen la técnica y la estrategia en el fútbol, estos deportistas tienen diferencias físicas sustanciales que los vuelven especialistas en su disciplina y en cada posición de juego.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

A pilot intervention to reduce postpartum weight retention at primary health care in Brazil *Una intervención piloto para reducir la retención de peso después del parto en la atención primaria de salud en Brasil*

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Abstract

Background: postpartum weight retention (PWR) strongly predicts obesity, the major nutritional concern of this century; however, there is a gap in nutritional care for postpartum women in Brazil.

Objective: to evaluate the effect of nutritional counselling provided at primary health care on the reduction of PWR.

Method: pilot study carried out in a low-income community in southeastern Brazil, involving postpartum women with PWR, who were provided with individual monthly appointments with a nutritionist over three months of follow-up. Nutritional counselling was based on the Dietary Approach to Stop Hypertension (DASH diet) aiming at healthy and gradual weight loss. Anthropometric evaluation included measurement of weight, height, waist circumference and percentage of body fat. Dietary intake was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire and adherence to diet was evaluated using a DASH score.

Results: women who participated in the study ($n = 26$) showed a reduction in PWR (median -1.80 kg, $p = 0.004$), body mass index (-0.57 kg/m², $p = 0.004$), and waist circumference (-2.50 cm, $p = 0.024$), as well as 91.67% of them presented good adherence to diet.

Conclusion: nutritional counselling provided to low-income postpartum women at primary health care contributed to the reduction of PWR, body mass index and waist circumference, as the study participants presented good adherence to a healthy dietary pattern.

Key words:

Postpartum period.
Maternal nutrition.
Women's health.
Primary health care.
Public health.

Resumen

Introducción: la retención de peso después del parto (RPDP) predice firmemente la obesidad, que es la principal preocupación nutricional de este siglo; sin embargo, existe una brecha en la atención nutricional para las mujeres después del parto en Brasil.

Objetivo: evaluar el efecto del asesoramiento nutricional brindado en Atención Primaria sanitaria sobre la reducción de RPDP.

Método: estudio piloto realizado en una comunidad de bajos ingresos en el sureste de Brasil, en el que participaron mujeres postparto con RPDP, que recibieron citas mensuales individuales con un nutricionista durante tres meses de seguimiento. El asesoramiento nutricional se basó en la dieta Dietary Approach to Stop Hypertension (DASH) y apuntó a una pérdida de peso saludable y gradual. La evaluación antropométrica incluyó la medición del peso, la altura, la circunferencia de la cintura y el porcentaje de grasa corporal. La ingesta dietética se evaluó mediante un cuestionario de frecuencia alimentaria y la adherencia a la dieta se evaluó mediante un *score* DASH.

Resultados: las mujeres que participaron en el estudio ($n = 26$) mostraron una reducción en la RPDP (mediana de -1.80 kg, $p = 0.004$), índice de masa corporal (-0.57 kg/m², $p = 0.004$) y circunferencia de la cintura (-2.50 cm, $p = 0.024$); el 91.67% de ellas presentaron buena adherencia a la dieta.

Conclusión: el asesoramiento nutricional brindado a las mujeres de bajos ingresos después del parto en Atención Primaria sanitaria contribuyó a la reducción de la RPDP, el índice de masa corporal y la circunferencia de la cintura, ya que los participantes del estudio presentaron una buena adherencia a un patrón de dieta saludable.

Palabras clave:

Periodo posparto.
Nutrición materna.
Salud de la mujer.
Atención Primaria
sanitaria. Salud
pública.

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INTRODUCTION

Overweight among women of reproductive age has been growing at an alarming rate in recent decades, becoming a serious public health issue in Brazil. Currently, 50.5% of adult women are overweight and 19.6% are obese, with a higher risk of developing chronic diseases and a tendency towards worse obstetric outcomes (1,2).

The pregnancy-puerperal cycle involves physiological adaptations that induce significant changes in body weight and composition (3). Excessive gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention (PWR) are strong predictors of obesity development (3-5). The greater the gestational weight gain, the higher the PWR verified in one year, and the higher the body mass index (BMI) in subsequent years (5). Therefore, it is recommended that women return to pre-gestational weight within 12 months after delivery (5,6).

Nutritional counselling is effective in promoting PWR reduction (7-10). However, there is a lack of a specific protocol at Brazilian public primary health care to monitor health and nutrition of women in the postpartum period (11). Moreover, commitment to nutritional care during the postpartum period is challenging due to the demands of motherhood, which are notably worse for low-income women (12). Thus, there is a current call to action to development of new strategies that could better achieve this specific public (11,12).

The present study aimed to evaluate the effect of nutritional counselling at primary health care on the reduction of PWR in a low-income community in southeastern Brazil.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

STUDY DESIGN AND POPULATION

This pilot study was conducted from November 2016 to September 2017 in two primary health care centers located in a low-income community in southeastern Brazil.

All women registered in the health center's information system were identified with the potential to participate in the study. Individuals that met the following inclusion criteria were selected: women 6-9 months postpartum, with weight retention of any magnitude, BMI above 18.5 kg/m², older than 18 years old, single-fetus pregnancy, a living infant, absence of diagnosis of chronic diseases (except for obesity), no history or diagnosis of eating disorders, and no bariatric surgery.

Individuals were invited to participate through phone calls or personally in the health centers waiting rooms and childcare groups. The project was widely disseminated among health professionals and community using posters and leaflets. Women who agreed to participate had their first appointment scheduled, during which the data regarding sociodemographic characteristics, obstetric history, pre- and postnatal care, and conditions of the child at birth were verified through a face-to-face interview and medical records.

INTERVENTION

The study participants attended four individual appointments with a nutritionist over three months of follow-up. Nutritional counselling was performed based on the Dietary Approach to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet (13). The DASH diet is recognized as a healthy and beneficial dietary pattern for women of reproductive age (14). Most daily energy consumption should derive from plant foods, such as fruits, vegetables, seeds, oilseeds, beans, and whole grains, restricting the consumption of meat and other foods with high amounts of saturated fat, salt, and sugar (13). However, it is an American dietary pattern, so it had to be translated and adapted for this study, especially considering typical foods that were accessible to the Brazilian population (in press).

The meal plan delivered to women was organized into six meals, setting up a daily menu model with the recommended number of portions of the adapted DASH diet groups: 7-8 servings of cereals, preferably whole-grain cereals; 4-5 servings of vegetables; 4-5 servings of fruits; 2-3 servings of dairy products, preferably low-fat; 2-3 servings of oils; 1-2 servings of beans (typical Brazilian food); and up to two servings of meats. The consumption of seeds and/or nuts was indicated 4-5 times per week. Sugars and sugary beverages were advised against, without definition of a tolerable portion [in press].

The nutritional guidance material was developed in line with the proposal of the new Food Guide for the Brazilian Population (15), similar to others already used in the routine practice where the study was developed. A daily energy value of approximately 2,000 kcal was considered to meet the recommendation of minimum intakes for nursing mothers (1,900 kcal/day) (16).

The meal plan was delivered and explained in the first appointment. General recommendations were also made for a healthy diet, such as the amount of water intake, replacement of industrial seasonings with natural herbs and spices, reduction of consumption of ultra-processed food and moderation in the addition of salt, sugar, and fats. In subsequent consultations, with 30-day intervals, all orientation was reinforced or adjusted, according to the obtained results.

Despite the use of a common meal plan for all participants, nutritional counselling was conducted in an individualized and contextualized way based on the routine of each woman. Suggestions for foods and preparations were discussed with each participant, according to availability and affordability of certain items (17,18). Among available options, the best choices were suggested, so that women would be closest to the adapted DASH diet proposal. Physical activity was encouraged throughout the follow-up period and evaluated before and after the intervention (19).

To improve adherence to the diet, study participants received a kit containing three packages of skimmed milk powder (400 g each), two packages of linseed and/or sunflower seeds (250 g) and three seed and cereal bars (30 g each), at each visit.

In addition, as part of the intervention, the free instant messaging application WhatsApp® and the social media site Facebook® were used as tools to reinforce nutritional counselling (10,20,21). Messages regarding information on healthy eating were sent weekly. These digital tools were also used to communicate with

the study participants, in order to promote self-motivation and self-monitoring (10,20,21). Women were encouraged to send pictures of meals and questions about food and nutrition, always in a private way, and were receiving answers from expert nutritionists.

ASSESSMENT OF DIET ADHERENCE

Food intake was assessed in the last appointment using a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) validated for the Brazilian population (22). Analyses of individual food consumption were performed in Microsoft Excel. The amount consumed for each food, reported in usual units, was converted to grams/milligrams or liters/milliliters.

The frequencies of consumption reported in the FFQ as weekly or monthly were transformed into daily frequency (23). Using the Table of Nutritional Composition of Foods Consumed in Brazil (24), it was possible to verify daily consumption in kilocalories of energy and grams or milligrams of nutrients.

To evaluate the diet adherence, a DASH score (25) was used, considering the number of recommended portions in each food group, for each 1,000 kcal daily consumed: fruits (> 2.10 servings of 80 g), vegetables (> 2.10 servings of 50 g), dairy products (> 0.96 portion of 120 ml of milk or 40 g of cheese), whole grains (> 3.60 servings of 20 g), seeds/legumes ($\geq$ 0.33 portion of 30 g of seeds/oilseeds or 80 g of beans), meat ($\leq$ 0.80 portion of 170 g), oils/fats ($\leq$ 1.20 portion of 5 ml) and percentage of saturated fat (< 7% of the total daily energy value).

For each food group in which the consumption recommendation was met, one point was recorded in the DASH score (25). Therefore, the score ranging from 0 (lower adherence) to 8 (higher adherence) was individually calculated. A score equal or greater than 4 was considered as good adherence to diet, and scores less than 4, as bad adherence.

ANTHROPOMETRIC EVALUATION

Anthropometric evaluation was performed in all visits, with measurements of weight (kg), percentage of body fat (%) and waist circumference (cm). Weight and percentage of body fat were measured with an electronic field balance, with bipolar bioimpedance. Participants removed their shoes and accessories and wore light clothing (26). Waist circumference was measured with a flat steel anthropometric tape, at the mean height between the iliac crest and lower costal margin (26).

Height (m) was measured at the first visit, with a fixed vertical stadiometer, in the absence of shoes and hair accessories (26). Blood pressure was measured in all consultations using a high precision digital device. The analyses for determining nutritional status were performed according to the current protocols published by the Ministry of Health of Brazil (26).

PWR was defined as the difference between the actual weight and pre-gestational weight found on the medical records. In the absence of such information, the weight recorded at the first prenatal

visit was used, if it has occurred during the first trimester. The BMI was calculated using the formula $BMI = \text{weight (kg)} / \text{height}^2 \text{ (m)}$.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

PWR was considered as the primary outcome of the study. Secondary outcomes were weight, BMI, waist circumference and body fat percentage. Due to the reduced sample size and its non-normality condition, tested with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, non-parametric statistical tests were adopted.

For the descriptive analyses, the results were presented as absolute and relative frequency for the qualitative variables and as median and interquartile range for the quantitative variables. The Mann-Whitney test was used to compare the medians of independent samples, while the Wilcoxon test was used for the comparison between dependent samples. The Chi-square test was used to compare qualitative variables using the Fisher's test.

Spearman's correlation was used to verify possible associations between covariables and the main outcome. Analyses were performed in the IBM SPSS Statistics version 21.0 software, adopting $p < 0.05$ for statistical significance of the results.

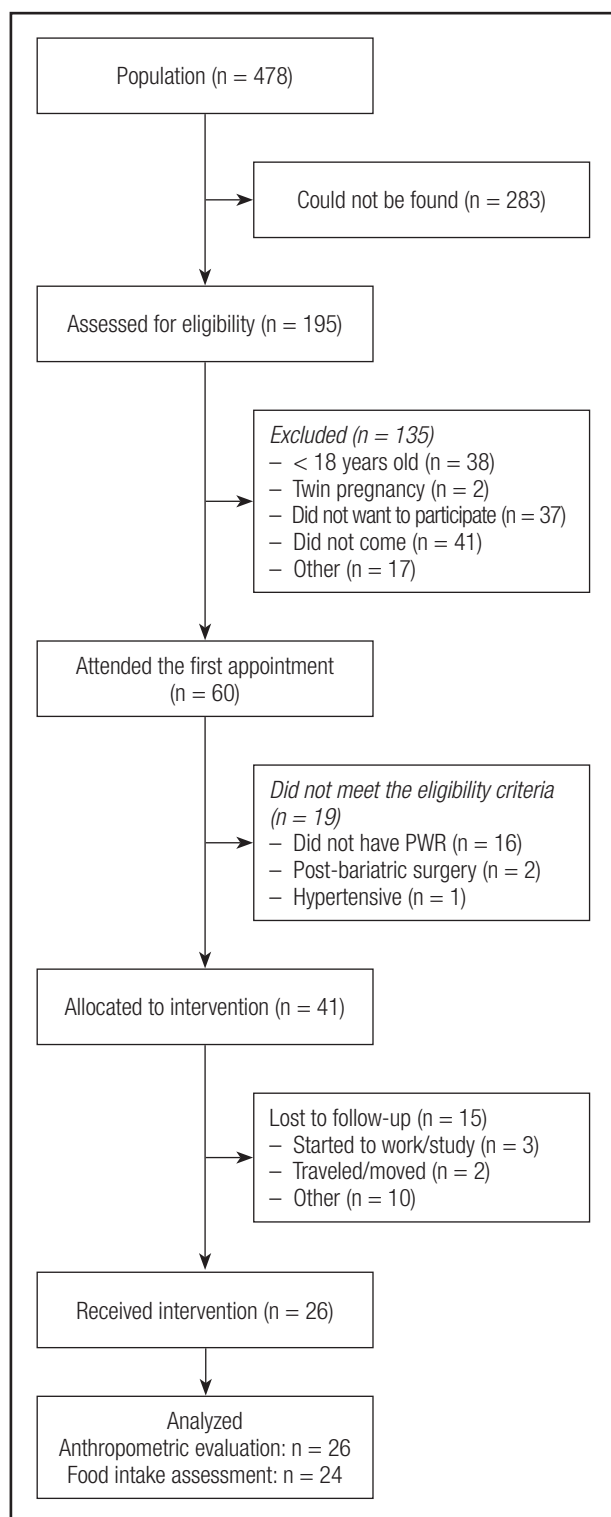
ETHICAL STANDARDS DISCLOSURE

This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki and all procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee in Research of the National School of Public Health (CAAE 0251.0.031.031-10) and Brazilian Registry of Clinical Trials (RBR-4t46ry). Written informed consent was obtained from all study participants.

RESULTS

Following consultation of the records in the health center's information system, 478 women were identified, who would be 6-9 months postpartum during the time of data collection. Of these, 283 could not be reached. Among those who accepted to participate in the study and attended the first visit ($n = 60$), 19 did not meet the eligibility criteria. Forty-one women started the intervention and 26 completed it, accounting for a 36.6% loss of follow-up (Fig. 1). The mean duration of follow-up, encompassing the four visits, was 109 days (3.6 months).

The characteristics of the sample, as well as the comparison between women who completed or did not completed the study, are presented in table I. The median PWR was 5.50 kg. Regarding the nutritional status, 48.8% ($n = 20$) were obese and 39% ($n = 16$) were overweight. The median pre-gestational BMI value was 27.06 kg/m² (24.63-30.77). There was a greater loss of follow-up for younger women with higher BMI values ($p < 0.05$) (Table I). There were no significant differences in relation to the sociodemographic characteristics between women who completed or did not completed the study (Table I).

**Figure 1.**

Flowchart of the study.

The sample contained a majority of black women (68.3%), married (85.4%), with high school education (65.9%), adequate sanitation at home (87.8%), multiparous (56.1%) and with low

adherence to physical activities (78.1%). Most women maintained breastfeeding (70.7%), but exclusive breastfeeding up to six months was reported by only nine of them (22%).

Table II shows the anthropometric results before and after the intervention. Measurements of all parameters presented a reduction ($p < 0.05$) after intervention, except for body fat percentage ($p = 0.346$). The median systolic (SBP) and diastolic (DBP) blood pressure did not change after the intervention (initial SBP = 109 *versus* final SBP = 112, $p = 0.909$ and baseline DBP = 68 *versus* final DBP = 68.5, $p = 0.808$).

Regarding the adherence to diet (Table III), the frequency of women who consumed the portions indicated for each food group was 50.00% for fruits, 33.33% for vegetables, 87.50% for dairy products, 16.67% for whole grains, 91.67% for seeds and legumes, 70.83% for oils and fats, 91.67% for meat and 75.00% for saturated fat. Analysis of DASH score showed that 91.67% of women presented good adherence to diet. Two women did not respond to the FFQ, as they claimed little time for the consultation.

About the level of physical activity, only three of the 26 women who completed the consultations were classified as “active” and this was maintained before and after the intervention. All others were “irregularly active” ($n = 14$) or “sedentary” ($n = 9$). Therefore, it was not possible to evaluate the potential impact of physical activity on postpartum weight retention.

Time after delivery and the breastfeeding period (in days) presented a negative correlation with PWR after the intervention ($\rho -0.406$, $p = 0.040$ and $\rho -0.437$, $p = 0.025$, respectively). Energy intake presented a positive correlation with PWR ($\rho 0.536$, $p = 0.007$), which did not occur for the individually assessed food groups. No correlation was observed between PWR and the following covariates tested: maternal age ($p = 0.244$), gestational weight gain ($p = 0.203$), parity ($p = 0.171$) and per capita family income ($p = 0.677$).

DISCUSSION

Our results showed that nutritional care offered to women during the postpartum period, at primary health care, contributed to the reduction of PWR, BMI and waist circumference, as women presented good adherence to a healthy dietary pattern.

The location of the study was a neighborhood with elevated levels of violence and police confrontations, which contributed to a limitation of the study, which is the small sample size. The selection and follow-up of women were constantly hampered by this social context, especially exacerbated during the study period. Lack of security limits the routine activities of women residing on-site. Attending consultations, following a diet plan, and focusing on personal goals related to nutritional status has become especially challenging in this hostile environment.

To mitigate the damages caused by these conditions, it was strategic to use communication technologies (WhatsApp® and Facebook®). Thus, it was possible to maintain communication with the study participants and promote motivation for adherence to nutritional guidelines, even when the attendance schedule was compromised. Participants sent photos, questions and comments

Table I. Characteristics of participants at baseline and comparison between individuals who have or have not completed the intervention (n = 41)

	Total (n = 41)		Did not complete the intervention (n = 15)		Completed the intervention (n = 26)		<i>p</i>
	Med	IR	Med	IR	Med	IR	
Age, years	29.00	24.00-33.00	24.00	21.00-31.00	31.00	25.75-33.25	0.032*
Pre-gestational BMI, kg/m ²	27.06	24.63-30.77	29.59	26.99-32.66	25.81	23.30-29.38	0.058*
BMI, kg/m ²	29.92	26.60-35.13	30.90	29.20-37.20	28.59	25.81-31.71	0.021*
PWR, kg	5.50	2.45-10.65	7.60	2.60-12.90	4.05	2.22-8.52	0.120*
	n	%	n	%	n	%	<i>p</i>
<i>Color of the skin</i>							
White/yellow	13.00	31.70	4.00	26.70	9.00	34.60	0.734 [‡]
Brown/black	28.00	68.30	11.00	73.30	17.00	65.40	
<i>Marital status</i>							
With partner	35.00	85.40	13.00	86.70	22.00	84.60	1.000 [‡]
Without partner	6.00	14.60	2.00	13.30	4.00	15.40	
<i>Education</i>							
Incomplete HS	14.00	34.10	5.00	33.30	9.00	34.60	0.934 [‡]
Complete HS	27.00	65.90	10.00	66.70	17.00	65.40	
<i>Work</i>							
Yes	19.00	46.30	6.00	40.00	13.00	50.00	0.536 [‡]
No	22.00	53.70	9.00	60.00	13.00	50.00	
<i>Family income per capita[§]</i>							
Up to 0.5 MW	17.00	41.50	7.00	46.70	10.00	38.50	0.680 [‡]
0.5 MW or more	23.00	56.10	8.00	53.30	15.00	57.70	
<i>Sanitation</i>							
Suitable	36.00	87.80	12.00	80.00	24.00	92.30	0.336 [‡]
Unsuitable	5.00	12.20	3.00	20.00	2.00	7.70	
<i>Parity</i>							
Primiparous	18.00	43.90	8.00	53.40	10.00	38.50	0.355 [‡]
Multiparous	23.00	56.10	7.00	46.60	16.00	61.50	
<i>PA level</i>							
Active	9.00	21.90	2.00	13.30	7.00	26.90	0.444 [‡]
Irregularly active	20.00	48.80	7.00	46.70	13.00	50.00	
Sedentary	12.00	29.30	6.00	40.00	6.00	23.10	
<i>Breastfeeding</i>							
Yes	29.00	70.70	10.00	66.70	19.00	73.10	0.664 [‡]
No	12.00	29.30	5.00	33.30	7.00	26.90	
<i>6 m exclusive breastfeeding</i>							
Yes	9.00	22.00	3.00	20.00	6.00	23.10	1.000 [‡]
No	32.00	78.00	12.00	80.00	20.00	76.90	

Med: median; IR: interquartile range; BMI: body mass index; PWR: postpartum weight retention; HS: high school; MW: minimum wage; PA: physical activity; 6 m: six months. *Mann-Whitney test. [‡]Chi-square test. [‡]Fisher's test. Confidence interval 95%. [§]Missing (n = 1), 2.4%.

about food and nutrition. In this way, it was possible to provide constant support and enhance the link between the research team and study participants.

A second limitation refers to the lack of a comparison group (control). This is because the project is part of an initiative to

increase the supply of services to the population of the territory under study. Therefore, it was understood that all identified eligible women who expressed an interest in participation should have access to nutritional care. This option limited the elaboration of more robust conclusions regarding the cause and effect relationship of

Table II. Comparison of anthropometric measurements before and after the intervention (n = 26)

Outcome	Baseline/1 st visit		After intervention/4 th visit [‡]		Δ median 4 th visit-baseline [§]	p [†]
	Med	IR	Med	IR		
PWR (kg)	4.05	2.22-8.52	2.25	0.82-5.97	-1.80	0.004
Weight (kg)	70.55	66.15-77.40	69.00	64.25-75.25	-1.55	0.004
BMI (kg/m ²)	28.59	25.81-31.71	28.02	24.79-30.84	-0.57	0.004
WC (cm)	89.75	80.87-97.30	87.25	79.75-96.50	-2.50	0.024
BF (%)	36.80	34.07-40.37	35.75	33.35-40.85	-1.05	0.346

Med: median; IR: interquartile range; PWR: postpartum weight retention; BMI: body mass index; WC: waist circumference; BF: body fat. ^{*}Mean time between 1st and 2nd visits: 38 days. [†]Mean time between 2nd and 3rd visits: 37 days. [‡]Mean time between 3rd and 4th visits: 34 days. [§]Mean duration of the intervention: 109 days (3.6 months). ^{||}Wilcoxon test, comparison with baseline, confidence interval 95%. [¶]Missing (n = 2).

Table III. Assessment to diet adherence and DASH score (n = 24)

Food groups (servings per 1,000 kcal of EI)	Consumed (median number of servings)	IR	Recommended (number of servings)	Frequency of adequacy* n (%)
Fruits	2.09	1.53-2.63	> 2.10	12 (50.00)
Vegetables	1.80	0.92-2.79	> 2.10	8 (33.33)
Dairy food	2.03	1.14-3.17	> 0.96	21 (87.50)
Whole grains	0.58	0.00-1.30	> 3.60	4 (16.67)
Seeds, nuts/beans	1.07	0.74-1.38	≥ 0.33	22 (91.67)
Oil/fat	0.96	0.47-1.54	≤ 1.20	17 (70.83)
Meat	0.42	0.23-0.57	≤ 0.80	22 (91.67)
Saturated fat (% of EI)	6.05	5.28-7.29	< 7.00	18 (75.00)
DASH score (points)	5.00	4.00-6.00	8.00	Score < 4.00 = 2 (8.33%) Score ≥ 4.00 = 22 (91.67%)

EI: energy intake; IR: interquartile range; DASH: Dietary Approach to Stop Hypertension. Median (IR) of daily energy intake: 1,876.19 (1,639.80-2,488.42) kcal.

*Number and percentage of women who individually reached the recommended intake.

the intervention; however, it increased the range of the benefits resulting from the study.

Nutritional care initiated during pregnancy and continued postpartum is more effective in reducing weight retention than those provided only after delivery (7,9). However, in the present study, the intervention was initiated in the late puerperium. It is likely that the results may be more robust if counselling and monitoring of gestational weight gain were provided during prenatal care.

To date, no studies have been identified using the DASH diet to reduce PWR. The Mediterranean diet, with similar composition, was tested in a US study (27), over four months, in overweight postpartum women. The difference after the intervention was -2.31 kg in weight, -0.85 kg/m² in BMI, -3.47 cm in waist circumference and -1.19% in the percentage of body fat. These results were similar to ours (-1.55 kg, -0.57 kg/m², -2.50 cm and -1.05%, respectively). However, the American study was one month longer than ours.

In a survey performed at primary health care in Sweden (9), overweight postpartum women who received individual nutritional coun-

selling for 12 weeks showed a mean reduction of 6.1 kg in weight at the end of the intervention. This weight loss was higher than the one presented here, however, an energy restriction of 500 kcal was applied in the individual food plan. In the present study, there was no energy restriction, because the meal plan had a qualitative focus.

There was a greater follow-up for older women with lower BMI values, which cannot be explained with other sociodemographic factors. However, the values of pre-gestational BMI were lower among these women, with a borderline result for statistical significance (25.81 kg/m² versus 29.59 kg/m², p = 0.058). The lower pre-gestational BMI is associated with greater weight change during and after gestation (3,4). It is possible that this more pronounced body change has motivated participants to better adhere to nutritional care than those who already have higher pre-gestational BMI.

We observed good adherence to the adapted DASH diet, especially limiting the intake of meat and saturated fat while improving consumption of dairy products and seeds, nuts and beans. These recommendations were emphasized during the nutritional orien-

tation because they are recognized DASH markers (13) and are part of the recommendations of the Food Guide for the Brazilian Population (15). Thus, these results were associated with reduction of RPPP in other studies (28-30).

It is important to consider that adopting a healthy dietary pattern is a challenge for low-income women living in areas of social vulnerability, either because of financial constraints or little availability of fresh and non-industrialized foods, locally (31,32). Popular beliefs and food-related myths that prioritize the consumption of foods with higher energy density during the lactation period were also verified (33). Whole grains, vegetables and fruits had the lowest frequency of consumption adequacy, which may be associated to some of these factors. On the other hand, the better adherence to consumption of dairy products and seeds/nuts was possibly favored by the donation of these products during the intervention.

Another relevant issue, reported by a large part of the study participants, was the lack of time due to the excess of responsibilities related to family and maternity, which was considered as the main barrier to attend appointments, to commit to physical activity and to adhere to the food plan. Most studies involving postpartum women reported large loss of follow-up, generally associated with such factors (12,35).

However, the improvement in the anthropometric indicators of nutritional status and overall diet quality after the intervention indicate that, even though there is limited access to some types of foods and barriers to postpartum care for women's health, adherence to most of the recommendations has been achieved. Therefore, it is important to implement personalized guidelines to meet individual's needs, with the aim to provide available and affordable food options and share practical suggestions for meal planning and preparation.

It is known that weight loss is natural during the first year after delivery, due to the return to physiological and anatomical pre-gestational conditions and to breastfeeding (34). In fact, postpartum and breastfeeding time showed negative correlations with PWR at the end of the study. Corroborating previous findings (36), the total daily energy intake, rather than the consumption of certain food groups, correlated positively with the outcome.

The DASH diet was originally developed for the reduction of systemic arterial pressure (13). In this study, it was not possible to observe a decrease in SBP and DBP; however, the median blood pressure levels were within the normal range before and after the intervention.

Despite the unfavorable context, it was possible to successfully implement this pilot intervention in a community of economic and social vulnerability in southeast Brazil. There was a significant decrease in PWR, BMI and waist circumference. Positive results can be attributed to the good adherence to the adapted DASH diet and to contextualized nutritional counselling, with a focus on women's health. It is relevant to highlight the importance of the digital communication tools used to maintain the follow-up, although this strategy was not measured alone as an outcome of the study, but rather as part of it.

Larger trials are needed to show whether counselling on diet can improve nutritional status of postpartum women and how it should

be effectively done. Currently, there is no protocol that prioritizes and guides nutritional care for women in the postpartum period at Brazilian public primary health care. Thus, this kind of study may support the improvement of pre- and postnatal care in public health services.

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Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Definition of nutritionally qualitative categorizing (proto)nutritypes and a pilot quantitative nutrimeter for mirroring nutritional well-being based on a quality of life health related questionnaire

Definición de (proto)nutritipos basados en la categorización cualitativa nutricional y un nutrimetro cuantitativo para reflejar el bienestar nutricional relacionado con la calidad de vida

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Abstract

Background: there are numerous approaches to assess nutritional status, which are putatively applied to nutritionally classify diseased people, but less information is available to study the role of environmental factors on nutritional well-being. A qualitative (nutritypes) and quantitative (nutrimeter) nutritional categorization based on dietary, lifestyle and disease criteria can be a useful nutritional approach to personalize health interventions and identify at risk individuals.

Methods: cross-sectional study conducted on 102 patients (60 women), evaluating quality of life using the Short-Form 36 questionnaire (SF-36) and lifestyle factors with a general questionnaire, the Mediterranean Diet Adherence Screener (MEDAS) and the Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ). A nutrimeter based on physical activity, fat mass, diet and diseases (hypertension, prediabetes, obesity and dyslipidemia) data was defined with an equation to quantitatively score the nutritive well-being of the participants, and classify them into two (proto)nutritypes.

Results: participants were categorized into two groups (lower/higher global health) according to quality of life. Significant or marginal statistical differences in physical activity, fat mass, diet and disease were found (all $p < 0.1$). Two (proto)nutritypes were identified based on participant's age, sex, fat mass, physical activity, diet and diseases. Participants classified as high nutritional well-being nutritype showed higher values for physical, mental and global health dimensions. Age, fat mass, physical activity and diet, when categorized by the median, confirm that the designed nutritional well-being nutrimeter identified two (proto)nutritypes.

Conclusions: the association between phenotypical (fat mass/diseases) and lifestyle factors (diet/physical activity) with quality of life allowed categorizing individuals with a nutritional quantitative score or nutrimeter according to their nutritional well-being and discriminate two qualitative (proto)nutritypes.

Key words:

Nutrimeter. Nutritype. Nutritional well-being. Lifestyle. Quality of life. SF-36.

Resumen

Introducción: el estado nutricional puede clasificar metabólicamente a las personas enfermas, pero falta información sobre el papel de distintos factores ambientales relacionados con el bienestar nutricional. Una categorización nutricional cualitativa (nutritipo) y cuantitativa (nutrimetro) basada en la dieta, el estilo de vida y la enfermedad es una herramienta nutricional útil para personalizar las intervenciones de salud e identificar a aquellos individuos en riesgo.

Métodos: estudio transversal en 102 pacientes, en el que se evalúa la calidad de vida mediante el cuestionario Short-Form 36 (SF-36) y los factores del estilo de vida con un cuestionario general, el Mediterranean Diet Adherence Screener (MEDAS) y el Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ). Se diseñó una herramienta de evaluación (nutrimetro) de actividad física, masa grasa, dieta y enfermedades a través de una ecuación para calificar cuantitativamente el bienestar nutricional y clasificar a los participantes en (proto)nutritipos.

Resultados: los participantes se clasificaron según la calidad de vida en dos grupos (menor/mayor salud global) y se encontraron diferencias estadísticas ($p < 0.1$) en la masa grasa, la actividad física, la dieta y las enfermedades. Se identificaron dos (proto)nutritipos en función de la edad, el sexo, la masa grasa, la actividad física, la dieta y las enfermedades. Los participantes clasificados en el nutritipo de alto bienestar nutricional mostraron valores significativamente más altos para las dimensiones físicas, mentales y de salud global. La edad, la masa grasa, la actividad física y la dieta confirman que el nutrimetro diseñado puede discriminar dos (proto)nutritipos.

Conclusiones: factores fenotípicos (masa grasa/enfermedades) y del estilo de vida (dieta/actividad física) se han relacionado con la calidad de vida, permitiendo clasificar a individuos con una puntuación nutricional cuantitativa o nutrimetro según su bienestar nutricional y discriminar dos (proto)nutritipos.

Palabras clave:

Nutrimetro. Nutritipo. Bienestar nutricional. Estilo de vida. Calidad de vida. SF-36.

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of health has received several definitions because it is a notion that encompasses several factors, which are complex and difficult to integrate (1). The most commonly accepted definition was initially coined in 1948 by the World Health Organization (WHO), which stated that health is a status of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or disability (2). In such WHO declaration, the health of women and girls is recognized to be individually influenced by biology related to sex and other social determinants (3).

In this context, some authors defined “lifestyle” as a general way of living based on the interplay between habitual daily conditions and individual patterns of behavior as determined by sociocultural factors and personal features (4). Several studies have evidenced that certain changes in lifestyle are effective in impacting people’s health and reducing the burden of diseases (5).

The term quality of life (QoL) refers to an “individual’s perception of their position in life in the framework of the culture and value systems, where they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns” (7). While the concept of QoL includes different aspects of human features, such as where people live, job satisfaction, etc., health related quality of life (HRQoL) covers issues of life that are dominated or significantly affected by personal health and the activities performed to maintain or improve health (8), where important lifestyle factors such as dietary and physical activity patterns with an influential role in such variable are involved. The way in which HRQoL is affected by the nutritional status and the physical activity of a person is a matter of constant interest and demanding debate since food is a basic requirement of daily human life (9).

Due to the difficulty in defining the concepts of health and quality of life, a series of limitations derive from quantifying or measuring them. The Short-Form Health Survey (SF-36) questionnaire is one of the most common ways to measure quality of life due to its reliability and validation (9). The SF-36 provides a profile of the state of health and is one of the most widely used generic scales in the evaluation of subjective clinical outcomes (9). This questionnaire consists of 36 questions, of which 35 are to evaluate health associated with eight different dimensions (10) influenced by nutrition and lifestyle.

Precision nutrition is an apparently novel concept, but for a long time several attempts have been devised for qualitatively categorizing individuals. These classifications have served to distribute individuals according to different characteristics. There is, for example, the classification of obesity based on the distribution of body fat in android or gynoid obesity (11), or the morpho-psychological classification of Kretschmer, which assigns individuals into asthenic, athletic, leptosomatic or dysplastic groups (12). More recently, people with diabetes mellitus have been classified into five “metabotypes”: cluster 1 (severe autoimmune diabetes [SAID]), cluster 2 (severe insulin-deficient diabetes [SIDD]), cluster 3 (severe insulin-resistant diabetes [SIRD]), cluster 4 (mild obesity-related diabetes [MOD]) and cluster 5 (mild age-related diabetes [MARD]) (13). Given the importance of quantifying health

and nutritional status, there are tools such as the Mini Nutritional Assessment (MNA) that can be implemented as a kind of nutrimer or nutritional classifier (14).

In this context, the need for developing a tool to qualitatively differentiate (proto)nutritypes, as well as to devise a nutrimer to equantitatively value nutritional well-being, is essential. The aim of the current work was to define nutritypes in an apparently healthy population based on QoL status and to design tools to qualitatively and quantitatively assess the nutritional status. In this context, in an apparently healthy subject, personal, phenotypical and lifestyle factors that are related to nutrition and health in order to define nutritional status based on (proto)nutritypes were examined and contributed to design a nutrimer to score the nutritional status based on quality of life data.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

From January 2018 to May 2018, a multidisciplinary care group conducted a cross-sectional study that included 102 volunteers, of whom 42 were men and 60 were women aged between 21 and 66 years old and working at Clínica Universidad de Navarra (CUN), Universidad de Navarra (UNAV) or Centro de Investigación Médica Aplicada (CIMA). Volunteers were recruited by the Preventive Unit (CUN) physician, who informed them about the study. All participants were specifically asked if they would be willing to take part in a pilot survey as a part of their routine clinical history and follow-up. After ensuring the participants had understood the information, only those who voluntarily accepted were enrolled after they signed an informed consent. The Declaration of Helsinki of the World Medical Association (WMA) guidelines of 1965 and subsequent revisions were taken into account. Following criteria of the local ethical committee (Ref. 2017.034) signing the informed consent is the sufficient condition to perform the current non-invasive survey.

THE SURVEY

A nutritionist administered the survey and all the information was collected through a questionnaire, where 52 items categorized into three sections were included in this pilot survey (Annex 1). The first section collected information about socio-demographic variables (sex, age, occupation, smoking status, sleeping hours), dietary habits (number of meals, visual analogue scale, salt intake, alcohol and water consumption, mean meal and number of meals out of home) and clinical variables (medical diagnosis of chronic diseases, family history of diseases, sadness, diagnosis of depression). The second section comprised the Mediterranean Diet Adherence Screener (MEDAS) questionnaire about dietary habits related to the Mediterranean Diet adherence (olive oil, vegetables, fruit, meat, butter, beverages, red wine, legumes, fish, commercial pastries and nuts consumed), which scored from 0 to 14 points as described elsewhere (15). The third section was the GPAQ questionnaire,

which inquired about physical activity (at work, during free time, displacement and sitting time) (16). The Spanish version of the SF-36 questionnaire was self-administered (10).

A diet score based on some of the components of the above-mentioned MEDAS was built (Diet Score) to assess the adherence to assumed healthy Mediterranean patterns by measuring the consumption of relevant Mediterranean foods such as olive oil, fruits, vegetables, fish and red wine. Furthermore, physical activity was calculated as minutes per day performing the activity, highlighting in this way the importance of the duration of the exercise and not the frequency of it (17). A disease score (DRS) was also inflected, adding one point with the presence of each of the following conditions: prediabetes, obesity, hypercholesterolemia and hypertriglyceridemia.

ANTHROPOMETRIC AND BODY COMPOSITION

Waist and hip circumferences were estimated with a measuring tape and the blood pressure with a sphygmomanometer, by trained staff members following standardized protocols (18). Participants were also measured for height (cm), weight (kg), body mass index (BMI: kg/m^2) and also fat mass by bioimpedance using an appropriate manual (TBF-410GS, Tanita®, Tokyo, Japan). The degree of obesity was estimated based on the BMI, which allowed a classification of individuals according to their ponderal status as follows: underweight $< 18.5 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$; normal weight: 18.5 to $< 25 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$; overweight ≥ 25 to $< 30 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$; and obesity $\geq 30 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$.

BLOOD AND CLINICAL BIOMARKERS

To obtain biochemical data, blood samples were analyzed from each participant following routine protocols at the CUN, which is an international certified laboratory using the routine standard on the CUN. Data of the following variables were collected: total cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, glucose and triglycerides.

THE SF-36 QUESTIONNAIRE

The eight scales of the 36-item questionnaire were implemented: physical functioning, physical role limitation, pain, general health, vitality, social functioning, emotional role limitations and general health perception (10). The scales can be summarized into the mental health dimension and physical health dimension based on factor analysis to produce two scores scaled from 0 to 100 (high score indicating good health) as described elsewhere (19). Both dimensions together form a global health dimension. All the dimensions are hypothetically influenced by nutrition and lifestyle, and their measurement may depict the role of such factors in quality of life. In addition to these domains, there is a question, the number 36, about transition of health. For the quantitative

analyses of the total score, “global health” was dichotomized into “lower” (52.0 to 84.8 points) vs “higher” (84.8 to 99.0 points) global health, according to the median (10).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The percentages for categorical variables and mean and standard deviation (SD) for continuous variables were calculated. The initial analyses categorized QoL into two groups (low and high global health) according to the SF-36 median score. The distribution of variables was assessed through the Shapiro-Wilk test. Differences across categories were assessed with the Chi-squared test for categorical variables and the Student's *t* test or the Mann-Whitney U test for quantitative variables, as appropriate, depending on statistical normality.

Linear regression models were fitted with each of the three dimensions of the SF-36 (physical health, mental health, global health, and their corresponding domains) and the question 36 about the transition of health as dependent variables, and fat mass, leisure time physical activity (measured as minutes of physical activity per day), DRS and the proposed Diet Score as independent variables. Several potential confounders were included as covariates in the multivariable adjusted model: sex, age (years, continuous), family history of hypertension (yes/no), sadness (yes/no), leisure time physical activity (minutes/d, continuous), and adherence to a healthy diet (measured with the created score; continuous) and alcohol consumption (never, weekly and monthly).

We fitted a linear regression model to design a nutrimeter to calculate the predicted score of individuals according to their sex, age, fat mass, physical activity, presence of several diseases (assessed with the DRS) and adherence to a healthy diet (assessed with the built Diet Score). Based on this nutrimeter, we fitted a logistic regression model, using the categorized variable of QoL (higher vs lower global health) as dependent variable. We performed an analysis to assess the accuracy of this model using the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (area under the curve [AUC]; higher values of the AUC meaning better discriminating ability). In addition, we calculated the optimal ROC curve cut-off point using the Youden index (20), which resulted to be 0.46. This approach is used as a criterion for choosing the threshold value for which values of both sensitivity and specificity are maximized (21). We used this optimal cut-off point to classify participants into two nutritypes: mirrored low and high nutritional well-being and to quantitatively score a figure about nutritional status termed as nutrimeter. Additionally, age, fat mass, physical activity and adherence to a healthy dietary pattern was categorized by the median and the differences were studied according to the nutritional well-being score.

All analyses were performed using Stata version 12.1 (StataCorp, College Station, TX) statistical software, whose manual was followed to perform the statistical analyses. All *p* values presented are two-tailed; $p < 0.05$ was considered as statistically significant.

RESULTS

After categorizing (by the median) the participants according to the score obtained in the SF-36 questionnaire in two groups (low vs high global health), the participants discriminated as having higher global health (84.8-99.0 points), compared to those with lower global health (52.0-84.8 points), showed a statistically different ($p = 0.046$) percentage of fat mass. No significant differences were found in blood biomarkers or blood pressure between these two groups (Table I).

The higher global health group also reported lower frequency of being sad ($p = 0.005$) while participants in this “healthy” group devoted more hours per week to leisure ($p = 0.035$) and more minutes weekly to napping ($p = 0.002$) as estimation of active and sedentary attitudes. Although there were no statistically significant differences ($p = 0.117$) in terms of sports time and total quality of life, the trends were as expected, where those subjects in the higher global health group status were more active. There were differences ($p = 0.045$) between SF-36 groups in terms of alcohol consumption,

Table I. Baseline characteristics, body composition and some blood biomarkers of all the participants and classifying them by SF-36 of adults in the study

	All participants	Lower global health* (52.0-84.8 points)	Higher global health† (84.8-99.0 points)	<i>p-value</i>
Subjects (n)	102	51	51	<i>< 0.001</i>
SF-36 points	83.1 ± 9.7	76.2 ± 9.1	90.0 ± 3.6	
Sex (%)				0.421
Men	41.2	37.2	62.8	
Women	58.8	45.1	54.9	
Age (years)	38.47 ± 12.38	40.80 ± 12.53	36.14 ± 11.88	0.064
Weight (kg)	67.4 ± 13.4	66.7 ± 13.1	68.0 ± 13.8	0.197
Waist circumference (cm)	80.9 ± 11.9	81.8 ± 11.3	80.0 ± 12.4	0.358
Hip circumference (cm)	98.5 ± 6.9	98.2 ± 6.4	98.8 ± 7.4	0.660
Glucose (md/dl)	91.2 ± 8.1	90.6 ± 7.9	91.8 ± 8.3	0.498
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	180.9 ± 39.6	182.7 ± 38.7	179.1 ± 40.8	0.840
HDL cholesterol (mg/dl)	67.0 ± 16.4	64.9 ± 16.4	69.1 ± 16.4	0.208
LDL cholesterol (mg/dl)	98.9 ± 35.9	99.4 ± 33.9	98.5 ± 37.8	0.771
Triglycerides	74.5 ± 48.7	73.8 ± 41.4	75.2 ± 55.7	0.991
BMI‡ (kg/m²)	23.74 ± 3.5	23.9 ± 3.7	23.5 ± 3.5	0.367
Degree of obesity (%)				0.688
Low weight	5.9	7.8	3.9	
Normal weight	64.7	60.8	68.6	
Overweight type I	7.8	7.8	7.8	
Overweight type II	14.7	13.7	15.7	
Obese type I	6.9	9.8	3.9	
Fat mass (%)	23.8 ± 7.4	25.2 ± 7.2	22.3 ± 7.3	0.046
Pre-diabetes (%)	16.0	20.8	10.9	0.187
Arterial hypertension (%)	4.9	5.9	3.9	0.648
Systolic pressure (mm Hg)	117.6 ± 13.1	118.5 ± 14.8	116.6 ± 11.4	0.627
Diastolic pressure (mm Hg)	76 ± 8.7	76.9 ± 8.6	75.1 ± 8.8	0.294
Dyslipidemia (%)	7.84	11.8	3.9	0.141
Hypercholesterolemia (%)	23.5	21.6	25.5	0.641
Hypertriglyceridemia (%)	6.9	7.8	5.9	0.695
DRS§ (points)	0.4 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.8	0.4 ± 0.6	0.389

Values are means ± SD. Percentages may not total 100 because of rounding. Significant values are in italics. *Lower global health: the punctuation on the SF-36 that is between 52.0 and 84.8 points (lower than 50th percentile). †Higher global health: SF-36 points that are between 84.8 and 99.0 (higher than 50th percentile). ‡BMI: body mass index. Low weight was defined as a BMI of less than 18.5 kg/m². Normal weight was defined as a BMI between 18.5 kg/m² and 24.9 kg/m². Overweight type I was defined as a BMI between 25 kg/m² and 26.9 kg/m². Overweight type II was defined as a BMI between 27 kg/m² and 29.9 kg/m². Obese type I was defined as a BMI between 30 kg/m² and 34.9 kg/m². §DRS: diseases ratio score. Score that ranges between 0 to 4 depending on the presence (or not) of obesity, hypertension, dyslipidemia or prediabetes.

being higher in the participants who showed a higher global health score. Significant differences have also been found about when the main food is consumed ($p = 0.031$). In both groups, the main meal was at lunch time, but in the group of putative higher global health

there are more participants whose main meal is dinner. Participants classified in the group of higher global health tend more frequently to perceive their health to be better as compared to participants in the low global health group ($p = 0.086$) (Table II).

Table II. Physical activity, dietary habits, lifestyle factors, some blood biomarkers and SF-36 dimensions of all the participants and classifying them by SF-36 of adults in the study

	All participants	Lower global health* (52.0-84.8 points)	Higher global health† (84.8-99.0 points)	<i>p-value</i>
Subjects (n)	102	51	51	
Physical activity at work (min)	38.4 ± 104.4	53.3 ± 131.9	19.9 ± 49.9	0.848
Physical activity (min)	81.6 ± 74.1	70.1 ± 64.0	93.1 ± 82.1	0.117
Weekly leisure time (hr)	15.7 ± 11.0	14.7 ± 10.8	16.6 ± 11.1	<i>0.035</i>
Sleep time (hr)	7.0 ± 1.3	6.9 ± 1.3	7.0 ± 1.3	0.791
Nap‡ (%)	40.2	29.4	51.0	<i>0.026</i>
Nap time (min)	42.6 ± 76.7	23.6 ± 49.1	61.6 ± 93.5	<i>0.022</i>
Sitting time (hr)	6.7 ± 3.0	6.9 ± 3.0	6.5 ± 3.0	0.529
Sadness§ (%)	23.5	35.3	11.8	<i>0.005</i>
Tobacco (%)				0.757
Smoker	8.0	5.9	9.8	
Former smoker	23.0	23.5	21.6	
Non-smoker	71.0	70.6	68.6	
Health comparison¶ (%)				0.086
Better	24.0	17.7	29.4	
Equal	75.0	76.5	70.6	
Worst	3.0	5.9	0	
Alcohol (%)				<i>0.045</i>
Weekly	13.7	5.9	21.6	
Monthly	13.7	11.8	15.7	
Never	72.6	82.4	62.8	
Main meal (%)				<i>0.031</i>
Breakfast	6.9	3.9	9.8	
Lunch	82.4	92.2	72.6	
Dinner	10.8	3.9	17.7	
MEDAS* (points)	7.4 ± 1.9	7.6 ± 1.6	7.3 ± 2.2	0.515
Vegetables (at least 2 servings/day)	26.5	27.5	25.5	0.822
Fruit (at least 3 units/day)	29.4	23.5	35.3	0.192
Fish (at least 3 servings/week)	20.6	17.6	23.5	0.463
Red wine (at least 7 glasses/week)	10.8	13.7	7.8	0.338
Oil as main source of fat	97.1	96.1	98.0	0.558
Oil consume (at least 4 spoons/day)	94.1	98.0	90.2	0.092
Legumes (at least 3 serving/week)	17.6	25.5	9.8	<i>0.038</i>
Diet Score** (points)	2.6 ± 0.8	2.5 ± 0.8	2.7 ± 0.8	0.148
Physical health dimension	85.4 ± 10.6	76.2 ± 9.1	90.0 ± 3.6	< 0.001
Mental health dimension	80.8 ± 13.4	73.6 ± 15.3	88.1 ± 4.5	< 0.001
Global health dimension	83.1 ± 9.8	76.2 ± 9.1	90.0 ± 3.6	< 0.001
Transition of health	2.9 ± 0.7	3.1 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 0.1	< 0.001

Values are means ± SD. Percentages may not total 100 because of rounding. Significant values are in italics. *Lower global health: the punctuation on the SF-36 that is between 52.0 and 84.8 points (lower than 50th percentile). †Higher global health: SF-36 points that are between 84.8 and 99.0 (higher than 50th percentile). ‡Nap: time asleep after lunch, in the afternoon. §Sadness: percentage of people who have recently felt sad or depressed in the questionnaire. ¶How individuals compare their health to the health of individuals in their age range. *MEDAS: Mediterranean Diet Adherence Screener. **Diet Score: high consumption of vegetables, fruit and fish, low consumption of red wine and use of olive oil as main source of fat.

When nutritional and health factors that influence the QoL were assessed, a negative effect of fat mass on quality of life was found, especially in the domain of physical functioning ($p = 0.003$). Regarding the relationship between the DRS and QoL, no statistically significant differences were observed, although there were marginally significant trends within the physical functioning domain ($p = 0.075$). Conversely, a positive relationship was found between physical activity and QoL, both with the physical health dimension ($p = 0.013$) and with the global health dimension ($p = 0.013$). Also, marginal statistical relationships were established with some domains such as physical role limitation ($p = 0.095$), pain ($p = 0.059$) and social functioning ($p = 0.061$). Finally, a statistically positive significant association between a better adherence to a healthy diet and general health perception domain was evidenced ($p = 0.029$) as reported and illustrated (Table III). Associations of some SF-36 domains with fat mass (negative), physical activity (positive), a diet score (positive) and disease score (negative) are also depicted (Fig. 1).

The design of a nutrimeter considered participant's age and sex, fat mass, physical activity, DRS and adherence to a healthy diet assessed with the Diet Score. The nutritional well-being score ranged between 74.7 and 95.0 points (mean score: 86.0; SD: 4.5).

Taking into account some determinants of QoL, a logistic regression was performed to define (proto)nutritypes and design the nutrimeter. The analysis to assess the accuracy of the logistic regression model showed an AUC of 0.73, indicating that the model shows a fair accuracy to classify individuals in two new (proto)nutritype groups (Fig. 2).

The optimal cut off point value of the ROC curve, where both sensitivity and specificity values are maximized (73.3% and 68.8%, respectively), was 0.46, which corresponded to below and above 89.6 points of SF-36. Therefore, we classified participants into two (proto)nutritypes: mirrored low and high nutritional well-being. The equation to score the participants based on various factors was: nutritional well-being score = $86.044 - 0.137 * \text{age (years)} - 5.730 * \text{sex (men/women)} - 0.034 * \text{fat mass (\%)} + 0.023 * \text{physical activity (minutes/day)} + 2.025 * \text{hypertension (yes/no)} - 3.689 * \text{pre-diabetes (yes/no)} + 1.513 * \text{obesity (yes/no)} - 3.694 * \text{dyslipidemia (yes/no)} + 1.777 * \text{adherence to a healthy diet assessed with the above-mentioned Diet Score (points)}$.

The two groups across the different QoL dimensions according to their nutritional well-being scores that were classified in the mirrored high nutritional well-being nutritype showed significant higher scores for physical, mental and global health dimensions compared to participants in the mirrored low nutritional well-being nutritype (Fig. 3).

In addition, younger participants showed higher scores compared to older participants, and men had significantly higher scores than women. Also, participants with lower fat mass and higher adherence to a healthy dietary pattern showed higher scores in the nutritional well-being nutrimeter (Fig. 4).

Table III. Influence of fat mass, DRS, physical activity and diet score on all the domains and the transition of health question of the SF-36 questionnaire for measuring quality of life

Domains SF-36	Fat mass		DRS*		Physical activity		Diet score†	
	b (95% CI)	p-value	β (95% CI)	p-value	β (95% CI)	p-value	β (95% CI)	p-value
Physical health dimension	0.076 (-0.279/0.430)	0.672	0.373 (-2.022/2.768)	2.768	0.034 (0.007/0.061)	0.013	1.629 (-0.778/4.036)	0.182
Physical functioning	-0.393 (-0.648/-0.139)	0.003	-1.604 (-3.374/0.167)	0.075	0.015 (-0.006/0.035)	0.155	-0.336 (-2.145/1.474)	0.713
Physical role limitation	0.412 (-0.298/1.123)	0.252	1.307 (-3.507/6.122)	0.591	0.046 (-0.008/0.100)	0.095	3.326 (-1.519/8.170)	0.176
Pain	0.330 (-0.446/1.106)	0.400	1.941 (-3.335/7.217)	0.467	0.057 (-0.002/0.117)	0.059	-0.062 (-5.377/5.254)	0.982
General health perception	-0.045 (-0.520/0.429)	0.850	-0.152 (-3.349/3.045)	0.925	0.019 (-0.017/0.055)	0.287	3.586 (0.375/6.798)	0.029
Mental health dimension	-0.311 (-0.678/0.056)	0.095	-0.529 (-3.059/2.001)	0.679	0.021 (-0.008/0.049)	0.150	-0.527 (-3.071/2.017)	0.682
Emotional role limitation	-0.437 (-1.326/0.451)	0.331	0.096 (-5.941/6.133)	0.975	0.015 (-0.053/0.083)	0.662	-0.873 (-6.937/5.192)	0.776
Mental health	-0.198 (-0.542/0.145)	0.255	-0.345 (-2.680/1.989)	0.770	0.006 (-0.020/0.032)	0.660	-1.063 (-3.410/1.283)	0.370
Vitality	-0.194 (-0.593/0.205)	0.337	-0.323 (-3.074/2.429)	0.816	0.025 (-0.006/0.056)	0.116	0.533 (-2.232/3.297)	0.703
Social functioning	-0.415 (-0.929/0.098)	0.111	-1.543 (-5.041/1.954)	0.383	0.038 (-0.002/0.077)	0.061	-0.705 (-4.233/2.823)	0.692
Global health dimension	-0.118 (-0.400/0.164)	0.409	-0.078 (-2.000/1.845)	0.936	0.028 (0.006/0.049)	0.013	0.551 (-1.381/2.482)	0.573
Transition of health	-0.012 (-0.035/0.010)	0.277	-0.056 (-0.209/0.096)	0.466	-0.001 (-0.003/0.001)	0.305	-0.069 (-0.222/0.085)	0.378

Significant values are in italics. The dependent variables are on the horizontal axis and the independent variables on the vertical axis. All the independent variables are adjusted by sex, age, family history of hypertension, sadness, physical activity, diet score and alcohol consumption. *DRS: score that ranges from 0 to 4 depending on the presence of pre-diabetes, obesity, hypercholesterolemia and hypertriglyceridemia. †Diet Score: score that ranges between 0 to 5. Scores positively the high consumption of vegetables, fruit and fish, low consumption of red wine and use of olive oil as main source of fat. CI: confidence intervals.

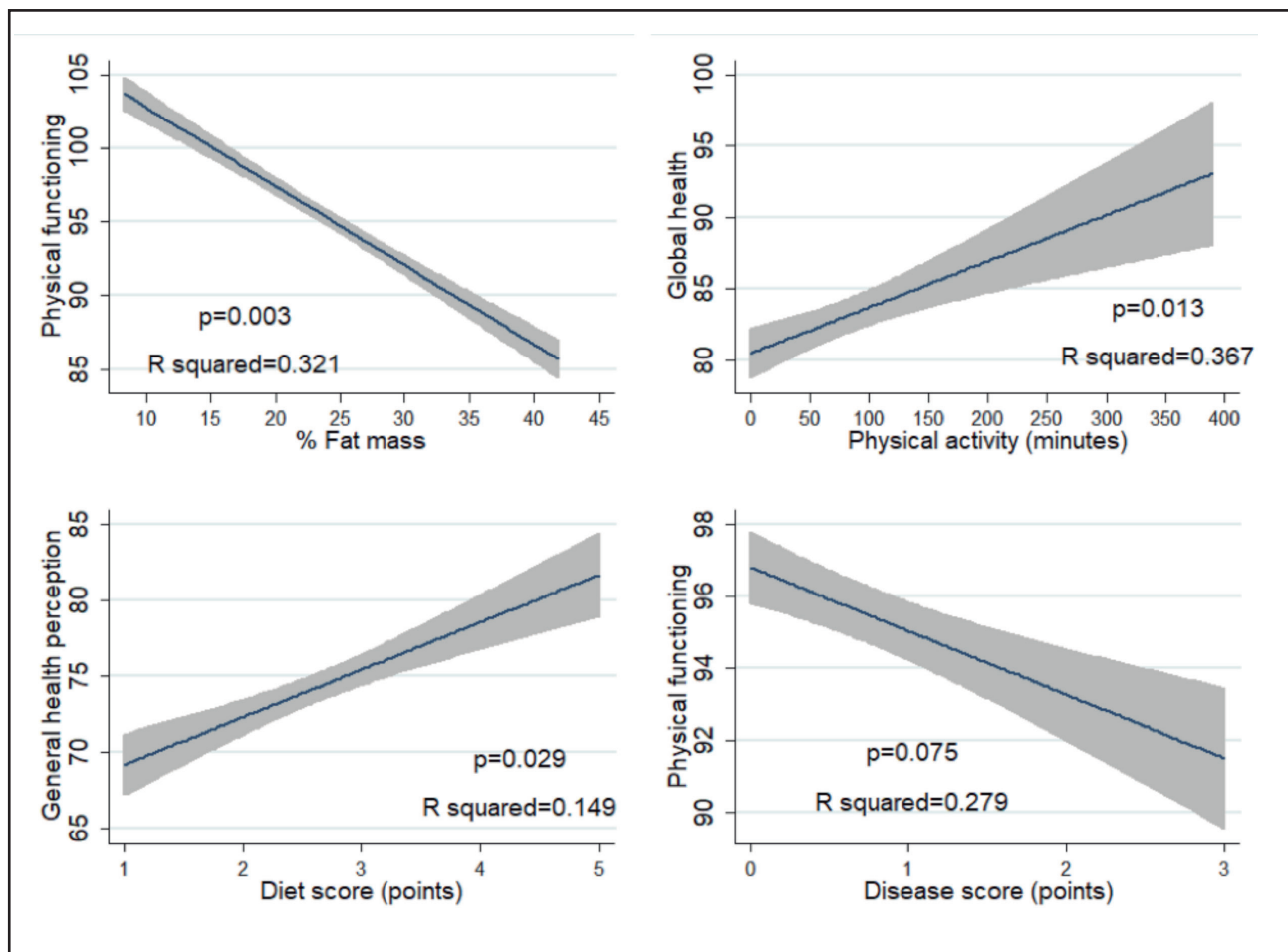


Figure 1.

Linear regression between quality of life dimensions and fat mass, physical activity, adherence to a healthy dietary pattern and DRS once adjusted by sex, age, family history of hypertension, sadness, physical activity, diet score and alcohol consumption.

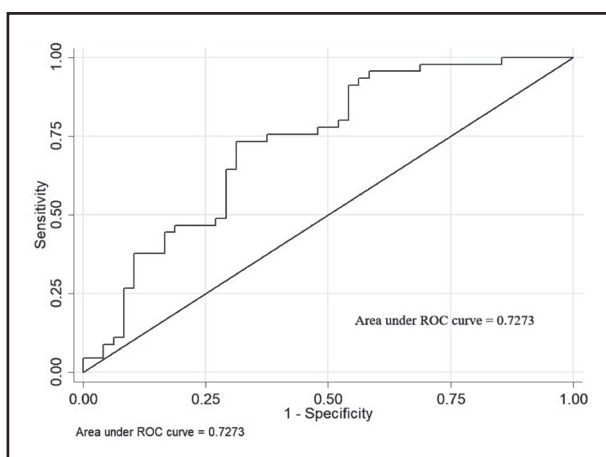


Figure 2.

Logistic regression model ROC curve.
Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis that defined (proto)nutritypes.

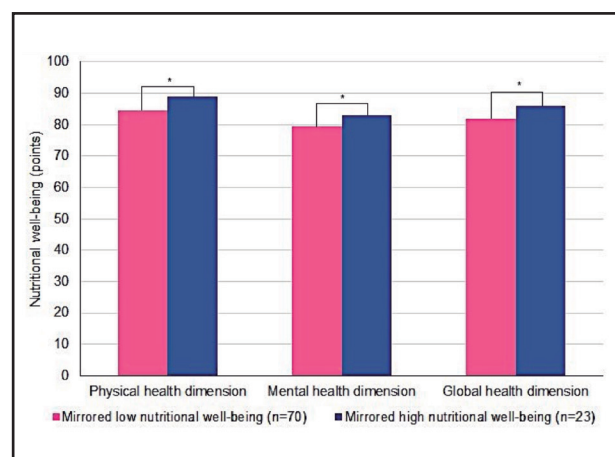


Figure 3.

Differences between mirror low and high nutritional well-being (categorized according to the optimal ROC curve cut off point, which corresponded to below and above 89.6 points) across quality of life dimensions. $*p < 0.01$.

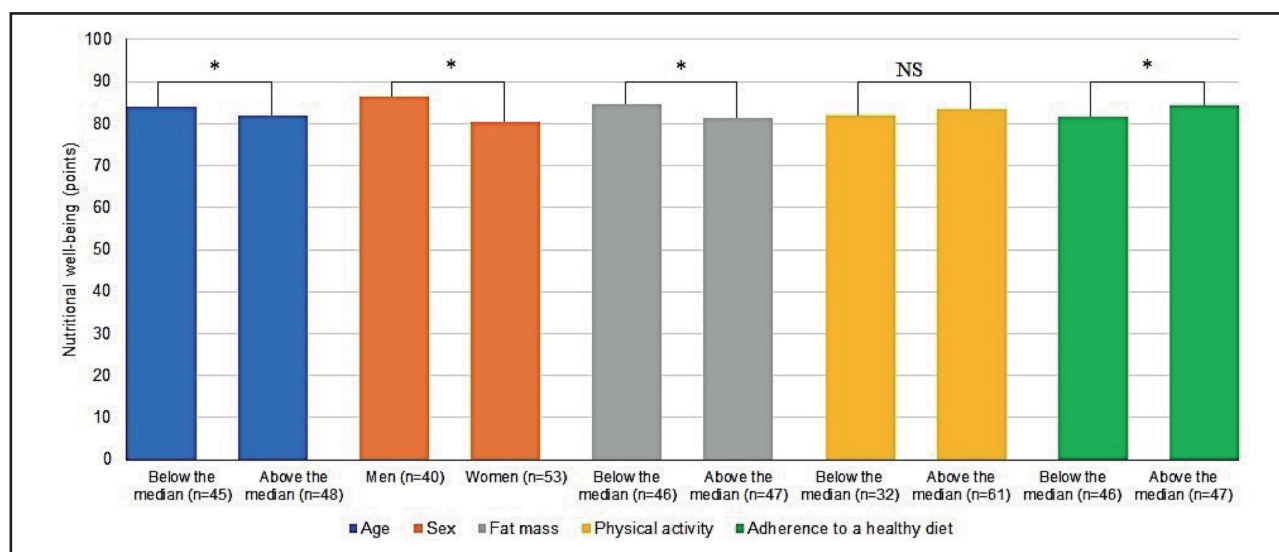


Figure 4.

Differences in age, sex, fat mass, physical activity and adherence to a healthy dietary pattern according to the nutritional well-being score. * $p < 0.01$. NS: non-significant.

DISCUSSION

According to the WHO criteria, the HRQoL emphasize the need to assess vital estimators on people taking into account the subjective perceptions of the individual and associated capacities to live a useful and full life (22). The objective of this cross-sectional study was to identify the impacts of nutritional/personal inputs in addition to sex/age such as the phenotype and different lifestyle factors, on the QoL on an apparently healthy working population, and to define two nutritypes and design a nutrimeter score. The results revealed that quality of life measured with the SF-36 questionnaire is associated with several lifestyle and personal factors such as physical activity, fat mass, several dietary patterns and several diagnosed disease statuses, which were analyzed to qualitative describe two nutritypes (low nutritional well-being vs high nutritional well-being), as well as to design a quantitative nutritional well-being mirror or score which produces a nutrimeter of nutritional well-being.

There are some studies that demonstrate the negative relationship between waist circumference and BMI with quality of life (23). However, there are fewer investigations that relate the quality of life with the percentage of fat mass. Becerra et al. (2013) evidenced that there is an association between a healthier fat mass profile and more positive assessments of quality of life (24). Higher body fat mass percentage predicted lower quality of life in our study, results that are similar to those obtained by Morrison et al. (2014) in a comparable cross-sectional study (25). Furthermore, Molarius et al. (2006) emphasized the importance of obesity in quality of life, establishing an association between these factors (26), where obesity predicted lower quality of life as Girón (2010) showed in his study (27). In addition, in the Mediterranean SUN cohort, greater adherence to a Mediterranean dietary pattern and lower BMI was found associated with better QoL (28).

Using the SF-36, Barcones Molero et al. (2018) examined the negative impact of obesity in health-related quality of life, which was greater on the physical dimension than on the mental dimension (29). In our analyses, relevant results were observed in the physical health dimension, which suggests that there is greater sensitivity for fat mass as well as for DRS, diet score and physical activity. No significant associations were found between BMI and QoL, albeit a trend was suggested. An inverse statistically significant association between fat mass and QoL was observed. This finding suggest that fat mass may be a better predictor of QoL than BMI.

Furthermore, the reported results suggest that those who self-declared less frequently being sad had a better quality of life, consistent with the results of Gaynes et al. (2002), who demonstrated that depression is associated with decrements to QoL (30). Our study also found a relationship between the main meal eaten and QoL. In 2018, Ferrer-Cascales et al. reported that breakfast can potentially affect mental health in several ways (31). In this line, they established that those participants who make a greater quality breakfast had a better quality of life compared to those who had a poorer breakfast or skipped it. Our results show an inverse trend between the presence of a chronic disease (assessed with the DRS) and the subcategory of physical functioning. When any of the diseases were present, QoL decreased in our analyses, in agreement with other studies (32).

The relation between physical activity and QoL has been consistently described (34-36). Thus, Sánchez-Villegas et al. (2012) found a direct association between them (33), while Piko et al. (2000) evidenced a positive correlation between physical activity and self-perceived health (34). A study by Darviri et al. (2011) reported that poor self-rated health was associated with less physical activity (35). In a clinical trial that studied the influence of physical activity and mental health, Sánchez-Villegas et al. (2008)

reported an association between physical activity and sedentary behavior on the incidence of mental disorders (36). In contrast, Brown et al. (2004) suggested that participation in moderate or vigorous physical activity every day of the week or for an extended period is associated with lower HRQoL (37), which affects that physical activity criteria. Our findings showed that longer bouts of physical activity were positively associated with QoL, in agreement with previous evidence. Casals et al. (2017) found a general relation between practicing physical activity and QoL in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (38).

The results presented in this study suggest a relation between a healthy nutritional dietary pattern and QoL. Participants who reported a greater adherence to a healthy eating pattern (assessed with the built Diet Score) showed better self-perception of their health. These findings are consistent with the study by Henríquez-Sánchez et al. (2011), who reported a significant association between better adherence to the Mediterranean diet and several dimensions of physical and mental QoL (28). Furthermore, Sayón-Orea et al. (2018) evidenced that a higher consumption of fruits, vegetables and fish were associated with better health perception (39), which is in accordance with our findings. Furthermore, Galilea-Zabalza et al. (2018) found a positive association between adherence to the Mediterranean diet and quality of life (40).

In the present study, a valuable outcome was to design an objective tool for qualitatively categorizing subjects on two nutritypes of nutritional well-being based on subjective QoL items. Indeed, this approach allowed to classify our population in two (proto)nutritypes (mirrored low and high nutritional well-being) and study differences in the nutritional status across them. Moreover, this research devised an equation that produces quantitative values to compute the nutritional status through a nutrimeter, which was also used to further discriminate two categories or nutritypes based on age, sex, percentage of fat mass, diseases, adherence to a healthy diet and minutes of physical activity. A cut off point of 89.6 points was considered to discriminate mirrored low/high nutritional well-being.

The main strength of the present study is that most of the questionnaires have been designed and evaluated by the same

researcher, who has subsequently administered them and was responsible of creating the database, which reduces bias due to misinterpretation of the questions or confusion. One limitation of the study is the restricted generalizability of our findings. Our study sample consisted of healthy people who were selected based on interest and values. Second, information about diseases, physical activity and dietary habits was retrieved based on self-reported information, and reporting bias should not be discarded, but all values that qualitative data are used for categorizing individual nutritional status. Third, there may be a social desirability bias as participants may tend to answer in a more socially accepted way, e.g., participants may have reported higher engagement on physical activity. Fourth, the sample size of the study corresponded to a pilot study, and therefore the statistical power is limited. However, despite the small study sample, our findings showed some clear trends although type I (a-risk) or type II (b-risk) errors cannot be discarded. Finally, these exploratory analyses enlightened that higher fat mass had detrimental effects on mirrored nutritional well-being (as a proxy of QoL), whilst increased physical activity levels, better adherence to a healthy dietary pattern and the absence of chronic diseases are related to a better nutritional well-being and higher nutrimeter values.

In summary, based on the results of this study, we can conclude that some lifestyle related factors, such as physical activity and adherence to a healthy diet, are associated with better self-reported QoL in addition to body composition and lack of chronic diseases. Moreover, participants classified as high nutritional well-being with the novel (proto)nutritype showed higher scores in a newly designed nutrimeter that considered nutritional and lifestyle factors. These findings remark the importance of these factors in relation to quality of life.

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Annex 1. Cuestionario de estilo de vida

Nombre y apellidos:	
Sexo: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer	Fecha de nacimiento: ____/____/____
Edad:	Número historia clínica:

PREGUNTAS GENERALES	
¿Cómo consideraría su salud en comparación con la gente de su edad?	Mejor ☐ Igual ☐ Peor ☐
¿Ha sido diagnosticado o actualmente está en tratamiento de diabetes?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Ha sido diagnosticado o actualmente está en tratamiento de hipertensión arterial?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Ha sido diagnosticado o actualmente está en tratamiento de dislipemia?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Algún miembro de su familia ha sido diagnosticado de alguna de las siguientes enfermedades?	☐ Diabetes ☐ Hipertensión arterial ☐ Dislipemia ☐ Obesidad
Últimamente, ¿se ha sentido triste, desanimado, bajo de ánimo o deprimido?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Ha sido diagnosticado de depresión?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Cuántas horas semanales realiza su actividad profesional?	horas
¿Cuántas horas considera que dedica semanalmente al ocio?	horas
¿Duerme usted la siesta?	☐ Sí ☐ No
En caso afirmativo, ¿cuántas horas a la semana?	horas
¿Cuántas horas calcula que duerme diariamente por las noches?	horas
¿Consume alcohol en forma de bebidas de alta graduación? (excluidos vino, sidra y cerveza)	☐ Sí ☐ No
En caso afirmativo, ¿cuántas copas/vasos a la semana?	copas/vasos
¿Es usted fumador?	Sí ☐ No ☐ Exfumador ☐
En caso afirmativo, ¿cuántos años hace que fuma? En caso de exfumador, ¿cuántos años estuvo fumando?	años
En caso afirmativo o de ser exfumador, ¿cuántos cigarrillos consume/consumía al día?	cigarrillos
¿Qué número de comidas realiza al día?	comidas
De todas las comidas que realiza, ¿cuál es la principal?	
¿Qué número de comidas (almuerzo) realiza fuera de casa semanalmente? (excluyendo las cenas)	comidas
En caso afirmativo, ¿se trae la comida de casa?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Suele picotear o realizar consumo de algún alimento entre horas?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Cuántos vasos de agua consume al día?	vasos
¿Consume sal en la mesa?	☐ Sí ☐ No
¿Cómo de hambriento se encuentra ahora mismo?	Nada _____ Extremadamente hora
¿Cómo de saciado se encuentra ahora mismo?	Nada _____ Extremadamente
¿Cómo de grande es su deseo de comer ahora mismo?	Nada _____ Extremadamente

EJERCICIO FÍSICO	
En el trabajo	
1. ¿Exige su trabajo una actividad física intensa que implica una aceleración importante de la respiración o del ritmo cardíaco (como levantar pesos, cavar o trabajos de construcción) durante al menos 10 minutos consecutivos?	☐ Sí ☐ No (saltar a la 4)
2. En una semana típica, ¿cuántos días realiza usted actividades físicas intensas en su trabajo?	días
3. En uno de esos días en los que realiza actividades físicas intensas, ¿cuánto tiempo suele dedicar a esas actividades?	Horas: Minutos:
4. ¿Exige su trabajo una actividad de intensidad moderada que implica una ligera aceleración de la respiración o del ritmo cardíaco, como caminar deprisa (o transportar pesos ligeros) durante al menos 10 minutos consecutivos?	☐ Sí ☐ No (saltar a la 7)

(Continuation in the next page)

Annex 1 (Cont.). Cuestionario de estilo de vida

EJERCICIO FÍSICO (Cont.)	
En el trabajo (cont.)	
5. En una semana típica, ¿cuántos días realiza usted actividades físicas intensas en su trabajo?	días
6. En uno de esos días en los que realiza actividades físicas intensas, ¿cuánto tiempo suele dedicar a esas actividades?	Horas: Minutos:
Para desplazarse	
7. ¿Camina usted o usa usted una bicicleta al menos 10 minutos consecutivos en sus desplazamientos?	☐ Sí ☐ No (saltar a la 10)
8. En una semana típica, ¿cuántos días camina o va en bicicleta al menos 10 minutos consecutivos en sus desplazamientos?	días
9. En un día típico, ¿cuánto tiempo pasa caminando o yendo en bicicleta para desplazarse?	Horas: Minutos:
En el tiempo libre	
10. En su tiempo libre, ¿practica usted deportes/fitness intensos que implican una aceleración importante de la respiración o del ritmo cardiaco (como correr, footing, aeróbic, natación rápida, jugar al fútbol o baloncesto, desplazamiento de cargas pesadas, GAP, esgrima, volleyball, surf, etc.) durante al menos 10 minutos consecutivos?	☐ Sí ☐ No (saltar a la 13)
11. En una semana típica, ¿cuántos días practica usted deportes/fitness intensos en su tiempo libre?	días
12. En uno de esos días en los que practica deportes/fitness intensos, ¿cuánto tiempo suele dedicar a esas actividades?	Horas: Minutos:
13. En su tiempo libre, ¿practica usted alguna actividad de intensidad moderada que implica una ligera aceleración de la respiración o del ritmo cardiaco (como caminar deprisa, ir en bicicleta, caminar a paso rápido, bailar, caza, tareas domésticas, jardinería, patinaje, pesca, etc.) durante al menos 10 minutos consecutivos?	☐ Sí ☐ No (saltar a la 16)
14. En una semana típica, ¿cuántos días practica usted actividades físicas de intensidad moderada en su tiempo libre?	días
15. En uno de esos días en los que practica actividades físicas de intensidad moderada, ¿cuánto tiempo suele dedicar a esas actividades?	Horas: Minutos:
Comportamiento sedentario	
16. ¿Cuánto tiempo suele pasar sentado o recostado en un día típico?	Horas: Minutos:

DIETA		
1. ¿Usa usted el aceite de oliva como principal grasa para cocinar?	Sí = 1 punto	
2. ¿Cuánto aceite de oliva consume en total al día (incluyendo el usado para freír, comidas fuera de casa, ensaladas, etc.)?	4 o más cucharadas = 1 punto	
3. ¿Cuántas raciones de verdura u hortaliza consume al día? (las guarniciones o acompañamientos = ½ ración) 1 ración = 200 g	2 o más (al menos una de ellas en ensalada o crudas) = 1 punto	
4. ¿Cuántas piezas de fruta (incluyendo zumo natural) consume al día?	3 o más al día = 1 punto	
5. ¿Cuántas raciones de carnes rojas, hamburguesas, salchichas o embutidos consume al día? (ración: 100-150 g)	Menos de 1 al día = 1 punto	
6. ¿Cuántas raciones de mantequilla, margarina o nata consume al día? (porción individual: 12 g)	Menos de 1 al día = 1 punto	
7. ¿Cuántas bebidas carbonatadas y/o azucaradas (refrescos, colas, tónicas, bitter) consume al día?	Menos de 1 al día = 1 punto	
8. ¿Bebe usted vino? ¿Cuánto consume a la semana?	7 o más vasos a la semana = 1 punto	
9. ¿Cuántas raciones de legumbres consume a la semana? (1 plato o ración de 150 g)	3 o más a la semana = 1 punto	
10. ¿Cuántas raciones de pescado-marisco consume a la semana? (1 plato, pieza o ración: 100-150 g de pescado o 4-5 piezas o 200 g de marisco)	3 o más a la semana = 1 punto	
11. ¿Cuántas veces consume repostería comercial (no casera) como galletas, flanes, dulce o pasteles a la semana? (ración 30 g)	Menos de 2 a la semana = 1 punto	

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Annex 1 (Cont.). Cuestionario de estilo de vida

DIETA (Cont.)		
12. ¿Cuántas veces consume frutos secos a la semana? (ración 30 g)	3 o más a la semana = 1 punto	
13. ¿Consume usted preferentemente carne de pollo, pavo o conejo en vez de ternera, cerdo, hamburguesas o salchichas? (carne de pollo: 1 pieza o ración de 100-150 g)	Sí = 1 punto	
14. ¿Cuántas veces a la semana consume los vegetales cocinados, pasta, arroz u otros platos aderezados con salsa de tomate, ajo, cebolla o puerro elaborada a fuego lento con aceite de oliva (sofrito)?	2 o más a la semana = 1 punto	

A RELLENAR POR EL PERSONAL SANITARIO

Peso (kg):	Grado de obesidad:	Masa ósea (kg):
Altura (cm):	% Grasa corporal (%):	Agua corporal (kg):
Perímetro cintura (cm):	Masa grasa (kg):	% Agua corporal (%):
Perímetro cadera (cm):	% Grasa visceral (%):	Edad metabólica (años):
IMC (kg/m ²):	Músculo (kg):	Presión arterial (mm Hg):
Glucosa (mg/dl):	Creatinina (mg/dl):	Eosinófilos (%):
HDL colesterol (mg/dl):	Ácido úrico (mg/dl):	Basófilos (%):
LDL colesterol (mg/dl):	Eritrocitos (mil./mm ³):	Linfocitos (%):
Triglicéridos (mg/dl):	Hematocrito (%):	Monocitos (%):
PCR (mg/dl):	Hemoglobina (g/dl):	Plaquetas (mil./mm ³):
GOT (UI/l):	Leucocitos (mil./mm ³):	
GPT (UI/l):	Neutrófilos (%):	

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Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Validated questionnaire to assess the hydration status in a healthy adult Spanish population: a cross sectional study

Validación de un cuestionario para evaluar el estado de hidratación de una población adulta sana española: un estudio transversal

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Abstract

Introduction: adequate hydration status is crucial in most physiological functions; conversely, its assessment is hindered by the limited availability of research tools.

Objective: to develop and validate a novel questionnaire that evaluates the hydration status of a healthy adult Spanish population.

Method: a novel questionnaire was designed and validated relying on biochemical parameters related to blood, urine, and body water content. The study involved 39 healthy subjects aged between 18 and 39 years. Food and beverage consumption were assessed by the novel questionnaire and through a three-day dietary record. Physical activity was assessed using both: accelerometers and the Short International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ). Validity was determined by correlation of the aforementioned parameters with the water balance and water intake obtained by the novel questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered twice over the course of 28 days to evaluate its reliability.

Results: water balance and total water intake were correlated with specific gravity, and urine color. Water intake obtained by the novel questionnaire was correlated with water intake results from the three-day dietary record. Intraclass correlation coefficient indicated moderate concordance between both recordings, and the Cronbach's alpha revealed high consistency. Finally, the Bland and Altman method indicated that the limits of agreement were acceptable to reveal the reliability of the estimated measures.

Conclusions: the questionnaire designed is a new valid and reliable screening tool to estimate hydration status of adult populations in dietary and nutritional assessment.

Key words:

Hydration status.
Water balance.
Questionnaire.
Validation.

Resumen

Introducción: un estado hídrico adecuado es crucial para la mayoría de funciones fisiológicas; sin embargo, su evaluación se encuentra obstaculizada por la escasez de herramientas de diagnóstico e investigación.

Objetivos: desarrollar y validar un cuestionario que permita evaluar el estado hídrico de población española adulta sana.

Métodos: un nuevo cuestionario ha sido diseñado y validado a través de parámetros bioquímicos en orina y sangre y contenido en agua corporal. El estudio incluyó finalmente a 39 sujetos sanos con edades comprendidas entre 18 y 39 años. El consumo de alimentos y bebidas se evaluó empleando el nuevo cuestionario y un diario dietéticos de tres días. La actividad física fue estimada a través de acelerometría y con el Cuestionario Internacional de Actividad Física (IPAQ). La validez se determinó analizando la correlación de los parámetros citados, con el balance y con la ingesta hídrica. El cuestionario fue administrado por duplicado, con un transcurso de 28 días entre ambas cumplimentaciones para evaluar su reproducibilidad.

Resultados: el balance y la ingesta hídrica se correlacionaron con la gravedad específica y con el color de la orina. La ingesta hídrica se correlacionó con los resultados procedentes del diario dietético. Según el coeficiente de correlación intraclase, la concordancia entre ambas cumplimentaciones fue moderada y el alfa de Cronbach indicó consistencia elevada. El método Bland-Altman mostró que los límites de confianza eran aceptables para revelar la reproducibilidad de las medidas estimadas.

Conclusiones: el cuestionario diseñado constituye una herramienta de cribado válida y fiable para estimar el estado hídrico de población adulta sana.

Palabras clave:

Estado de
hidratación. Balance
hídrico. Cuestionario.
Validación.

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INTRODUCTION

Water is a major component of the human body and it is involved in practically all functions of our organism playing a crucial role in life and health (1). It must be obtained externally through the consumption of foods and beverages because there is no real water storage in the body and the amount lost in metabolism exceeds the amount synthesized endogenously (1,2). Despite this, water consumption is often forgotten in dietary recommendations and the importance of adequate hydration is not usually mentioned (1).

Hydration status (HS) is defined as the body's fluid level and is determined by water balance (WB) (net difference between water input and output) (2). It is influenced by dietary intake, physical activity level, age, and environmental conditions amongst others, and its regulation is very precise, as loss of 1% of body water is usually compensated within 24 hours. Under conditions of temperate ambient temperature (18–20 °C) and with a moderate activity level, WB remains relatively constant; nevertheless, water deficit as well as water excess can occur (2). In this context, it is important to mention that even small losses of body water can have negative effects in health: reductions in the subjective perception of alertness, ability to concentrate, disruption in mood, cognitive functioning, increase of tiredness and headache, as well as a decrease in performance capacity, between others (3). To keep an adequate WB, individuals are recommended to comply with reference values of total water intake (WI) (3,4). These reference values are largely based on observational studies of total WI conducted in healthy individuals and the estimation of WB. However, the established reference values vary considerably, which can be partly explained by differences in the methodology used to estimate fluid intake and/or losses (5). In addition, in recent years it has been shown that an important portion of the population does not hydrate properly, which potentially could lead to higher hypohydration prevalence (6). In Spain, results from the nationwide representative ANIBES study ($n = 2,285$) showed that more than 75% of individuals were not meeting the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) WI recommendations (7).

The lack of suitable research tools designed to estimate the HS (8,9), coupled with the lack of consensus about the best method to evaluate WI (10), constitutes one of the most important limitations in the field of hydration. This is mainly due to the complexity involved in its assessment: there is no "gold standard" and techniques and methods available are expensive, invasive and/or complicated, making it impossible to apply them at the population level (8,9).

For all the aforementioned, developing suitable methodologies which evaluate HS is of key interest. Given its simplicity and cost-effectiveness, questionnaires could be useful both, in the field of research and in the clinical and community practices. The objective of the present study was to develop a novel questionnaire to evaluate the HS of a healthy adult Spanish population.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

In this cross sectional study, a novel questionnaire entitled The Hydration Status Questionnaire (HSQ) (Supplementary file 1; [http://](http://ediciones.grupoaran.com/revistanutricion/Supplementary_file_2533.pdf)

ediciones.grupoaran.com/revistanutricion/Supplementary_file_2533.pdf) was developed and validated. Ethical approval was granted by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of the CEU San Pablo University (Madrid). The study has been performed in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki of 1964 and its later amendments. Participants signed an informed consent prior to their inclusion in the study. All personal data are confidential and only investigators assigned to the project have access to them. In any case, it complies with the Law 15/1999 of 13th December, of Personal Data Protection.

DESIGN OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

After thorough research (2,4,10–12), the main factors that affect HS were included in the questionnaire and compiled into five items: a) personal information; b) medical history; c) hydration habits and knowledge; d) water, beverages and food frequency questionnaire (WBFFQ); and e) water elimination (WE). This information allows for the assessment of the profile of the interviewee and the estimation of WB.

Water input was recorded through the WBFFQ. For its development, beverages and foods with water content higher than 75% were selected from the Spanish Food Composition Tables (13) and classified into 12 groups: (d.1) water; (d.2) juices; (d.3) milk and dairy products; (d.4) sodas; (d.5) coffees; (d.6) tea and infusions; (d.7) alcoholic beverages; (d.8) other beverages (alcohol free beer, energy drinks, sorbets, jellies and sports drinks); (d.9) others (plant-based beverages, *horchata* and meal replacement drinks); (d.10) fruits; (d.11) vegetables; and (d.12) cooked dishes. The amount, frequency and time of consumption were recorded, and the seasonality of foods and beverages, which are predominant at a specific time of the year, were taken into account. To assess serving sizes, different household measures were used. The frequency of consumption was evaluated using four categories: a) never; b) per month; c) per week; and (d) daily. Eating occasions were recorded as "before breakfast", "at breakfast", "in the morning", "at lunch", "in the afternoon", "at dinner" and "at night".

To estimate water output three elimination pathways were taken into account (skin, kidneys and digestive system). Urination and defecation were recorded on the basis of frequency (urination options: once/day, two-four times/day, five-seven times/day, eight-ten times/day and more than ten times/day; defecation options: once/day, five-six times/week, three-four times/week, one-two times/week or less than one time/each ten days) (14). To calculate WE from sweating, a ten-point scale was used for both, physical activity and sedentary conditions (14). To assess physical activity, two different approaches were used: the short International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ-S) (15) and accelerometry by ActiGraph GT3X™ model accelerometer.

QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYSIS

The water content from beverages and foods was calculated using the Spanish Food Composition Tables by Moreiras et al. (13). The amount of water from drinking water, beverages and foods were calculated separately and expressed as milliliters of WI per

day. Water provided by each beverage was calculated according to the following formula: milliliters of beverage consumed per day * duration of its seasonality in days/365 * water content/100. Water from foods was calculated in the same way but also taking into account the edible portion. To calculate WE from sweating in sedentary conditions, the ten-point scale described before was used. The duration in hours per day of this condition was multiplied with a factor to quantify WE; this factor depends of the score that the participant gave for sweating in the scale (i.e., point 1 corresponded to 0.01 ml water/h and point 10 to 0.02 ml/h), in-between values varying in a proportional manner. The WE from sweating during exercise was also estimated using the ten-point scale. The duration and intensity level of the physical activity performed during three consecutive days were estimated by accelerometers. The duration of physical activity in hours was multiplied with a factor that depends on the score given in the scale and on the activity intensity level: for intense exercise, point 1 corresponded to 1,000 ml water/h and point 2 to 2,000 ml/h; for moderate exercise, point 1 corresponded to 400 ml/h and point 10 to 700 ml/h; and for mild exercise, point 1 corresponded to 200 ml/h and point 10 to 400 ml/h (16,17). In-between values varied in a proportional manner. To estimate WE from urination and defecation, participants had five frequency options in both cases. These options were transformed into a five-point scale, in which the first option (once/day) corresponded to point 1 and the last one (more than ten times/day or one time/ten days) corresponded to point 5. For urination, point 1 corresponded to 750 ml water/day and point 5 to 2,500 ml water/day (4,17). For defecation, point 1 corresponded to 150 ml water/day and point 5 to 75 ml water/day (17,18). In-between values varied in an analogous manner. WB was defined as the difference between total WI and total WE.

QUESTIONNAIRE VALIDATION

The study took place from October to December 2015 in the Montepríncipe Campus of CEU San Pablo University (Madrid, Spain). Participants were recruited at the University premises by informative talks and posters. The inclusion criteria were: individuals who were a) mentally and physically healthy; and b) aged 18-39 years. Exclusion criteria were suffering from diseases related to HS, and/or women who were menstruating during the study. Finally, 40 healthy volunteers participated in the validation process. This sample size is in line with the Nunnally criterion (19), which recommends a ratio of minimum five participants for each item of the questionnaire.

The validity study took place through the use of several biomarkers, most of them acknowledged as important biological indicators of HS (20-22): urine specific gravity (USG) and urine color (UC), plasma hemoglobin and hematocrit in blood and total body water (TBW). To validate the WBFFQ included in the questionnaire, results derived from it were compared with water consumption from a three-day dietary record (3DR). In addition, hemodynamic data (pulse, systolic blood pressure [SBP] and diastolic blood pressure [DBP]) were collected (23). For the reliability study, participants completed the questionnaire twice over the course of 28 days. The validation process was performed under similar weather conditions in the same laboratory of the University.

VALIDATION PROTOCOL

Each volunteer's first visit was preceded by a short explanation on the procedures involved in the validation process and its protocol (Fig. 1).

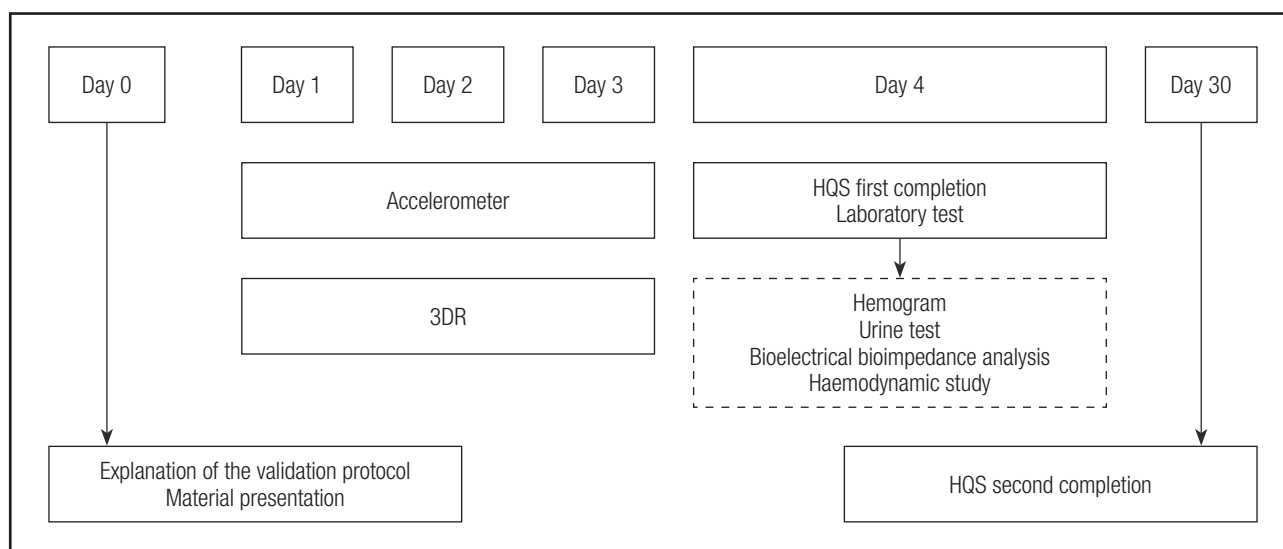


Figure 1.

Protocol of the validation process.

Participants completed a 3DR over the course of three consecutive days (one weekend and two weekdays) in which they were asked to give detailed descriptions of each food and beverage item consumed, providing them previously with clear instructions on how to fill in it. Subjects were also instructed to follow their usual diet. The DIAL™ software (24) was used to process the information of the 3DR. During these three days, individuals also wore an accelerometer that estimated their physical activity. The fourth day of the study, participants completed the HSQ and the following laboratory tests and measurements were performed under fasting conditions:

- *Hematological variables:* hemoglobin, hematocrit and erythrocyte were determined by capillary finger-stick whole blood with Calligari™ Analyzer.
- *Body composition:* TBW and water percentage was estimated by bioelectrical bioimpedance analysis (BIA) with Bioscan Spectrum™ Multifrequency. Individuals were weighed using a digital scale with an accuracy of 200 g (Seca™ 877). Height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a wall-mounted stadiometer (Seca™ 213). The anthropometric measurements were made according to the recommendations of the International Standards for Anthropometric Assessment (ISAK) (25) by level I and II accredited anthropometrists.
- *Urine variables:* volunteers provided a first morning urine sample in which urine pH and USG was determined through the use of urine stick test Spinreact™ and UC via the urine color chart (26). Results were compared with reference values of hydration biomarkers in first urine morning spot established by Lawrence E et al. (27) (euhydration: specific gravity = 1.023-1.025, urine color = 4-5).
- *Hemodynamic variables:* pulse, SBP and DBP were determined using a digital sphygmomanometer (Omron™, M3 model).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Results are presented as mean (95% confidence interval) for the normally distributed variables (weight, height, body water percentage, TBW, hematocrit, erythrocyte, hemoglobin, SBP, DBP and pulse) and as median (interquartile range) for non-parametric ones (USG, pH and UC). WI, WB and WE were treated as non-parametric data. Variables were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Differences between normally distributed variables were assessed with the Student's paired t-test and the Mann-Whitney U test was applied for non-parametric ones. Differences were considered as significant at $p < 0.05$. The validity of the questionnaire was evaluated through the use of Spearman's (ρ) coefficient to estimate the correlation between WB and quantitative discrete variables (hemoglobin, hematocrit and TBW) and Kendall's tau-b (τ) for ordinal qualitative ones (UC). Test-retest reliability was assessed using the intraclass correlation coefficient (CCI) to demonstrate that results were consistent over time. The Bland-Altman plot was used to graphically represent

the agreement between measurements in both completions of the questionnaire. Moreover, Spearman's coefficient between the difference and the average of the variables estimated was calculated to assess potential bias (significant values of Spearman's coefficient indicate divergence in the variable between the two completions). Wilcoxon signed-rank was applied to further evaluate the differences between the two completions. Cronbach's alpha (α) was also applied to assess the internal consistency of the HSQ. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 24.0 Software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

RESULTS

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

A total of 40 healthy volunteers, 22 males (55%) with a mean of 24.4 (22.3-26.5) years of age and 18 females (45%) with a mean age of 21.6 (20.1-23.2) years participated in the validation process. One female was eliminated for completing the questionnaire incorrectly. Their anthropometric characteristics, body water content, urine and blood markers, and hemodynamic data are presented in table I.

As it can be observed in table I, average values for TBW were lower in females than in males, there were no significant differences in urinary indices and hematological indices were higher in males than in females. Lastly, SPBs of males were higher than in females.

Results of WI, WE and WB estimated by the HSQ and sorted by gender are presented in table II. As it can be observed, except in WE, there were no significant differences in any variable between both genders. The main reason for this difference was the lower WE from sweating in females in comparison to men, given that no differences were found in WE from urine and feces. Results using accelerometer information also show that males eliminated 1,405.5 (1,135.3-1,864.1) ml per day by sweat while females eliminated 963.7 (680.1-1,311.5) ml/day ($p = 0.004$) (this difference is mainly due to the intensity and duration of the physical activity practiced by each gender).

According to results from 3DR, total WI of the sample was 2,459.0 (2,009.0-3,084.0) ml/day. Sorting results by gender, total WI of males was 2,867.5 (2,278.2-3,507.2) ml/day and 2,261.0 (1,835.5-2,818.0) ml/day in females.

VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

WB, as estimated by the HSQ, was further correlated with urine indices to assess the validity of the tool. Moderate agreement between the WB and the respective biomarkers was evident for UC ($\tau = -0.392$, $p = 0.001$) and USG ($\rho = -0.524$, $p = 0.001$). Total WI was correlated with the same biomarkers ($\tau = -0.346$, $p = 0.004$, $\rho = -0.551$, $p = 0.000$). Drinking water and total WI from HSQ correlated moderately with WI data from 3DR

Table I. Anthropometric characteristics, body water content, urine and blood markers and hemodynamic data of participants (n = 39)

	Males (n = 22)	Females (n = 17)	p values*
Weight (kg)	74.0 (69.2-78.7)	56.9 (54.0-59.8)	0.000
Height (cm)	180.9 (178.2-183.6)	165.5 (163.3-167.7)	0.000
Body water (%)	57.1 (55.0-59.2)	52.5 (50.8-54.1)	0.002
Body water (l)	41.8 (40.4-43.1)	29.8 (28.6-31.0)	0.000
USG	1.025 (1.020-1.030)	1.025 (1.020-1.030)	0.123
pH	5 (5-6)	5 (5-5)	0.952
UC	4.0 (3.0-5.0)	4.0 (3.0-4.5)	0.579
Hematocrit (%)	44.9 (43.1-46.6)	40.5 (39.2-41.9)	0.000
Erythrocyte (mill/ μ l)	4.8 (4.7-5.0)	4.3 (4.2-4.5)	0.000
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	15.7 (15.1-16.3)	13.5 (12.7-14.3)	0.000
SBP (mmHg)	126.9 (121.9-132.0)	111.7 (106.6-117.2)	0.000
DBP (mmHg)	69.4 (65.6-73.1)	65.5 (61.8-69.1)	0.138
Pulse (beats/minute)	64.6 (60.7-69.0)	70.6 (64.1-77.1)	0.097

USG: urine specific gravity; UC: urine color; SBP: systolic blood pressure; DBP: diastolic blood pressure. Results are presented as mean (confidence interval) for the normally distributed variables and as median (interquartile range) for the non-parametric ones. *p values derived through Student's t test for the normally distributed variables and Mann-Whitney U test for the non-parametric ones after controlling for the normality of the characteristics distribution.

Table II. Water intakes from all the sources, water elimination and water balance obtained from the novel questionnaire, sorted by gender (n = 39)

	Males (n = 22)	Females (n = 17)	p values*
Drinking water (ml/day)	1,230.3 (1,000-1,800)	1,335.7 (875.0-2,000.0)	0.922
Water from beverages (ml/day)	2,334.4 (1,930.6-2,727.0)	2,395.4 (1,940.8-3,003.1)	0.475
Water from food (ml/day)	694.7 (360.7-934.5)	785.6 (523.0-1,212.8)	0.181
Total water intake (ml/day)	3,123.7 (2,276.4-3,753.3)	3,277.6 (2,753.6-4,161.6)	0.528
Water loss (ml/day)	3,114.7 (2,551.5-3,360.3)	2,460.3 (2,309.1-3,086.5)	0.036
Water balance (ml/day)	102.1 (-617.4-738.4)	521.4 (-51.2-1,441.3)	0.067

Results are presented as median (interquartile range). *p values derived through Mann-Whitney U test.

($\rho = 0.465$, $p = 0.001$; $\rho = 0.432$, $p = 0.006$). No correlation was obtained for the rest of parameters.

Results analyzed by gender showed that the WB was correlated with USG and UC among females ($\tau = -0.438$, $p = 0.021$; $\rho = -0.672$, $p = 0.003$, respectively) and males ($\tau = -0.402$, $p = 0.016$; $\rho = -0.451$, $p = 0.035$, respectively). Total WI was correlated with USG in both females and males ($\rho = -0.516$, $p = 0.034$; $\rho = -0.570$, $p = 0.006$, respectively), but UC only among males ($\tau = -0.392$, $p = 0.018$). Drinking water and total WI correlated with WI data from 3DR ($\rho = 0.668$, $p = 0.001$; $\rho = 0.660$, $p = 0.01$, respectively) in males, but not in females.

RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Results from both HSQ completions are presented for the total sample in table III. To analyze the test-retest reliability, the ICC was calculated obtaining a value of 0.501. As it can be observed in table III, there were no differences in any variables between the two recordings. According to the Bland-Altman method (Fig. 2), the mean differences of the estimated variables did not differ from zero (Wilcoxon signed-rank test). The limits of agreement were quite narrow; all six-scatter plots were predominantly distributed within the 95% limits of agreement and were considered

Table III. Results of the reliability procedure for the HSQ

	1 st completion	2 nd completion	Mean difference	p values*	Limits of agreement
Drinking water (ml/day)	1,235.7 (1,000.0-1,800.0)	1,371.4 (1,000.0-2,000.0)	-51.9	0.569	-1,183.4-1,079.6
Water from beverages (ml/day)	2,352.8 (1,964.7-2,865.2)	2,343.2 (2,009.4-3,028.5)	-98.8	0.665	-1,729.8-1,532.1
Water from food (ml/day)	736.6 (460.8-1,038.3)	750.0 (475.9-1,154.0)	-27.9	0.812	-743.4-687.4
Total water intake (ml/day)	3,240.4 (2,573.4-4,026.3)	3,082.1 (2,704.2-4,195.1)	-126.8	0.686	-2,124.0-1,870.4
Water loss (ml/day)	2,826.3 (2,398.0-3,270.0)	2,826.3 (2,409.6-3,261.6)	-2.6	0.982	-451.4-446.3
Water balance (ml/day)	430.9 (-289.7-979.0)	514.3 (-270.2-1,150.5)	-124.2	0.727	-2,167.9-1,919.4

HSQ: hydration status questionnaire. Results are presented as median (interquartile range). *p values derived through Mann-Whitney U test.

as acceptable to reveal the reliability of the estimated measures. No bias was evident regarding the two recordings in all studied cases (drinking water: $\rho = -0.026$, $p = 0.875$; water from beverage: $\rho = -0.121$, $p = 0.400$; water from food: $\rho = 0.005$, $p = 0.978$; WI: $\rho = -0.048$, $p = 0.772$; WE: $\rho = -0.061$, $p = 0.710$; WB: $\rho = -0.14$, $p = 0.388$). To test the internal consistency of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's α of each recording was calculated; 0.832 and 0.852, respectively, were obtained as a result.

DISCUSSION

The HSQ has been designed with the objective of creating and validating a new tool, which can allow for the estimation of WB of the population at a community level. The simplicity, quickness and low-cost of questionnaires make this technique appropriate to achieve the targeted goal. From our knowledge, the Water Balance Questionnaire (WBQ) (11) is the only questionnaire that evaluates WI and WE. It evaluates WI throughout a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) and has been designed and validated in the Greek population, which belongs to a Mediterranean region but with differences among eating patterns in contrast to the Spanish population (28,29). Moreover, FFQ should be designed specifically for each population of study, because the ethnic, cultural and socio-economic level as well as the food preferences could influence food and beverage intake (30).

An accurate estimation of WI and WE is a key factor in the assessment of WB. Water inputs come from beverage and food ingestion and normal metabolic processes, while skin, kidneys, lungs and digestive system are the sources of water output (2). The HSQ takes into account most of these pathways: WI from food and beverages and WE from skin, kidneys and digestive system. Because the amount of water lost from lungs is similar to the amount of endogenous water formation (2), neither of these two

aspects were considered. The assessment of WE was performed through the use of point scales for self-estimation (14,16-18). Score ranges provided in the point scale corresponded to the range of physiological WE through the equivalent route. It should be noted that the estimation of WE through sweat has an added difficulty: it depends on several factors among which physical activity is determinant, because inter and intra-individual variation can be very large. To overcome this limitation and assess the quantity, intensity and typology of the physical activity from each participant, the information was acquired by accelerometers, which is, at the present, the most refined method to quantify physical activity (31). WE data provided by the questionnaire were in accordance with current literature, which is 1,500-3,100 ml/day for adults (3,4), in moderate climates such as the Spanish Mediterranean.

The water consumption obtained by the HSQ was similar to other studies that evaluate WI through specific questionnaires (7); nevertheless, it was higher than results of hydration studies that are based on general questionnaires (6). Ordinarily, fluid specific records report higher fluid intake compared to tools that are not specifically designed to record WI, mainly due to the fact that general questionnaires only record eating occasions around meals and snacks, but not all drinking occasions (11,32). There were no differences in WI between genders, being these results in accordance with known literature (33). In addition, results from different epidemiological studies have shown that foods may provide 20-32% of total WI (6,32), being results of the present study (28%) consistent with these data.

To date, different biomarkers of HS have been proposed (20,33,34), but no single method appears to be ideal for all situations, therefore, the combination of different hydration indices seems to be the most appropriate method to evaluate HS. The validity evaluation of the present study has been based in several of them (USG, UC, TBW, hemoglobin and hematocrit). Recent investigations have demonstrated that both USG and UC are strongly

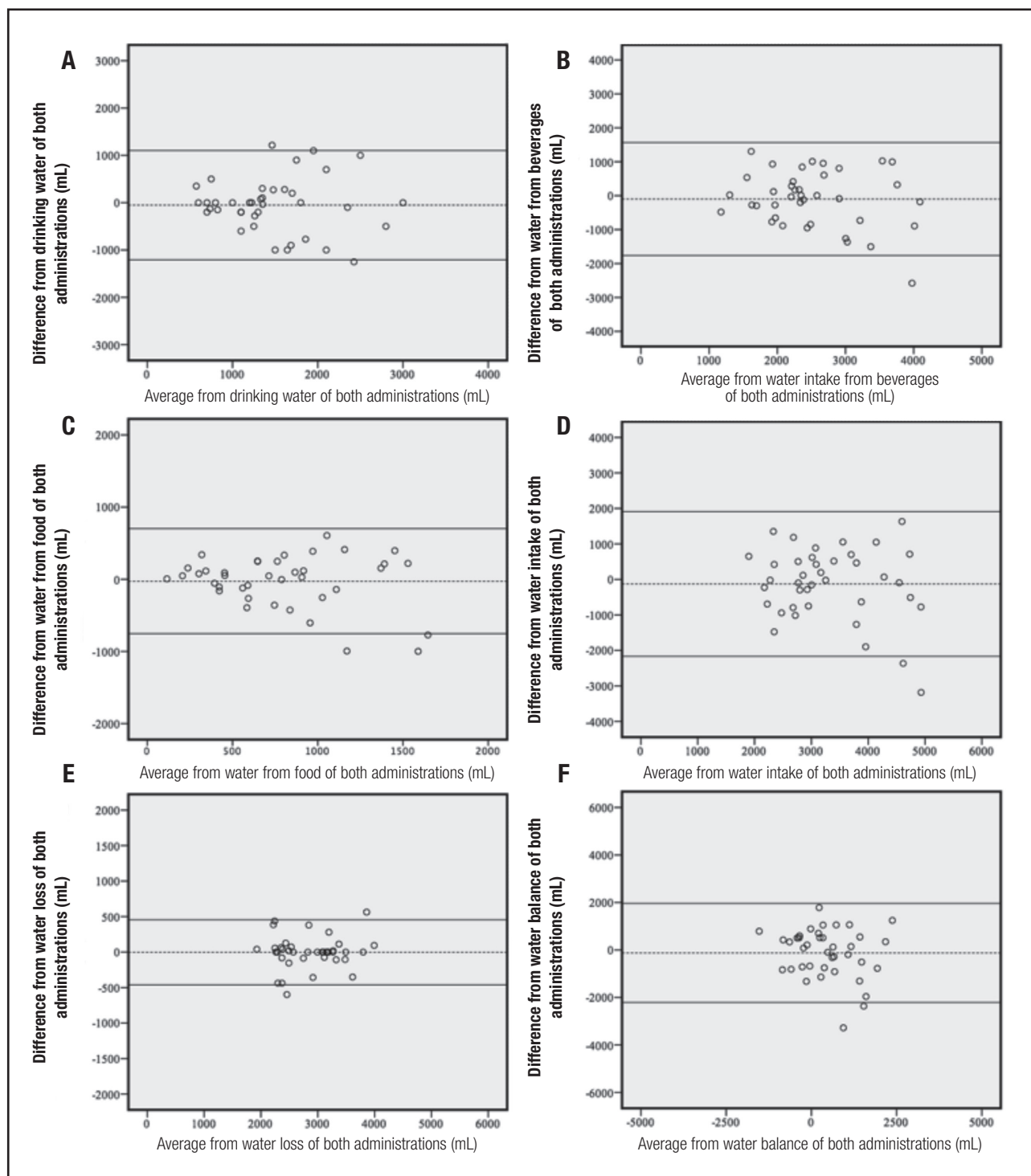


Figure 2.

Bland-Altman plots of differences *versus* means for the variables: A. Drinking water; B. Water from beverages; C. Water from food; D. Total water intake; E. Water loss; and F. Water balance.

correlated with urine osmolality, which has been proposed as the most promising HS marker available nowadays (35,36). Indeed, during acute progressive dehydration, USG, osmolality and UC may be used interchangeably (9,33-35). Recent studies have

demonstrated USG utility not only in acute water loss, but also in real-life conditions (8,22), being an accurate and rapid indicator of HS. UC is more subjective, but it can be used as a marker in combination with a more quantifiable method. Although refractometry

seems to provide the most accurate measurement of USG (37), in this study it was measured through reagent strips, whose suitability as screening method has also been supported by several studies (38,39). WB and total WI obtained by the HSQ correlated with USG and UC, being both correlations very similar. It is mainly due to the fact that in sedentary to moderately active adults, and with moderate weather conditions, WB is largely determined by the adequacy of fluid intake (22). Nevertheless, it is important to highlight that a low daily WI and a low WE, which could result in an adequate WB, are not equivalent to an adequate HS (22).

Body water content has also been recognized as a marker of HS. In this study, it was estimated through BIA. It is known that the most accurate methodology available to estimate TBW is mass spectrometry through tritium or deuterium dilution, but it cannot be applied at community level due to ethical implications. Given the limitations of BIA, it must be performed under controlled conditions and the information acquired must be interpreted with caution (40). Nevertheless, even when these conditions are achieved, BIA is not able to identify small changes in TBW. In the current study no correlation was obtained for this parameter.

Due to their potential as HS indicators, the correlation between blood parameters and WB was analyzed (20). However, there is an important limitation: changes in their concentration represent changes in plasma volume and not in TBW. To estimate changes in plasma volume the baseline values of those parameters have to be known. In this study, WB was not correlated with blood parameters. Finally, HS also affects hemodynamic parameters (23), even though researchers are not able to identify fluid imbalances independently of other indices. For this reason, SBP, DBP, and pulse were measured in the present study and used as additional information in the assessment of HS.

In order to evaluate results of water consumption from the new questionnaire, a well-known dietary intake estimation method was used; in particular, a 3DR. Drinking water data and WI from the questionnaire were compared with data from the 3DR showing the existence of a moderate correlation between both ($\rho = 0.465$, $p = 0.001$; $\rho = 0.432$, $p = 0.006$, respectively). Nevertheless, results of WI from 3DR were lower than from HSQ, being this results in accordance with known literature (6,11,32).

With regard to the reproducibility of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's α revealed a high and similar consistency in both recordings (values equal or higher than 0.7 are considered as adequate). The ICC revealed the existence of moderate concordance between both administrations of the questionnaire. The Bland-Altman method allows assessing the agreement between the methods across the range of WI and losses and can determine if there was any systematic difference between the administrations of the questionnaire, and to what extent the two administrations agree (limits of agreement). Accordingly, the HSQ was repeatable for all the components studied.

The validity and reliability shown by the HSQ in both genders, the combination of different biomarkers in the validation process, coupled with the simplicity and low-cost of the tool designed are the main advantages of the present study. However, the most important limitation refers to the non-availability of a gold standard

against which to validate it, as well as the measurement of USG through reagent strips instead of refractometry and the non-availability of 24 hours urine samples.

CONCLUSIONS

These findings show that the HSQ is a reliable and valid tool, which could be used as an affordable, rapid screening method to estimate WB of healthy adults. Its application at community level would allow a deeper knowledge of the HS as part of the nutritional status and, consequently, the possibility of establishing recommendations based in real hydration needs. Developing future studies that confirm these results and allow the use of this tool in other population groups are of further interest.

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Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Nutritional diagnosis of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma: what is the best method? *Diagnóstico nutricional de pacientes con carcinoma hepatocelular: ¿cuál es el mejor método?*

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Abstract

Introduction: malnutrition is a frequent finding among cancer patients. Despite its prognostic significance, there are still few studies evaluating the nutritional status of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).

Objectives: to evaluate the nutritional status of patients with HCC by different methods.

Methods: patients with HCC were evaluated in an outpatient clinic at the Hospital Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Porto Alegre. The methods used for the nutritional assessment were body mass index (BMI), tricipital skinfold (TSF), arm circumference (AC), arm muscle circumference (AMC), hand grip strength (HGS), adductor pollicis muscle (APM), patient-generated subjective global assessment (PG-SGA) and phase angle (PA).

Results: forty-three patients with HCC were evaluated; all of them were cirrhotic. The mean age was 64.0 ± 5.8 years and the prevalent gender was male (72.1%). APM, PA, PG-SGA and AMC were the most sensitive methods for the diagnosis of malnutrition. There was a negative correlation between TSF and Child-Pugh score ($p = 0.004$) and a positive correlation between APM and BCLC stage (Barcelona Clinic Liver Cancer Group) ($p = 0.006$).

Conclusions: there was high variation in the diagnosis of malnutrition among the methods studied. APM, AMC, PA and PG-SGA can be indicated as tools of choice in the nutritional assessment of the HCC patient because they were the most sensitive methods in the diagnosis of malnutrition. TSF and APM correlate with disease severity.

Key words:

Hepatocellular carcinoma. Nutritional assessment. Nutritional status. Malnutrition.

Resumen

Introducción: la desnutrición es un hallazgo frecuente entre pacientes oncológicos. A pesar de su significancia pronóstica, todavía son escasos los estudios que evalúan el estado nutricional de pacientes con carcinoma hepatocelular (CHC).

Objetivos: evaluar el estado nutricional de pacientes con CHC por diferentes métodos.

Métodos: se evaluaron pacientes con CHC en seguimiento ambulatorio en el Hospital Santa Casa de Misericordia de Porto Alegre. Los métodos empleados para la evaluación nutricional fueron índice de masa corporal (IMC), pliegue cutáneo tricipital (PCT), circunferencia del brazo (CB), circunferencia muscular del brazo (CMB), fuerza del apretón de manos (FAM), músculo aductor del pulgar (MAP), evaluación subjetiva global producida por el paciente (ASG-PPP) y ángulo de fase (AF).

Resultados: se evaluaron 43 pacientes con CHC, todos cirróticos. El promedio de edad fue de $64,0 \pm 5,8$ años y el sexo prevalente, el masculino (72,1%). MAP, AF, ASG-PPP y CMB fueron los métodos más sensibles para el diagnóstico de desnutrición. Se observó una correlación negativa entre la PCT y la puntuación Child-Pugh ($p = 0,004$) y una correlación positiva entre MAP y la estadificación BCLC ($p = 0,006$).

Conclusiones: hubo gran variación en el diagnóstico de desnutrición entre los métodos estudiados. MAP, CMB, AF y ASG-PPP se pueden indicar como herramientas de elección en la evaluación nutricional del paciente con CHC por haber sido los métodos más sensibles en el diagnóstico de desnutrición. PCT y MAP se correlacionan con la gravedad de la enfermedad.

Palabras clave:

Carcinoma hepatocelular. Evaluación nutricional. Estado nutricional. Desnutrición.

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INTRODUCTION

Cancer is a pathology that has serious implications on the health status of the individual, with nutritional aspects being one of the most compromised. Malnutrition is a frequent finding among oncology patients. Its prevalence can range from 30% to more than 70%, depending on the type of tumor, staging and profile of the patient (1-4).

Patients with hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) are at increased risk of malnutrition because tumor progression can directly affect liver function, which plays a central role in nutrients metabolism (5). Besides that, the majority of HCC cases occur in patients with underlying cirrhosis (6), which is, in turn, a disease that presents nutritional damage as a common complication (7).

Several studies have demonstrated the prognostic significance of malnutrition in cancer. Malnutrition is associated with an increased incidence of comorbidities, increased mortality, reduced survival time, reduced quality of life, longer hospitalization and consequent higher hospital costs (1,8-10). In addition, malnutrition has a negative impact on the efficacy of cancer therapy, resulting in low response, low tolerance and high toxicity to the treatment (9,11).

Despite the importance of malnutrition for the clinical evolution of cancer patients, there is no method of nutritional assessment considered as the gold standard (4,12). In the nutritional assessment of patients with HCC, it should be considered that the changes caused by hepatic dysfunction prevent the use of the more traditional tools (13).

Despite the wide range of scientific publications about the nutritional status of cancer patients, there are still few studies that specifically evaluate HCC patients. Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the nutritional status of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma by different methods of nutritional assessment.

METHODS

This was a cross-sectional study conducted between November 2016 and May 2017. Adult patients (> 18 years) with HCC diagnosis due to different etiologies, who were being followed up at the Gastroenterology Outpatient Clinic, at the Liver Transplant Outpatient Clinic and at the Hepatopathy Outpatient Clinic of the Santa Clara Hospital of the Irmandade Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Porto Alegre were invited to participate in the study.

Patients who were participating in dietetic programs or physical activity for weight gain, patients with cancers other than HCC, those who did not present sufficient psychic and cognitive conditions to fill in the questionnaires, illiterates, and those who did not present physical and motor conditions for anthropometric evaluation were excluded from the study.

All participants agreed to participate in the study by reading and signing the informed consent form. This research protocol was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Irmandade Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Porto Alegre (protocol 1.780.500) and the Federal University of Health Sciences of Porto Alegre (UFCSPA) (protocol 1.827.929).

The study protocol included the assessment of nutritional status and functional assessment, both performed by a trained nutri-

tionist, in addition to the collection of socio-demographic data. Directly from the patients' records, data related to the diagnosis and treatment of HCC, Child-Pugh score, comorbidities, results of laboratory tests, imaging tests, anatomical pathology and clinical history were collected.

The HCC classification was defined by a hepatologist through the Barcelona Clinic Liver Cancer Group (BCLC) staging system. The Model for End Stage Liver Disease (MELD) score was calculated through the patient's laboratory tests.

ANTHROPOMETRY

Weight was measured using a Filizola 100 g resolution scale and height with a wall-mounted stadiometer. The body mass index (BMI) was calculated using the formula: weight (kg)/height² and classified according to World Health Organization (WHO) (14) cut-off points for adults or according to Lipschitz (15) for elderly.

The arm circumference (AC) was measured with an inelastic tape at the midpoint of the non-dominant arm. A scientific skinfold caliper (Cescor®) was used for triceps skinfold measurement (TSF). To determine muscle mass, the anthropometric parameter used was the arm muscle circumference (AMC), which takes AC and TSF into account by the following equation: AMC (cm) = AC (cm) - $\pi \times [TSF (mm) \div 10]$. The results obtained were related to the default values shown in Frisancho's percentiles tables (16) and classified according to Blackburn BL and Thornton PA (17).

FUNCTIONAL ASSESSMENT

A mechanical hand grip dynamometer of adjustable handle (Baseline®, Smedley Spring model) was used to assess the hand grip strength (HGS). The assessment was performed in the non-dominant hand, in triplicate, and highest value result was classified according to the cut-off points proposed by Budziarek MB et al. (18).

ASSESSMENT OF ADDUCTOR POLLICIS MUSCLE

The thickness of the adductor pollicis muscle (APM) was measured using a scientific skinfold caliper (Cescor®). The measurement was performed in triplicate and the final value obtained from the average of the three measurements was used. Patients with APM values below p5 as proposed by González et al. (19) were considered as undernourished.

PATIENT-GENERATED SUBJECTIVE GLOBAL ASSESSMENT

The Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment (PG-SGA) was performed following the protocol validated by Ottery FD (20).

BIOELECTRICAL IMPEDANCE ANALYSIS (BIA)

For the assessment of the phase angle (PA), a bioelectrical impedance Biodynamic® model 450 device (Seattle, WA, USA) was used. The electrical current used in the measurement is 800 A and 50 kHz.

The patient remains in supine position, comfortable and relaxed, with hands and feet parallel to the body. One electrode was placed on the dorsal hand, at the middle finger level, and one in the wrist joint, both on the right side. Another pair of electrodes was placed on the dorsal foot, at the middle toe level, and in the ankle joint, also on the right side.

The patients were classified according to the cut-off point proposed by Fernandes SA et al. (7).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses of the data were performed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software version 21.0 and a significance level of 5% ($p \leq 0.05$).

The quantitative variables were described by mean and standard deviation or median value and interquartile amplitude. The categorical variables were described using absolute and relative frequencies.

Pearson's Chi-square test was used to assess the association between categorical variables. The Cochran test was applied to compare the nutritional status among the methods of nutritional assessment.

Spearman's correlation test was used to assess the associations between nutritional assessment methods and disease staging.

RESULTS

The sample was composed of 43 patients, all with diagnosis of hepatocellular carcinoma associated with cirrhosis. The mean age was 64.0 ± 5.8 years, the prevalent sex was male (72.1%). The clinical characteristics of the sample studied are described in table I.

Regarding the HCC treatment, there were 13 patients (30.2%) in the transplant waiting list and concomitant indication for chemoembolization, 12 patients (27.9%) were exclusively indicated for treatment with chemoembolization, nine patients (20.9%) were on transplant waiting list, five patients (11.6%) were being treated with sorafenib, three patients (7%) had palliative treatment and one patient (2.3%) had indication for hepatectomy.

In the physical evaluation, it was observed that 44.2% of the patients presented fluid retention, three of them (7%) with ascites, ten patients (23.3%) with edema and five (11.6%) presented both.

The assessment of nutritional status according to the different methods presented discrepancies, ranging from 11.6% to 58.1% in the diagnosis of malnutrition. The nutritional assessment is described in table II.

As observed in figure 1, there was a statistical difference between the diagnoses of malnutrition by the different methods.

In the correlation analysis between the nutritional assessment methods and staging HCC and cirrhosis scores, a negative cor-

Table I. Sample characterization

Variables	n = 43
Age (years) - mean $\pm$ SD	64.0 $\pm$ 5.8
Gender - n (%)	
Male	31 (72.1)
Female	12 (27.9)
Number of nodules - median (P25-P75)	2 (1-2)
Etiology of cirrhosis - n (%)	
Alcohol	9 (20.9)
HCV	24 (55.8)
HBV	4 (9.3)
HCV+ alcohol	4 (9.3)
NAFLD	2 (4.7)
Child-Pugh - n (%)	
A	25 (58.1)
B	16 (37.2)
C	2 (4.7)
Meld - mean $\pm$ SD	11.2 $\pm$ 3.3
BCLC stage - n (%)	
0	4 (9.3)
A	13 (30.2)
B	17 (39.5)
C	8 (18.6)
D	1 (2.3)
Diagnostic time (months) - median (P25-P75)	12 (6-24)
Comorbidities - n (%)	
SAH	18 (41.9)
DM2	12 (27.9)
Smoking - n (%)	
Active smoker	6 (14.0)
Ex-smoker	30 (69.8)
Alcoholism - n (%)	
Active alcoholism	2 (4.7)
Ex-alcoholic	20 (46.5)
Physical activity - n (%)	
Active	5 (11.6)
Inactive	38 (88.4)

SD: standard deviation; HCV: hepatitis C virus; HBV: hepatitis B virus; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; MELD: Model for End Stage Liver Disease; BCLC: Barcelona Clinic Liver Cancer Group; SAH: systemic arterial hypertension; DM2: type 2 diabetes mellitus.

relation was observed between TSF and Child-Pugh score ($p = 0.004$) and a positive correlation was found between APM and BCLC ($p = 0.006$) (Table III).

DISCUSSION

The nutritional diagnosis of the HCC patient is directly related to their prognosis, so an effective and individualized dietary therapy is essential. For this, identifying the nutritional assessment

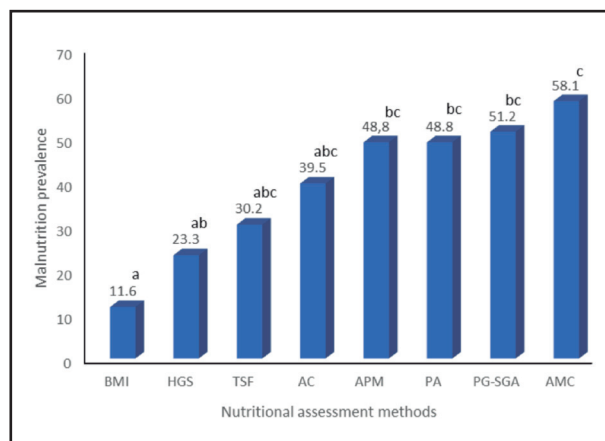
Table II. Nutrition status assessment

Variables	n = 43
BMI - n (%)	
Malnutrition	5 (11.6)
Eutrophy	18 (41.9)
Overweight	14 (32.6)
Obesity	6 (14.0)
AC - n (%)	
Severe malnutrition	2 (4.7)
Moderate malnutrition	5 (11.6)
Mild malnutrition	10 (23.3)
Eutrophy	20 (46.5)
Overweight	4 (9.3)
Obesity	2 (4.7)
TSF - n (%)	
Severe malnutrition	7 (16.3)
Moderate malnutrition	2 (4.7)
Mild malnutrition	4 (9.3)
Eutrophy	10 (23.3)
Overweight	2 (4.7)
Obesity	18 (41.9)
APM - n (%)	
Severe malnutrition	0 (0.0)
Moderate malnutrition	5 (11.6)
Mild malnutrition	20 (46.5)
Eutrophy	18 (41.9)
HGS - n (%)	
Eutrophy	33 (76.7)
Malnutrition	10 (23.3)
PA - n (%)	
Eutrophy	22 (51.2)
Malnutrition	21 (48.8)
PG-SGA - n (%)	
Eutrophy	21 (48.8)
Moderate malnutrition	13 (30.2)
Mild malnutrition	9 (20.9)

BMI: body mass index; HGS: hand grip strength; TSF: tricipital skinfold; AC: arm circumference; APM: adductor pollicis muscle; PA: phase angle; PG-SGA: patient-generated subjective global assessment; AMC: arm muscle circumference.

method characteristic for these patients becomes of paramount importance. Although liver cancer is one of the most prevalent cancers in the world (21), with HCC accounting for 70-85% of these cases (6), there are still few studies that evaluate the prevalence of malnutrition in this population.

Schütte K et al., in their study with 51 HCC patients, observed a prevalence of nutritional risk of 33.4 to 37%, assessed through Nutritional Risk Score (NRS) and Mini Nutritional Assessment (MNA), respectively. No patient was diagnosed as malnourished (12).

**Figure 1.**

Comparison of the percentage of malnutrition of the sample according to the different methods of nutritional assessment. BMI: body mass index; HGS: hand grip strength; TSF: tricipital skinfold; AC: arm circumference; APM: adductor pollicis muscle; PA: phase angle; PG-SGA: Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment; AMC: arm muscle circumference. Equal letters (a, b, c, d) do not differ by the multiple comparisons Cochrane's test at 5% significance.

Table III. Correlation between the methods of nutritional assessment and disease staging

Variables	Child	BCLC	Meld
BMI	$r_s = 0.100$ ($p = 0.523$)	$r_s = -0.195$ ($p = 0.290$)	$r_s = 0.233$ ($p = 0.133$)
AC	$r_s = -0.268$ ($p = 0.083$)	$r_s = -0.234$ ($p = 0.132$)	$r_s = -0.152$ ($p = 0.332$)
TSF	$r_s = -0.430$ ($p = 0.004$)	$r_s = -0.172$ ($p = 0.269$)	$r_s = -0.109$ ($p = 0.488$)
AMC	$r_s = -0.096$ ($p = 0.542$)	$r_s = -0.293$ ($p = 0.057$)	$r_s = -0.072$ ($p = 0.645$)
HGS	$r_s = 0.064$ ($p = 0.684$)	$r_s = 0.124$ ($p = 0.430$)	$r_s = 0.040$ ($p = 0.798$)
PA	$r_s = 0.104$ ($p = 0.506$)	$r_s = 0.229$ ($p = 0.140$)	$r_s = 0.175$ ($p = 0.261$)
PG-SGA	$r_s = 0.289$ ($p = 0.060$)	$r_s = 0.235$ ($p = 0.128$)	$r_s = 0.098$ ($p = 0.532$)
APM	$r_s = 0.285$ ($p = 0.064$)	$r_s = 0.412$ ($p = 0.006$)	$r_s = 0.100$ ($p = 0.524$)

BMI: body mass index; HGS: hand grip strength; TSF: tricipital skinfold; AC: arm circumference; APM: adductor pollicis muscle; PA: phase angle; PG-SGA: Patient-Generated Subjective Global Assessment; AMC: arm muscle circumference; MELD: Model for End Stage Liver Disease; BCLC: Barcelona Clinic Liver Cancer Group; r: Spearman's correlation coefficient.

A similar finding was observed by Tsai AC et al. (2011), when assessing the nutritional status of 300 patients with HCC through two modified versions of the Mini Nutritional Assessment: a thai standard version (specific cut-off points for this population) and a

thai version in which the BMI is replaced by AC and calf circumference. The prevalence of malnutrition was 2% and the risk of malnutrition ranged between 45 and 47% (22).

However, the present study identified a higher prevalence of malnutrition in HCC patients, greater than 50% according to PG-SGA and AMC. These differences can be justified according to the nutritional assessment tools used. In the studies by Schütte K et al. (12) and Tsai AC et al. (22), the individuals were assessed through MNA, a validated tool to the assessment of nutritional status of elderly patients, not being compatible with the population allocated in both studies.

When assessing the nutritional status of HCC patients by different methods, we found discrepancies in the diagnosis of malnutrition ranging from 11.6% to 58.1%.

According to BMI classification, we observed a low prevalence of malnutrition, 11.6%, and a high prevalence of overweight and obesity, 32.6% and 14%, respectively, being statistically different from the other methods (APM, PA, PG-SGA and AMC). BMI underestimates the prevalence of malnutrition in HCC patients because it reflects body weight, which in most cases presents significant alterations due to hydroelectrolytic disorders, which was observed in physical examination of more than 40% of our sample. This finding corroborates studies performed with cirrhotic (7,23-25) and oncological patients (12,26-28).

In view of these difficulties related to the actual body weight of the chronic hepatopathic patient, a method of nutritional diagnostic with great value is the HGS, which indirectly reflects the muscular functionality of the individual (29).

Despite the high prevalence of muscle depletion identified through APM and AMC, only 23.3% of the patients presented functionality loss according to the HGS. Although we can't assert, since we did not use all the criteria indicated by the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People (EWGSOP) (30) in the evaluation of sarcopenia, we believe that the observed difference between the percentage of patients with reduced functionality and patients with loss of muscle mass is due to the fact that many of these were still in the pre-sarcopenia stage. In the pre-sarcopenia stage there is loss of muscle mass but without impairment of muscle strength or physical performance (30).

Through APM, malnutrition was identified in 48.8% of patients and a significant positive correlation with BCLC staging was observed. This means that, in our study, patients in the more advanced stages of the disease presented higher APM values, in agreement with other authors who showed that this is a poorly sensitive method in the assessment of liver disease patients (23-25).

With regard to arm measurements, 30.2% of the patients were classified as malnourished by TSF, 39.5% by AC and 58.1% by AMC. These findings are consistent with a greater mobilization of muscle mass in the assessed patients. Silva et al. also observed a higher prevalence, 74.4% of the sample, of muscle mass loss in the arm measurements of patients with esophageal and stomach cancer (31).

In this study, TSF was the only method showing a significant negative correlation with Child-Pugh score. In line with these findings, other authors observed correlation between Child-Pugh

score and TSF (32,33). According to Alberino F et al., malnutrition is an independent risk factor for mortality and the inclusion of TSF and AMC improves the prognostic accuracy of Child-Pugh score (34).

Through PA, 48.8% of the patients were diagnosed with nutritional risk. These findings are in agreement with the literature, which defines PA as a good nutritional marker in liver disease, since it reflects the integrity of cell membranes and tissue homeostasis (35). According to Fernandes SA et al., 34.1% of the cirrhotic patients evaluated were malnourished according to PA and this was the only method capable of correlating malnutrition with Child-Pugh score (7). In Schütte study, 58.8% of patients had PA below 4.8° and this cut-off point was a predictor of mortality (12).

Several studies report PA as a clinically relevant indicator, predicting not only mortality (12,26,36), but also a reduction in muscle strength and quality of life (36). However, in our study we did not observe a correlation between PA and Child-Pugh, MELD or BCLC scores. Nevertheless, we believe that this absence of correlation was due to the sample size.

Some authors affirm that the nutritional assessment through Global Subjective Assessment (SGA) underestimates the prevalence and severity of malnutrition among cirrhotic patients (7,23,24). However, in our study, we chose to use PG-SGA, which is an adaptation of the original SGA proposed by Detsky et al., developed specifically for cancer patients (20).

It seems to us that PG-SGA is a more comprehensive nutritional assessment method, since it encompasses both objective and subjective parameters, allowing an anthropometric analysis not only through weight, height and percentage of weight loss, but also of food consumption, symptoms of nutritional impact, physical examination, functionality and metabolic stress. This justifies that PG-SGA was one of the methods capable of identifying the highest percentage of malnourished patients (51.2%) in our sample. Even higher malnutrition rates were identified through the application of PG-SGA in other oncological populations, reaching 66% among patients with upper gastrointestinal tumors, correlating with mortality (37), 81% among patients with lung cancer (38) and up to 94.2% among palliative cancer patients (39). According to our experience, PG-SGA is a simple, easy-to-apply tool that requires 10-15 minutes to fulfill.

Recently, the Global Leadership Initiative on Malnutrition (GLIM) was convened by several of the major global clinical nutrition societies with the intent to build a global consensus about the diagnostic criteria for malnutrition in adults in clinical settings (40). The malnutrition classification criteria is divided into phenotypic criteria (non-voluntary weight loss, BMI and reduced muscle mass) and etiological criteria (reduced dietary intake and inflammation or disease severity). To diagnose malnutrition, at least one phenotypic criterion and one etiologic criterion should be present (40). Since the GLIM consensus was published in the second semester of 2018 and our study was developed between 2016 and 2017, we did not use its criteria for the diagnosis of malnutrition, which may be a limitation of our study.

Based on the results presented, it can be concluded that there was great variance in the malnutrition diagnosis among the meth-

ods studied. We believe that APM, AMC, PA and PG-SGA can be indicated as tools of choice in the nutritional assessment of HCC patients because they were the most sensitive methods in malnutrition diagnosis. These are simple, quick and inexpensive methods that can be used in clinical practice. It should be emphasized that a method may not meet the objective needs for the nutritional assessment of HCC patients, which is why we consider that the adoption of two or three methods that evaluate different situations can be complementary and more precise. We recommend further studies with a larger number of patients to confirm our findings and to identify a method that may be ideally considered as a golden standard in the assessment of HCC patients and that correlates with their clinical condition.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Consumption of non-caloric sweeteners among pregnant Chileans: a cross-sectional study *Consumo de edulcorantes no calóricos en embarazadas chilenas: estudio transversal*

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Abstract

Introduction: consumption of non-caloric sweeteners (NCS) has increased worldwide in the last 35 years.

Objective: to determine the consumption of NCS among pregnant Chilean women and measure if consumption exceeded the acceptable daily intake.

Methods: we conducted a cross-sectional study of pregnant women from the two main cities in Chile. Women were interviewed to determine the consumption of NCS and socioeconomic level; anthropometry was measured.

Results: six hundred and one pregnant women were interviewed; 98% of pregnant women surveyed consumed NCS. The most consumed sweetener was sucralose (95.6%), followed by acesulfame K (80.6%), stevia (78.3%), aspartame (75.1%), saccharin (14.8%), and cyclamate (10%). We observed that consumption closest to the acceptable daily intake was reported for stevia (82.5%), followed by acesulfame K (44%). However, except stevia, which reached 12%, average values were under 5% of the acceptable daily intake. No pregnant woman in the sample exceeded the acceptable daily intake and there were no differences in sweetener consumption by trimester of pregnancy or by socioeconomic level.

Conclusions: a high prevalence of NCS consumption was observed, however, none of the pregnant women exceeded the acceptable daily intake.

Key words:

Pregnancy. Non-caloric sweeteners. Intake. Sucralose. Stevia. Aspartame.

Resumen

Introducción: el consumo de edulcorantes no calóricos (ENC) ha aumentado en todo el mundo en los últimos 35 años.

Objetivo: determinar el consumo de ENC en embarazadas chilenas y medir si el consumo excede la ingesta diaria admisible (IDA).

Métodos: realizamos un estudio transversal en embarazadas, proveniente de las dos principales ciudades de Chile. Se las entrevistó para determinar el consumo de ENC y nivel socioeconómico, además se realizó antropometría.

Resultados: se entrevistaron a 601 embarazadas; el 98% de las embarazadas encuestadas consumieron ENC. El edulcorante más consumido fue sucralosa (95,6%), seguido de acesulfamo K (80,6%), estevia (78,3%), aspartamo (75,1%), sacarina (14,8%) y ciclamato (10%). Observamos que el consumo más cercano a la IDA se reportó para la estevia (82,5%), seguido de acesulfamo K (44%). Sin embargo, excepto la estevia, que alcanzó el 12% de adecuación con respecto al IDA, los valores promedio estuvieron por debajo del 5% de la IDA. Ninguna mujer embarazada en la muestra excedió la IDA y no hubo diferencias en el consumo de ENC por trimestre del embarazo o por nivel socioeconómico.

Conclusiones: se observó una alta prevalencia de consumo de ENC, sin embargo, ninguna de las mujeres embarazadas excedió la IDA.

Palabras clave:

Embarazo. Edulcorantes no calóricos. Ingesta. Sucralosa. Estevia. Aspartamo.

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INTRODUCTION

Non-caloric sweeteners (NCS) are food additives that have the function of sweetening without adding calories (1). They can be of artificial (saccharin, cyclamate, aspartame, acesulfame potassium, sucralose) or natural origin (stevia, thaumatin) and are present in countless foods such as dairy products, beverages and dietary juices, cookies, breakfast cereals, and as a powder or liquid to sweeten tea, coffee or infusions. NCS must be approved for mass use. The organisms that regulate use at the international level are *Codex Alimentarius*, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) (2-4). According to the United States Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, NCS are safe for use in the general population, including pregnant women (5).

In Chile, the Guide for Diabetes and Pregnancy created by the Ministry of Health, indicates that consumption of NCS such as aspartame, sucralose, acesulfame potassium, and stevioside in moderation during pregnancy can be allowed. In addition, the guide recommends preferring alternatives to saccharin, since it is eliminated more slowly from the fetus than from the adult (6).

However, there are some institutions, like the Institutes of Medicine, which indicate that there is not enough evidence, in order to recommend NCS (7).

Consumption of NCS has increased in the last 30 years, as shown by several studies conducted among adults and children (8-10), however, there are no studies showing intake during pregnancy.

The objective of the study was to determine the consumption of NCS in Chilean pregnant women.

METHODS

We conducted a cross-sectional study of pregnant women from Santiago and Concepción (center and south of the country). Women were interviewed in Family Health Centers (public sector) and private clinics during the second semester of 2016 and data was processed during the first half of 2017.

The sample size was calculated for each city from the Arcella study (11) with a confidence interval of 95%, a power of 90% and a precision calculated as the observed average-recommended value.

Inclusion criteria was attending one pregnancy check-up appointment. Diabetic pregnant women (type 1 and type 2), those who had a metabolic disease, and those who had not completed the forms were excluded; the subjects were chosen for convenience. A signed informed consent was obtained from each participant. The protocol was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee.

PROCEDURES

Food consumption surveys

Sampling of sweeteners and foods containing NCS was carried out in the commercial market, with a total of 187 foods containing

NCS (yogurt, prepared dessert, liquid flavored milk, cultured milk, flavored milk, jam, cereal for breakfast, milk caramel, flavored mineral water, soft drinks, fruit pulp juice, powdered juice, sweet cookie, ice cream, desserts, light sugar, biscuits, and liquid and powder NCS). The type and quantity of NCS was reported on food labels. We used a weekly Quantified Consumption Trend Survey. The survey was validated by experts to evaluate the intake of sweeteners (12). The portions were described as typical measurements used at home (drops, glass, cup, spoon, teaspoon, plate, etc.). This information was used to calculate the daily intake of each NCS. Surveys were administered by a trained nutritionist. The amount of NCS was obtained taking the consumption of 100 ml or 100 g of food per type of NCS in each product. Nutritional information was collected from content exhibited in the package of each product. This method is in accordance with the Chilean food regulation bureau, which indicates that all packed foods must indicate which NCSs are present and their amount per 100 g or ml and per portion. Following this step, the acceptable daily intake (ADI) value was obtained for each NCS.

Anthropometry

Weight, height and weeks of pregnancy were obtained from the medical record. Nutritional status was determined using body mass index (BMI) and weeks of gestation. The result was contrasted with the Nutritional Assessment Table published by Atalah et al. (13).

Socioeconomic level

The ESOMAR socioeconomic survey was applied to each pregnant woman. This method originated in Europe and is restricted to occupation and education variables. The survey has been validated in Chile and the results express social economic status (high class, upper middle class, middle class, lower middle class and low class) (14).

Statistics

Data were processed in an Excel spreadsheet with the statistical program SPSS 22.0. To evaluate the normality of the continuous variables (age, weight, height and intake of sweeteners) the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness of fit test was used. For comparisons between weeks of gestation, an ANOVA test with a Bonferroni post hoc was used. In all cases, a value of $p < 0.05$ was considered as statistically significant.

RESULTS

Six hundred and one pregnant women were interviewed and they all answered the interview; 98% of them consumed NCS daily: 80.6% acesulfame k, 14.8% saccharin, 10% cyclamate,

95.6% sucralose, 78.3% stevia and 75.1% aspartame. Nearly 7% reported consuming these five NCS at the same time. Table I shows the descriptive statistics of the sample. Age and weeks of gestation were 27.1 ± 5.7 years and 26.4 ± 4.5 weeks, respectively.

Table II shows a significantly lower consumption of cyclamate for the third compared to the second trimester. For the other NCS, consumption was similar by week of gestation.

Table III presents the intake data by socioeconomic level. No significant differences were observed.

Table IV shows average consumption by ADI. Consumption closest to ADI was observed for stevia (82.5%), followed by acesulfame K (44%); however, average values were under 5% of the ADI, except for stevia, which reached 12%. No pregnant woman in the sample exceeded the ADI.

Table I. Descriptive statistics of the sample (n = 601)

	Average	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Age (years)	27.1	5.7	16.0	47
Weight (kg)	71.3	12.4	43.5	170.0
Height (m)	1.60	0.06	1.45	1.77
BMI (kg/m ²)	27.6	4.5	17.2	62.4
Gestational age (weeks)	26.4	4.5	1	41
Acesulfame K (mg/kg/weight)	0.48	0.63	0	6.6
Aspartame (mg/kg/weight)	0.91	1.4	0	14.9
Saccharin (mg/kg/weight)	0.07	0.11	0	0.85
Cyclamate (mg/kg/weight)	0.16	0.21	0	0.82
Sucralose (mg/kg/weight)	0.54	0.57	0	3.69
Stevia (mg/kg/weight)	0.50	0.53	0	0.001
<i>Education</i>				
Primary school (number/%)	16 (2.6)			
Secondary (number/%)	230 (38.2)			
College (technical/university) (number/%)	355 (59.0)			
<i>Nutritional status</i>				
Underweight (number/%)	61 (10.1)			
Normal weight (number/%)	283 (47.0)			
Overweight (number/%)	173 (28.7)			
Obesity (number/%)	84 (13.9)			
<i>Physical activity (> 150 min/week)</i>				
Yes (number/%)	128 (21.2)			
No (number/%)	473 (78.7)			
<i>Socioeconomic level</i>				
Low (number/%)	121 (20.1)			
Medium (number/%)	371 (61.8)			
High (number/%)	109 (18.1)			
<i>Pregnancy care</i>				
Public system (number/%)	241 (41.0)			
Private (number/%)	195 (32.4)			
Mixed (number/%)	165 (27.4)			
<i>Smokers</i>				
Yes (number/%)	18 (2.9)			
No (number/%)	583 (97.0)			
<i>Who recommended to use NCS?</i>				
Nutritionist (number/%)	112 (18.6)			
Doctor (number/%)	40 (6.6)			
Another professional (number/%)	16 (2.6)			
Friends/Family (number/%)	35 (5.8)			
No one (number/%)	398 (66.2)			

Table II. Comparison of anthropometry and sweetener consumption by pregnancy trimester

Variables	First trimester (n = 80)	Second trimester (n = 265)	Third trimester (n = 256)
Age (years)	26.6 ± 5.7	26.8 ± 5.5	27.5 ± 6.0
Weight (kg)	65.5 ± 10.8 ^{*,†}	68.5 ± 10.5 [*]	76.1 ± 13.1 [†]
Height (m)	1.61 ± 0.05	1.60 ± 0.05	1.60 ± 0.06
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.9 ± 3.7 ^{*,†}	26.6 ± 3.8 ^{*,†}	29.3 ± 4.8 ^{†,‡}
Gestational age (weeks)	11.7 ± 2.5 ^{*,†}	23.3 ± 3.7 ^{*,†}	34.2 ± 2.9 ^{†,‡}
Acesulfame k (mg/kg/weight)	0.40 ± 0.55	0.5 ± 0.6	0.44 ± 0.69
Aspartame (mg/kg/weight)	0.68 ± 0.99	1.02 ± 1.56	0.86 ± 1.50
Saccharin (mg/kg/weight)	0.05 ± 0.05	0.08 ± 0.09	0.07 ± 0.15
Cyclamate (mg/kg/weight)	0.13 ± 0.16	0.24 ± 0.25 [*]	0.08 ± 0.15 [*]
Sucralose (mg/kg/weight)	0.58 ± 0.62	0.56 ± 0.56	0.52 ± 0.05
Stevia (mg/kg/weight)	0.49 ± 0.45	0.53 ± 0.52	0.47 ± 0.57

Values expressed as mean ± SD. Anova and Bonferroni post hoc test. Same symbols indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Table III. Comparison of sweetener consumption by socioeconomic group

Variables	High (n = 120)	Medium high (n = 126)	Medium (n = 142)	Medium-low (n = 120)	Low (n = 93)
Acesulfame k (mg/weight)	28.2 ± 42.0	37.8 ± 52.9	37.8 ± 63.7	37.9 ± 49.4	24.7 ± 23.8
Aspartame (mg/weight)	50.8 ± 52.9	67.8 ± 114.8	63.1 ± 117.8	65.9 ± 109.2	43.6 ± 50.4
Saccharin (mg/weight)	0.9 ± 3.0	0.3 ± 1.2	1.4 ± 1.9	0.4 ± 1.8	1.5 ± 2.3
Cyclamate (mg/weight)	0.9 ± 4.1	0.6 ± 2.3	0.3 ± 2.5	0.4 ± 2.7	2.2 ± 4.3
Sucralose (mg/weight)	36.6 ± 36.6	43.8 ± 36.5	46.9 ± 48.0	47.9 ± 48.1	44.7 ± 47.0
Stevia (mg/weight)	30.6 ± 41.9	33.3 ± 40.4	75.8 ± 36.7	20.8 ± 27.4	17.0 ± 14.6

Values expressed as mean ± SD. Anova and Bonferroni post hoc test.

Table IV. Average and maximum consumption, crude and as percentage of ADI

	ADI	Maximum consumption	Average consumption	Maximum/ADI %	Average/ADI %
Acesulfame k (mg/kg/weight)	15	6.6	0.48	44%	3.2%
Aspartame (mg/kg/weight)	40	14.9	0.9	37.2%	2.2%
Saccharin (mg/kg/weight)	5	0.8	0.07	16.0%	1.4%
Cyclamate (mg/kg/weight)	7	0.8	0.16	11.4%	2.2%
Sucralose (mg/kg/weight)	15	3.6	0.54	24.0%	3.6%
Stevia (mg/kg/weight)	4	3.3	0.50	82.5%	12.5%

ADI: acceptable daily intake.

Figure 1 shows that NCS consumption can vary by food type. Acesulfame k, aspartame and table sweetener are prevalent in drinks and juices, saccharine and cyclamate in preserves and marmalades, and sucralose and stevia in dairy (especially yogurt).

DISCUSSION

In our sample, NCS consumption was almost universal, however, no pregnant woman exceeded the ADI for any sweetener,

also without any major differences in relation to social economic status and trimester of pregnancy.

In our study, a high prevalence of NCS consumption was observed (98%), however, when we evaluated only intake of beverages with NCS, consumption decreased to 41.2%, a result much higher than that reported in other studies. In a sample of Danish pregnant women, 13% of NCS consumption came from beverages (15,16).

Several studies have evaluated whether the intake of NCS exceeds the ADI in both children and adults (8-11,17,18). Other studies have shown high levels of cyclamate and saccharin con-

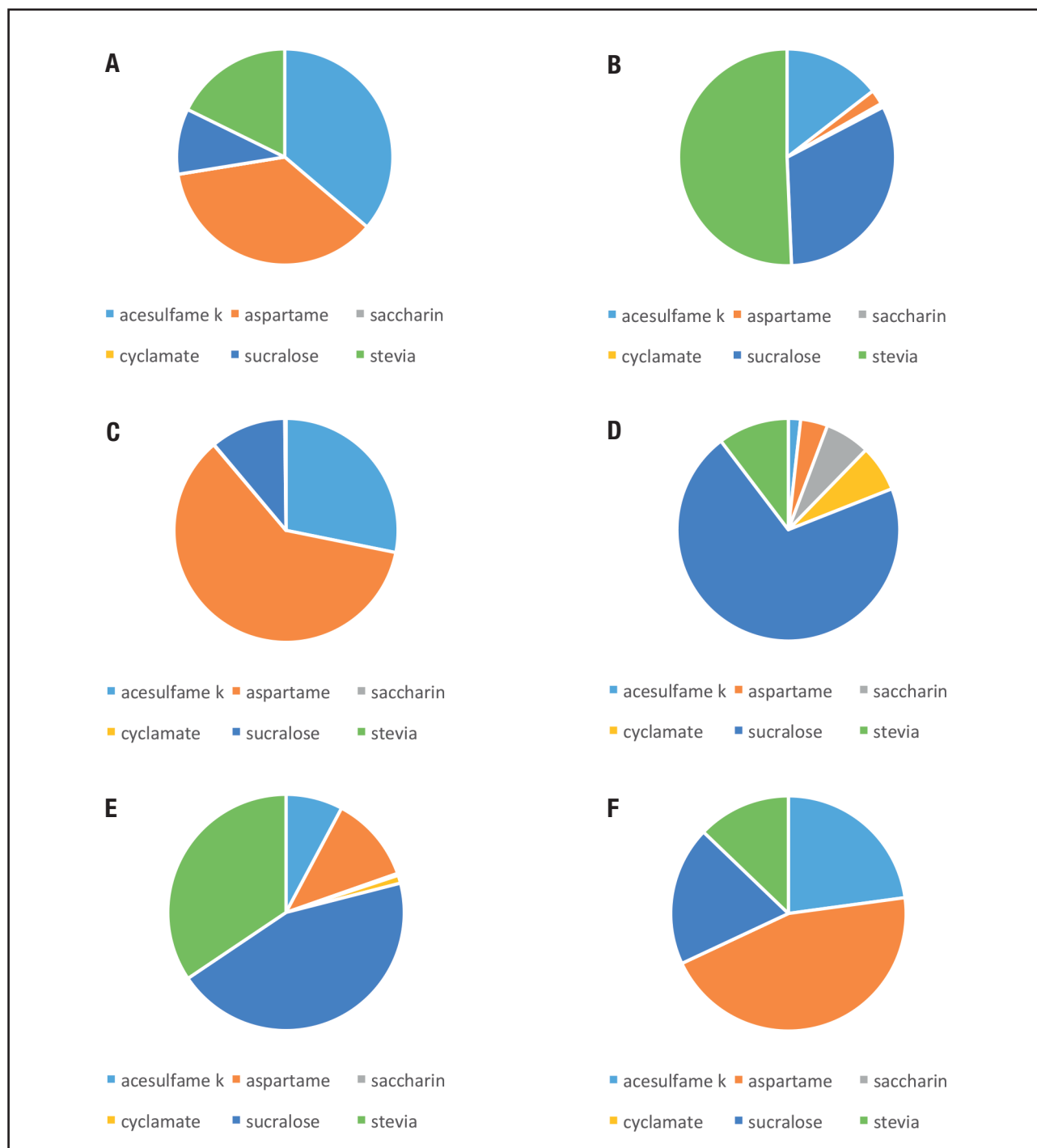


Figure 1.

Presence of non-caloric sweeteners in different food groups. A. Breakfast cereal. B. Dairy products. C. Sodas and juices. D. Cookies and ice cream. E. Jams. F. Table sweetener.

sumption (19,20), however, a relatively low consumption of those NCS was observed in our study.

Having a wide variety of NCS in the market makes it difficult to exceed the ADI, since its use is diversified. Not all NCS can be used in all products, for example, aspartame degrades at high temperatures (21), which makes its use impossible in cooked foods.

Regarding saccharin, this NCS crosses the human placenta (22). In a study carried out in rhesus monkeys, the elimination of saccharin from the fetus was much slower than on the mother's side, suggesting that repeated maternal ingestion of saccharin could lead to saccharin accumulation in the mother and fetus (23). Data from animals reporting exposure at doses of 100 to

400 times the human ADI do not suggest a risk of malformations (24). A case-control study reports no increased risk of spontaneous abortion in women who consumed saccharin (25).

Participants consumed the lowest amounts of saccharin and cyclamate. Less than 15% of pregnant women indicated eating foods containing these NCS, probably because the foods that contain them (e.g., jams and preserved fruits) are less massively consumed. In relation to cyclamate, this NCS also crosses the placental barrier, approaching the amniotic fluid in a proportion of one quarter of the concentration in maternal blood, and thus reaches fetal tissues (26). Currently, cyclamate is approved by *Codex Alimentarius* and EFSA, but not by the FDA.

Like saccharin and cyclamate, acesulfame k crosses the placental barrier (26). Acesulfame k is absorbed in the small intestine and is excreted by the kidney in less than 24 hours without being metabolized, so it does not produce oxidative energy (27).

Sucralose, the NCS with the highest prevalence of consumption in the sample, cannot be easily absorbed by the digestive tract. Approximately 85% is eliminated in feces and the remaining 15% is passively absorbed and cannot be metabolized for energy purposes (28).

A study conducted in humans found that aspartame degradation products cross the placenta (30). However, a dose of 200 mg/kg of aspartame (four to five times the ADI) did not lead to toxicity, such as methanol poisoning or increase of phenylalanine in fetal blood to levels associated with mental retardation in the offspring (29). Based on available data, the consumption of aspartame during pregnancy is not expected to be a concern while consumption does not exceed recommended levels (30).

The NCSs most consumed by pregnant women according to the results of this study were sucralose and stevia, present mainly in beverages, juices, and dairy and table sweeteners.

It is interesting to note that NCS consumption did not present differences by trimester of pregnancy, nor by socioeconomic level, which contrasts with findings from the National Food Survey, where consumption and education are positively related (31).

Stevia glycosides (stevioside, rebaudioside A, rebaudioside D, rebaudioside M, steviol glycosides) are considered as "generally recognized as safe" by the FDA. However, the FDA has not allowed the use of stevia leaf or the raw leaf extract.

We observed that the consumption closest to the ADI was for stevia (82.5%), followed by acesulfame k (44%). Average values, however, were under 5% of the ADI, except for stevia, which reached 12%.

A recent study shows that the consumption of NCS during pregnancy may increase the risk of overweight in children (32).

Research on NCS has focused mainly on artificially sweetened beverages for several reasons: their consumption has increased over the past 30 years and they are the largest contributor to total NCS intake. A study that evaluated maternal consumption of beverages with NCS and infant weight gain suggests that when oral or intestinal receptors are exposed to artificial sweeteners, hormonal signals between the intestine and the brain can stimulate appetite and lead to weight gain (33).

In a Canadian cohort study, 3,033 pregnant women were followed until their child turned one year old. The study concluded

that more than a quarter of women (29.5%) consumed beverages with NCS during pregnancy, including 5.1% who reported daily consumption. In comparison with no consumption, the daily consumption of beverages with NCS is associated with an increase of 0.20 units in BMIz for infants (adjusted 95% CI, 0.02-0.38) and two times higher risk of overweight at one year of age (adjusted OR: 2.19, 95% CI, 1.23-3.88). These effects were not explained by maternal BMI, diet quality, total energy intake or other obesity risk factors (34).

A study that included 59,334 Danish pregnant women evaluated the association between the consumption of drinks sweetened with sugar or NCS and preterm birth. The study found a positive association between consuming beverages with NCS and prematurity; the adjusted OR for those who drank > 1 serving/day was 1.11 (95% CI = 1.00-1.24) (15).

Another prospective longitudinal study in Danish pregnant women, which included 60,466 women, evaluated the association between beverages with NCS, childhood asthma and allergic rhinitis. Mothers who consumed beverages with NCS were more likely (OR = 1.23, 95% CI = 1.13-1.33) to report a diagnosis of asthma in their children, compared to women who drank beverages sweetened with sugar. Similarly, mothers who consumed beverages with NCS were more likely to have a child diagnosed with asthma at seven years (OR = 1.30, 95% CI = 1.01-1.66) (16). Although the association was stronger for drinks sweetened with sugar, the authors concluded that they could not determine whether this risk is due to the effect of these beverages or other associated dietary or socioeconomic factors.

A study conducted on 20 breastfeeding mothers determined the presence of NCS in human milk and found saccharin, sucralose and acesulfame k (35). The finding of sucralose is controversial since the absorption is very low < 15%, and it is mostly eliminated in feces (36).

However, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis concludes that there is limited and inconsistent evidence of the long-term effects of metabolic exposure of NCS during pregnancy, lactation and childhood. Further research is needed to support recommendations for the use of NCS in this sensitive population (37).

On the other hand, the highest quality evidence, systematic reviews and meta-analysis, show that NCS consumption is a safe and effective option that can help reduce the number of calories we eat and drink (38,39), and can be a tool to limit excessive weight gain during pregnancy.

The food and additive safety, including NCS safety, is based on animal studies as required by the FDA approval process. The appropriate use of animal models is consistent with the International Conference on harmonization of protocols, which allows testing with large amounts of food additives that would not be allowed in human subjects (5). On the basis of the available data, it is not possible to identify any benefit or draw conclusions regarding the risks related to the consumption of intense sweeteners during pregnancy, in terms of maternal health, obstetric parameters or the health of the newborn.

Among the strengths of the study, it must be noted the use of a validated and adapted survey to quantify the consumption of

sweeteners in this group and not of nutrients. In addition, pregnant women of different socioeconomic levels were considered. Only Chile and Mexico require the type and quantity of NCS be reported on food labels, which makes our data more reliable. Among the weaknesses, the cross-sectional nature of our study and that results depend on the reliability of the nutritional labels should be considered.

CONCLUSIONS

As far as we have found in research, this is the first study evaluating NCS intake in pregnant women. A high prevalence of consumption was found; however, despite massive consumption, no NCS exceeded the ADI. More studies of this type are required, especially cohort studies, to evaluate possible health risk of this food additive.

NCS are widely consumed in the population, in replacement of sugar, to reduce the consumption of total calories. However, there are no long-term studies of NCS consumption among pregnant women that guarantee safety.

When reviewing the guidelines from the Ministries of Health from different countries, the recommendations for NCS consumption are scant. In Chile, the Ministry of Health suggests moderate consumption during pregnancy of aspartame, sucralose, acesulfame potassium, and steviolosides. Alternatives to saccharin are also suggested, since it is removed more slowly from the fetus.

Further studies involving the use of NCSs in pregnant and nursing mothers are required to understand their effects on energy consumption, appetite, satiety, weight control, biochemical parameters such as insulin, glucose, leptin, cortisol and preference for sweet flavors.

Pregnancy is a time of special attention. Given the current obesity epidemic and the widespread use of NCS, more research is justified to confirm our findings and investigate underlying biological mechanisms. Special populations, such as pregnant women, should limit their consumption of NCS.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Pero, doctor, ¿entonces qué puedo comer?

So doctor, what could I eat then?

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Resumen

Introducción: las estrictas restricciones dietéticas que imponemos en la enfermedad renal crónica avanzada (ERCA) tienen un impacto negativo en la calidad de vida.

Objetivo: determinar si estas restricciones están justificadas y si un programa de educación nutricional mejoraría los parámetros de calidad de vida relacionada con la salud (CVRS).

Material y métodos: realizamos un ensayo clínico de intervención educativa, unicéntrico, randomizado y controlado en los pacientes de la consulta ERCA de Albacete. Se incluyeron 75 pacientes, 35 en el grupo control y 40 en el de intervención. Se realizó la valoración nutricional mediante valoración global subjetiva (VGS) e índice de masa corporal (IMC). Para medir la CVRS se empleó el cuestionario de salud SF-36. En el grupo intervención se realizó la intervención nutricional individual, colectiva y por recuerdo telefónico, adaptando a cada paciente el consejo dietético y ajustando las restricciones de forma personalizada.

Resultados: la malnutrición medida por VGS fue del 20% en el grupo control y del 29,3% en el grupo intervención, donde mejoró aunque no fue significativo. El IMC mostró sobrepeso con una media de 28,83 (DE: 5,4) y 26,96 kg/m² (DE: 4,09) respectivamente, sin cambios a lo largo del estudio. La intervención nutricional supuso una mejora en las puntuaciones de todas las subescalas excepto en el dolor corporal. Además, los componentes físico y mental también mejoraron sus puntuaciones en el grupo intervención y empeoraron significativamente ($p < 0,001$) en el control.

Conclusiones: la calidad de vida se puede mejorar en los pacientes con ERCA aplicando un programa de educación nutricional.

Abstract

Introduction: the strict dietary recommendations we impose on patients with advanced chronic kidney disease (ACKD) have negative impact on quality of life.

Objective: determine whether such restrictions are justified and if an educational program can improve health-related quality of life (HRQL) parameters.

Methods: we carried out an educational intervention, single center, randomized, controlled clinical trial on ACKD outpatients in Albacete. Seventy-five patients were included, 35 in the control group and 40 in the intervention group. Nutritional assessment was based on the Subjective Global Assessment (SGA) and body mass index (BMI). We used the SF-36 health questionnaire to measure HRQL. In the intervention group we carried out individual, collective and telephone nutritional interventions, adapting diet advice and restrictions in a personalized way.

Results: malnutrition measured by Subjective Global Assessment (SGA) in the control group was 20%; meanwhile, in the intervention group it was 29.3% and it improved at the end of the study, but not significantly. BMI showed overweight with a mean of 28.83 kg/m² (DE: 5.4) and 26.96 kg/m² (DE: 4.09), respectively, and did not change throughout the study. The nutritional intervention improved the score in all the subscales except for body pain score. Besides, mental and physical components also improved their scores in the intervention group and worsened them in the control group ($p < 0.001$).

Conclusions: quality of life can be improved in ACKD patients applying an educational nutrition program.

Palabras clave:

Enfermedad renal crónica avanzada. Educación nutricional. Valoración global subjetiva. Calidad de vida.

Key words:

Advanced chronic kidney disease. Nutritional assessment. Subjective Global Assessment. Quality of life.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La enfermedad renal crónica avanzada (ERCA), definida como descenso grave del filtrado glomerular (FG) por debajo de 30 ml/min/1,73 m², incluye los estadios 4 y 5 de la clasificación de la enfermedad renal crónica (ERC) (1).

La malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad renal es un problema clínico creciente que predispone a un peor pronóstico y puede conducir a aumento de la morbilidad si no se interviene a tiempo (2).

La mayoría de estudios sobre nutrición y ERC están realizados en pacientes en diálisis con una prevalencia de malnutrición que oscila entre el 35 y el 65% (3,4). Apenas existen estudios sobre pacientes en ERCA no en diálisis y son estudios de pequeño tamaño que han reportado una prevalencia de malnutrición del 12-28% (5-7).

El concepto de malnutrición engloba tanto los problemas derivados del déficit como del exceso de ingesta de nutrientes (8-10). De hecho, los pacientes renales también han sucumbido a la epidemia de sobrepeso y obesidad que afecta al resto de la población.

Las medidas higiénicas-dietéticas son una parte fundamental del tratamiento del paciente crónico y el consejo nutricional debe ser la primera recomendación junto con la incentivación de la realización de ejercicio físico en la medida de sus posibilidades. En la etapa prediálisis, el asesoramiento dietético se emplea como medida renoprotectora y antiproteinúrica para prevenir tanto el sobrepeso como la desnutrición a lo largo de todos los estadios de la enfermedad renal. La mayoría de estas recomendaciones se basan en restricciones y prohibiciones, habitualmente demasiado estrictas y no individualizadas. Dichas medidas llevan a los pacientes a preguntar en cada consulta: *"Doctor, ¿qué puedo comer?"*. Algunas de las restricciones más extremas no han demostrado ofrecer ventajas significativas en los pacientes ni mejorar su pronóstico, e incluso podrían empeorar la calidad de vida y el bienestar de nuestros pacientes provocando malnutrición (11). La alimentación es el aspecto del tratamiento en el que más pueden participar los pacientes renales y puede crear mucha ansiedad, lo cual afecta negativamente a la calidad de vida.

La calidad de vida relacionada con la salud (CVRS) se ha definido como la evaluación que realiza el individuo respecto a su salud y su grado de funcionamiento para la realización de las actividades cotidianas, que incluye las funciones física, psicológica y social, la percepción general de la salud, la movilidad y el bienestar emocional (12). La ERCA tiene un gran impacto sobre la CVRS desde los estadios iniciales de la enfermedad hasta su fase terminal. Los síntomas urémicos, las restricciones dietéticas y su tratamiento se ven reflejados en la calidad de vida de estos pacientes y esto conduce a un aumento de la mortalidad (13).

Por ello, nos planteamos si interviniendo en la nutrición en forma de intervención nutricional personalizada mejorarían los parámetros de CVRS comparados con el tratamiento estándar.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

PARTICIPANTES Y DISEÑO DEL ESTUDIO

Se trata de un ensayo clínico de intervención educativa, unicéntrico, randomizado, abierto y controlado, cuya población a estudio

son los pacientes de la consulta ERCA de Albacete. El estudio fue aprobado por el comité ético y de investigación de nuestro hospital.

Participaron pacientes de 18 a 80 años diagnosticados de ERCA y atendidos en las consultas de Nefrología del Hospital General Universitario de Albacete. Los criterios de inclusión fueron no haber recibido previamente tratamiento renal sustitutivo, no control previo por nutricionista y capacidad para dar un consentimiento informado. Los criterios de exclusión incluyeron cualquier enfermedad infecciosa o tumoral activa.

Los pacientes se aleatorizaron en dos grupos: control e intervención.

En ambos grupos se realizó la valoración nutricional mediante la valoración global subjetiva (VGS) e índice de masa corporal (IMC), medidas ambas en primera visita y a los tres, seis y 12 meses. Para medir la CVRS se emplea la versión española del cuestionario de salud SF-36, realizado a los seis y 12 meses (14). El SF-36 evalúa el impacto de la enfermedad en el funcionamiento adaptativo y proporciona un perfil del estado de salud. Contiene 36 ítems con formato de respuesta tipo Likert de dos, tres, cinco y seis puntos según el ítem, con un rango de 0 a 100: a mayor puntuación, mejor estado de salud. Estos 36 ítems componen ocho dimensiones: función física, rol físico, dolor corporal, salud general, vitalidad, función social, rol emocional y salud mental. Por la agregación de estas dimensiones se calculan dos componentes: el componente de salud física (CSF) y el componente de salud mental (CSM).

En el grupo intervención se realizó la intervención nutricional de forma individual y colectiva con la ayuda de dietistas, endocrinos, nefrólogos y cocineros profesionales, así como recuerdos telefónicos durante el año de seguimiento. Pacientes y familiares aprendieron conceptos básicos de alimentación, métodos de cocción y preparación de alimentos adaptadas a sus necesidades, sistema de intercambio de alimentos y, de forma individualizada, se dieron los consejos en cuanto a los cambios que debían realizar en su dieta según su historia clínica para las ingestas de macro y micronutrientes. Se realizaron seis sesiones colectivas, ocho recuerdos telefónicos durante el año y talleres de cocina con el fin de aprender conceptos sobre alimentación enfocados a su enfermedad y facilitar el contacto entre pacientes y familiares.

En el grupo control se realizaron las mismas mediciones, aplicándose las instrucciones habituales sobre estilo de vida que se dan en la consulta ERCA.

El objetivo principal del estudio fue determinar si esas restricciones están justificadas y si un programa de intervención nutricional personalizado que las minimice mejoraría los parámetros de CVRS comparados con el tratamiento estándar.

El objetivo secundario, además, fue determinar la situación nutricional y la prevalencia de malnutrición en la consulta ERCA de Albacete.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Para la descripción de la muestra se han utilizado medidas de tendencia central (media y desviación típica) en el caso de las

variables métricas y medidas de frecuencia (frecuencia absoluta y porcentaje) en el caso de las variables cualitativas. Las diferencias entre grupos, cuando se trata de variables cuantitativas, se han evaluado mediante la prueba t de Student (pruebas paramétricas) o mediante la prueba U de Mann-Whitney (pruebas no paramétricas).

Las comparaciones intergrupales de variables cualitativas se han realizado mediante la prueba de Chi-cuadrado, utilizando el estadístico exacto de Fisher en aquellas ocasiones en las que existían casillas con una frecuencia esperada inferior a 5. En el caso de las comparaciones intragrupo, para evaluar la progresión de los participantes a lo largo del estudio, comparando sus resultados en las cuatro visitas en las variables métricas, se han utilizado el modelo lineal general para medidas repetidas (pruebas paramétricas) y el estadístico de Friedman (prueba no paramétrica). Para las comparaciones intragrupo de variables cualitativas a lo largo de las cuatro visitas se ha utilizado la prueba Q de Cochran para muestras relacionadas.

Para analizar las variables asociadas con la calidad de vida, evaluada mediante la escala SF36, se realizaron varias regresiones lineales. Como variables dependientes (una por modelo), se han introducido la puntuación en la dimensión mental y la puntuación en la dimensión física (todas a los seis y a los 12 meses). Como variables independientes se han utilizado el haber recibido el tratamiento, el sexo, el IMC y la VGS. Se ha utilizado el método por pasos hacia atrás.

Los análisis estadísticos del estudio se han realizado con el software SPSS (versión 20).

RESULTADOS

El estudio incluyó un total de 75 pacientes distribuidos de forma aleatoria en un grupo control con 35 pacientes y un grupo

intervención con 40. En el grupo control la edad media fue de 56,6 años (DE: 13,24) y en el grupo intervención, de 57,3 años (DE: 13,26). El 60% del grupo control fueron varones y el 52,5% en el grupo intervención.

La causa más frecuente de enfermedad renal fue la etiología glomerular en el grupo control y la nefropatía intersticial crónica en el grupo intervención. Los dos grupos presentan una elevada incidencia de factores de riesgo cardiovascular; más del 70% en ambos grupos presentaba hipertensión arterial (HTA), dislipemia e hiperuricemia. Ambos grupos presentaron, al menos, tres comorbilidades asociadas. En cuanto a edad, sexo, hábitat, causa de la insuficiencia renal y comorbilidad asociada no hubo diferencias significativas entre los dos grupos (Tabla I).

Mediante la VGS se clasificó a los pacientes en tres categorías: a) paciente bien nutrido; b) paciente moderadamente o con sospecha de estar malnutrido; y c) paciente severamente desnutrido. Encontramos una malnutrición en forma de desnutrición medida por VGS para categoría B del 20% en el grupo control y del 29,3% en el grupo intervención. Para la categoría C no hubo ningún paciente en el grupo control y solo dos (4,9%) en el grupo intervención al inicio del estudio. Ya desde la visita 2, se produjo una mejoría en el grupo intervención respecto a los controles, aunque las diferencias no son significativas ($p > 0,05$) (Tabla II).

El IMC (kg/m^2) mostró inicialmente una situación de sobrepeso en ambos grupos, con una media de 28,83 (DE: 5,4) y 26,96 kg/m^2 (DE: 4,09), respectivamente, sin cambios a lo largo del estudio ($p > 0,05$), tal como se muestra en la figura 1. Al inicio del estudio el porcentaje de pacientes con un IMC > 25 en rango de sobrepeso fue del 38,2% y el de obesidad con IMC > 30 fue del 31,6%.

En la tabla III se muestran los resultados de las puntuaciones de las ocho dimensiones en cada grupo desde la medición basal, a los seis y a los 12 meses. Podemos observar que mejoran de

Tabla I. Características de la muestra y por grupos. Comorbilidad asociada

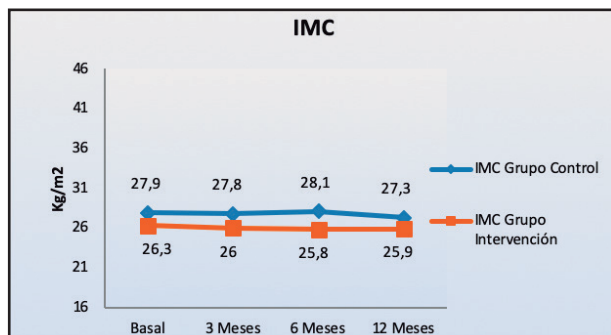
	Muestra total (n = 75)	Grupo control (n = 35)	Grupo intervención (n = 40)	Valor p
Edad (años)	56,9 años (DE: 13,17)	56,6 años (DE: 13,24)	57,3 años (DE: 13,26)	P: n.s.
Sexo (% hombres/mujeres)	56,5/43,5	53/47	60/40	P: n.s.
Índice de Charlson	4,2 (DE: 1,7)	4,3 (DE: 1,69)	4,1 (DE: 1,74)	P: n.s.
HTA (%)	94,7	94,3	95	P: n.s.
DL (%)	81,3	88,6	75	P: n.s.
DM (%)	25,3	22,9	27,5	P: n.s.
VP (%)	10,7	14,3	7,5	P: n.s.
ECV (%)	1,3	0	2,5	P: n.s.
Fumador (%)	11,4	14,3	8,6	P: n.s.
Hiperuricemia (%)	77,3	82,9	72,5	P: n.s.
CI (%)	10,7	11,4	10	P: n.s.
Alteración metabolismo mineral (%)	62,3	68,6	56,1	P: n.s.
Anemia (%)	42,7	40	45	P: n.s.
Número de comorbilidades	3,2 (DE: 1,03)	3,3 (DE: 0,9)	3,1 (DE: 1,2)	P: n.s.

HTA: hipertensión arterial; DL: dislipemia; DM: diabetes mellitus; VP: vasculopatía periférica; ECV: enfermedad cerebrovascular; CI: cardiopatía isquémica.

Tabla II. Valoración global subjetiva (VGS) basal, a los 3, 6 y 12 meses del estudio

VGS	Visita 1 (basal)		Visita 2 (3 m)		Visita 3 (6 m)		Visita 4 (12 m)	
	Grupo control	Grupo intervención	Grupo control	Grupo intervención	Grupo control	Grupo intervención	Grupo control	Grupo intervención
A (%)	80	65,9	77,8	92,1	79,2	88,6	75	88,9
B (%)	20	29,3	22,2	7,9	20,8	11,4	20	8,3
C (%)	0	4,9%	0	0	0	0	5	2,8

A: bien nutrido; B: desnutrido leve o en riesgo de desnutrición; C: desnutrido grave.

**Figura 1.**

IMC expresado en kg/m². Valoración basal a los 3, 6 y 12 meses.

forma global todas las escalas en el grupo intervención y que empeoran en el control.

En las figuras 2 y 3 vemos cómo los componentes físico y mental también presentaron mejoría en sus puntuaciones en el grupo intervención y empeoraron en el control, con diferencias significativas en ambos.

El análisis multivariante de regresión logística se ha realizado relacionando la puntuación de los CSF y CSM con grupo, sexo e IMC como variables independientes cuantitativas y la VGS como variable independiente categórica.

Para el CSF (Tabla III), a los seis meses y 12 meses mejora la puntuación ser grupo intervención y la empeoran ser mujer,

tener un IMC elevado y ser categoría B o C de VGS respecto a ser A.

Para el CSM (Tabla IV), a los seis meses mejora ser grupo intervención y empeora ser categoría B o C de la VGS. A los 12 meses, además, se añade el sexo; ser mujer empeora la puntuación.

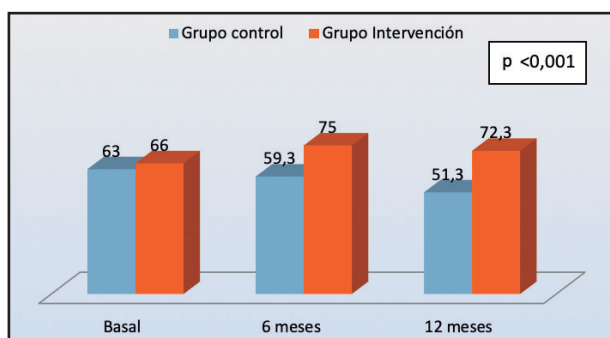
DISCUSIÓN

El paciente renal presenta una menor CVRS que la encontrada en la población general debido a variables clínicas, sociodemográficas, diálisis, síntomas físicos, apoyo social y el impacto de la enfermedad. La sintomatología de la enfermedad renal limita las actividades físicas, interfiere en las actividades diarias, intensifica el dolor y hace que el paciente realice una peor valoración de su estado de salud. Además, una mala situación nutricional en pacientes en diálisis se ha relacionado fundamentalmente con el empeoramiento de los componentes de salud física y algo menos con los de salud mental.

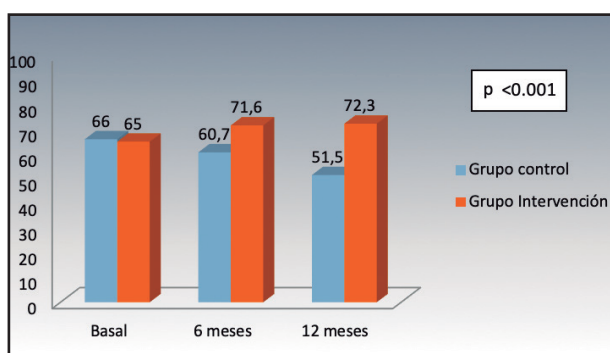
La mayoría de estudios que muestran una estrecha relación entre los indicadores de CVRS y los índices de morbilidad están centrados en pacientes en diálisis (15,16) y solo el 5% de los artículos que relacionan calidad de vida y enfermedad renal crónica están realizados en la etapa prediálisis (12). En esta fase, un descenso del FG y un aumento de los síntomas urémicos se asocian con una reducción en la capacidad funcional y una peor puntuación en los cuestionarios de calidad de

Tabla III. Puntuaciones de las escalas del cuestionario SF36 en los grupos control e intervención basal, a los 6 y a los 12 meses

Medida del cuestionario SF36	Grupo control basal	Grupo intervención basal	Grupo control 6 meses	Grupo intervención 6 meses	Grupo control 12 meses	Grupo intervención 12 meses	p
Función física	80	81	81	92	77	89	0,67
Rol físico	63	79	56	93	34	76	0,001
Dolor corporal	72	68	34,4	63,8	29,6	62,7	0,003
Salud general	49	42	35,9	44	35,7	49,7	0,029
Vitalidad	51	58	52,4	67,6	43	69,4	< 0,001
Función social	82	79	78	90,7	62	83,2	0,002
Rol emocional	80	79	74,6	83,8	58,3	87,6	0,016
Salud mental	67	67	62,8	71,4	58,8	71,6	0,020

**Figura 2.**

Puntuación del componente salud física (CSF) del cuestionario SF-36.

**Figura 3.**

Componente salud mental.

vida. En el estudio de Campbell (6), con población prediálisis, en general, la puntuación del componente físico global fue significativamente menor que los valores de la población general descritos en la literatura y el componente mental fue similar al de la población general.

Nuestro estudio pretendía mejorar la calidad de vida de los pacientes con ERCA al ayudarles en la nutrición, un aspecto clave de su enfermedad que crea mucho estrés a los pacientes en su tratamiento diario, objetivo que se cumplió con creces al encontrar mejoría en las puntuaciones de todos los parámetros de calidad de vida que se midieron.

El perfil nutricional en la ERC viene determinado por factores previos al estado urémico, como circunstancias relacionadas con la enfermedad de base y sus complicaciones, factores genéticos y ambientales y procesos agudos coexistentes y relacionados con el tratamiento sustitutivo renal, si es el caso. En los últimos años, viene apareciendo en la literatura el término *protein energy wasting* (PEW), que se define como el estado patológico en el que existe una disminución de los depósitos proteicos y energéticos (17). Se ha traducido al castellano como desgaste proteico energético (DPE) y otorga igual importancia al catabolismo y a la malnutrición (18).

La mayoría de estudios sobre nutrición y ERC están realizados en pacientes en diálisis, en los cuales la prevalencia de desnutrición en la ERC oscila en un amplio rango, entre el 12% y el 75% (3,4,19,20). Hasta la fecha, existen muy pocos estudios que describan la prevalencia de malnutrición en estadios prediálisis, con cifras que oscilan del 18% al 28%. En el estudio de Campbell y cols. (6), tras 12 semanas de seguimiento en 56 pacientes australianos con ERC estadio 4, hallaron una prevalencia de malnutrición del 12% (5). Lawson y cols. encuentran un 28% de prevalencia de malnutrición y Sanches y cols. (21), un 18%. En 2018 se publica un estudio español de 186 pacientes que reporta un 27,9% de desnutrición (7). Nosotros encontramos una malnutrición en forma de desnutrición medida por VGS de entre el 20 y el 29,3%, similar a la descrita en la literatura.

Por otro lado, el IMC nos muestra una población con obesidad y sobrepeso, reflejo de lo que está ocurriendo en la sociedad general. Según el estudio ENPE referido a población de entre 25 y 64 años ($n = 3.966$), la prevalencia de sobrepeso estimada en adultos es del 39,3% y la de obesidad general, del 21,6% (22). En

Tabla IV. Modelo de regresión lineal del componente de salud física a los 6 y a los 12 meses

Modelo	RR	Intervalo de confianza de 95,0% para B		p
		Límite inferior	Límite superior	
CSF SF-36 a los 6 meses				
(Constante)	106,153	61,853	150,452	0,000
Grupo	12,803	2,832	22,773	0,013
Sexo	-9,801	-19,508	-0,894	0,048
IMC	-1,074	-2,220	0,072	0,066
VGS	-13,649	-27,575	0,276	0,055
CSF SF-36 total a los 12 meses				
(Constante)	68,191	14,704	121,677	0,014
Grupo	22,557	12,431	32,683	0,000
Sexo	-14,954	-24,911	-4,996	0,004
IMC	-1,664	-2,756	-0,573	0,004
VGS	-48,474	-78,688	-18,260	0,003

IMC: índice de masa corporal; VGS: valoración global subjetiva.

las últimas actualizaciones de la Sociedad Española de Nefrología, se hace especial hincapié en esta epidemia y se describe que más de la mitad de los pacientes con ERCA presentan obesidad o sobrepeso con ERCA (23).

El concepto de malnutrición engloba tanto los problemas derivados del déficit como del exceso de ingesta de nutrientes y no debe considerarse exclusivamente sinónimo de desnutrición. La existencia de sobrepeso u obesidad no excluye, ni mucho menos, el déficit de la ingesta de proteínas y energía, encontrándose estos pacientes en riesgo de desnutrición (24).

Hasta hace poco se advertía exclusivamente de la malnutrición en forma de déficit como el DPE, pero debemos empezar a prestar atención a la malnutrición en forma de exceso y combatir la obesidad desde estadios precoces de la enfermedad renal para frenar el síndrome metabólico, ya que hay que recordar que la primera causa de mortalidad en los pacientes renales es la enfermedad cardiovascular (25,26).

Las recomendaciones sobre el estilo de vida siempre han sido una parte fundamental del tratamiento del paciente crónico. El asesoramiento nutricional debe ser la primera recomendación al paciente junto con la incentivación de la realización de ejercicio físico en la medida de sus posibilidades. Durante el seguimiento, en la etapa que antecede al inicio del tratamiento con diálisis, el asesoramiento dietético se emplea como medida renoprotectora y antiproteinúrica, así como para prevenir el sobrepeso y la desnutrición.

En nuestras consultas, el principal consejo dietético lo realiza el nefrólogo y es mayoritariamente en forma de restricciones. No contamos con dietistas especializados para la valoración y el tratamiento nutricional de los enfermos renales.

En los casos de sobrepeso y obesidad se recomienda perder peso mediante la restricción de energía en forma de hidratos de carbono y grasas. Por otro lado, se indican dietas bajas en calcio, fósforo, proteínas, sodio y potasio, y esto no siempre permite garantizar un adecuado soporte calórico, proteico y mineral. Muchas veces, el precio a pagar por una dieta, en teoría adecuada a la enfermedad del paciente, es una nutrición deficitaria.

Para una dieta hipopotasémica se recomienda la limitación de la ingesta de frutas y verduras y técnicas culinarias como la doble cocción. Esto es muy laborioso y conlleva la pérdida de sabor y de muchos nutrientes; además, existen muy pocos estudios científicos que demuestren la efectividad de estos métodos (27). Esto supone la mayoría de las veces una dieta insípida, monótona y baja en fibra y vitaminas. También se limita con frecuencia el consumo de lácteos en las dietas bajas en calcio y fósforo e hipoproteicas. Asimismo, se prohíben grasas saturadas, productos procesados, embutidos, bollería, panes y dulces.

Una de nuestras propuestas fue minimizar las restricciones o prohibiciones y facilitar la elección informada en los pacientes del grupo intervención, aumentando el consumo de fruta y verdura, fomentando el uso de alimentos frescos y animando a cocinarlos con distintas técnicas para evitar la monotonía. También se incentivó el empleo de microvegetales y condimentos (especies y similares) para mejorar la palatabilidad y por su bajo contenido en potasio. De esta manera, quisimos acercarnos a la dieta

mediterránea y a hábitos destinados a la prevención y el control del síndrome metabólico.

Frecuentemente, las restricciones extremas no son necesarias o son demasiado estrictas e impersonales, y no solo no han demostrado ofrecer ventajas significativas en los pacientes ni en su pronóstico sino que podrían incluso empeorar la calidad de vida y el bienestar de nuestros pacientes (11). Los pacientes solo disponen muchas veces de la información por escrito con los alimentos prohibidos, y no de menús, recetas y técnicas culinarias específicas, ni de bases de datos fiables, y sobre todo, no saben cómo usarlas.

Esto lleva a los pacientes y familiares a preguntar en cada consulta: *“Pero, doctor, ¿entonces qué puedo comer?”*, ya que la alimentación es el aspecto del tratamiento renal en el que más pueden participar.

Al instaurar este programa de educación nutricional, los pacientes se sintieron atendidos y muchos volvieron a comer alimentos que no probaban desde hacía años, mejorando su conocimiento sobre nutrición renal. Esta intervención personalizada tuvo en cuenta las preferencias alimentarias y los hábitos alimentarios, minimizando las restricciones y prohibiciones y facilitando una elección informada. Tras la intervención, mejoraron todos los parámetros de calidad de vida que se midieron, confirmando la influencia de la dieta en el bienestar de los pacientes. Encontramos una relación entre nutrición y calidad de vida, ya que empeoraron las puntuaciones tanto estar desnutrido como un IMC elevado, mientras que pertenecer al grupo intervención las mejoraba. No hemos observado diferencias importantes entre las puntuaciones de los componentes de salud física y los de salud mental, lo que podría deberse a que nuestros pacientes no se encontraban ante una mala situación nutricional que implicara desnutrición y no son pacientes en diálisis. Para contrastar nuestros datos, no hemos encontrado estudios que comparasen todas las subescalas de CVRS con valores de VGS en ERCA, o cualquier marcador nutricional relacionado con calidad de vida en ERCA en población que no estuviese ya en diálisis.

Como conclusión, la calidad de vida se puede mejorar en los pacientes con ERCA aplicando un programa de educación nutricional. Desde nuestros resultados nos parece lógico recomendar la mejora del conocimiento de los pacientes sobre nutrición renal mediante programas educativos estructurados personalizados según las preferencias alimentarias y los hábitos alimentarios, minimizando las restricciones y prohibiciones y facilitando una elección informada con ayuda de profesionales de la nutrición, así como el tratamiento de la malnutrición tanto por exceso como por déficit desde estadios precoces.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Efficacy of a *Lupinus mutabilis* Sweet snack as complement to conventional type 2 diabetes mellitus treatment

Eficacia de un tentempié de Lupinus mutabilis Sweet como complemento al tratamiento convencional de la diabetes mellitus tipo 2

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Abstract

Introduction: therapeutic lifestyles changes including frequent consumption of legumes have resulted in improved metabolic control and decreased blood pressure in type 2 diabetes-mellitus (T2DM) patients.

Objective: this was a quasi-experimental-28-week crossover-study that assessed the effect of daily consumption of the legume *Lupinus mutabilis* (LM) on metabolic control of T2DM patients under hypoglycemic oral treatment.

Material and methods: we recruited 79 adult male and female patients that were followed for 14-weeks without LM consumption and then received increasing doses of a LM-based-snack for other 14-weeks.

Results: there was a significant decrease in blood pressure and a significant increase in HDL-cholesterol by the end of the study period. While patients with A1C concentrations > 8 and ≤ 10 did not significantly improve their metabolic control, patients with serum A1C concentrations ≤ 8.0% reduced significantly their A1C after the intervention and 71% achieved a target concentration of 6.5%.

Conclusion: patients with T2DM could benefit with the addition of LM-snack to their conventional treatment.

Key words:

Type 2 diabetes mellitus. Glycated hemoglobin. *Lupinus*. Humans.

Resumen

Introducción: los cambios recomendados sobre los estilos de vida, incluido el consumo frecuente de leguminosas, han resultado en un mejor control metabólico y disminución de la presión arterial en pacientes con diabetes mellitus tipo 2 (DMT2).

Objetivo: este fue un estudio casi experimental cruzado de 28 semanas que evaluó el efecto del consumo diario de la leguminosa *Lupinus mutabilis* Sweet (LM) en el control metabólico de pacientes con DMT2 con tratamiento oral hipoglucemiante.

Material y métodos: inicialmente se reclutaron 79 pacientes adultos, hombres y mujeres, que fueron seguidos durante 14 semanas sin consumo de LM y luego recibieron dosis crecientes de un tentempié de LM durante otras 14 semanas.

Resultados: se observó una disminución significativa en la presión arterial y un aumento significativo en el colesterol-HDL después del consumo de LM. Mientras que los pacientes con concentraciones de A1C sérica > 8 y ≤ 10 no mejoraron significativamente su control metabólico, los pacientes con concentraciones séricas de A1C ≤ 8,0% redujeron significativamente su A1C después de la intervención y el 71% de estos pacientes llegó a la meta de tratamiento ≤ 6,5%.

Conclusión: los pacientes con DMT2 podrían beneficiarse con la adición de un tentempié de LM a su tratamiento convencional.

Palabras clave:

Diabetes mellitus tipo 2. Hemoglobina glucosilada. *Lupinus*. Humanos.

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INTRODUCTION

Type-2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a major public health problem worldwide. Current pharmacological treatments aim to control serum glucose levels in order to prevent systemic-vascular and neural damage (1). Control of serum glucose levels in T2DM has been associated with improved quality of life and decreased metabolic complications (2). Intensive control of T2DM may require the addition or the increase of doses of oral hypoglycemic drugs or the use of insulin (3). However, these pharmacological strategies pose potential negative consequences for patients, including drug-side effects, increased costs, reduced compliance or even increased risk of mortality due to hypoglycemic events (4,5); these consequences could be even more severe in elderly patients that usually have other comorbidities. In addition, T2DM treatments can be difficult to obtain and are costly. The estimated cost for the treatment of diabetes considering direct and indirect expenses in the United States is 1.31 trillion dollars per year (6). The increasing frequency of chronic diseases in low- and middle-income countries anticipates a very high economic burden for those nations in the coming years (7). Although pharmacologic treatment for T2DM has an important role to control the disease, additional non-pharmacologic complementary treatments are needed to prevent and control this public health problem.

A healthy life style including physical activity, smoking cessation, and therapeutic lifestyle change (TLC) dietary options including consumption of complex carbohydrates, mono- and polyunsaturated fat, and animal or plant derived proteins are associated with better T2DM prevention and control (8). Regarding animal protein consumption, greater dairy products intake results in better glucose regulation and T2DM prevention (9). In addition to protein content, beneficial effects of dairy products can be associated with their micronutrient, fatty acids, low-glycemic carbohydrates, free amino acids, and active peptides content (10). Also, higher plant protein intake has been associated with decreased risk of T2DM (11). Consumption of legumes, grains characteristically rich in proteins, is associated with lower risk of non-cardiovascular and total mortality (12).

Lupin is a legume rich in proteins and widely consumed around the world whose consumption has been associated with decreased blood pressure, improvement of serum lipid profile, positive alterations of gut microbiota and glucose homeostasis (13). Together, these studies indicate that consumption of high-quality proteins as part of TLC could optimize current treatments of non-communicable chronic diseases, including T2DM.

We have demonstrated that Andean *Lupinus mutabilis* intake decreases blood glucose and improves insulin sensitivity in individuals with dysglycemia or T2DM. Those studies indicate that consumption of either raw as well as cooked *L. mutabilis* significantly lowered serum glucose and insulin levels in the short term (14,15). In addition, Bertoglio JC et al. have documented the hypoglycemic effect of lupin derived γ -conglutin protein in experimental animals and healthy human subjects (16). We recently demonstrated the potential molecular and cellular mechanisms for the hypoglycemic effects of Andean *L. mutabilis*

Sweet. Hydrolyzed γ -conglutin fraction from Andean *L. mutabilis* at 5 mg/ml inhibited dipeptidyl peptidase IV activity (100% inhibition), stimulated glucose uptake (6.5 fold) due to GLUT-4 cell surface translocation, and inhibited hepatic gluconeogenesis (50%) in a dual-layered enterocyte/adipocyte/hepatocyte culture system (17). These studies show that lupin proteins and peptides have several properties and their intake has positive effects in glucose metabolism.

There are limited human clinical studies on lupin consumption as complement for the pharmacologic treatment of T2DM. This quasi-experimental 28-week crossover-study aimed to compare the efficacy of the daily consumption of a snack of *L. mutabilis* on metabolic control of T2DM patients under conventional oral pharmacologic treatment.

METHODS

SUBJECTS AND STUDY DESIGN

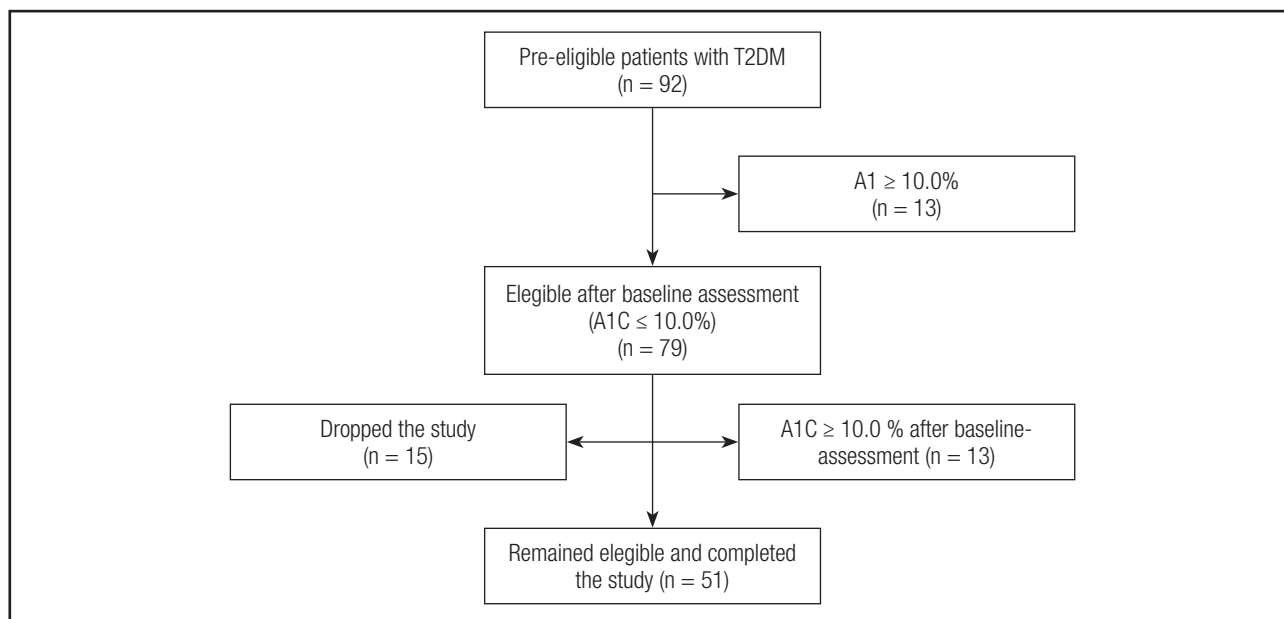
This was a quasi-experimental clinical trial with a crossover design in which patients received their usual prescribed oral anti-diabetes treatment for 14-weeks and subsequently, in addition to their oral anti-diabetes treatment they consumed a snack based on *L. mutabilis* for other 14-weeks.

We recruited patients with T2DM who regularly attended the Paute Hospital near the city of Cuenca or the General Teaching Hospital in the city of Riobamba, in Ecuador.

Ninety-two T2DM patients under conventional oral-hypoglycemic-treatment of both sexes, older than 18 years of age were originally screened for the study. Patients were excluded if they were under insulin treatment, had a value of A1C > 10% either at the baseline-test or during the study, presented severe acute febrile diseases or chronic diseases (such as cancer, human immunodeficiency viral infection, autoimmune diseases or psychiatric diseases), or were not willing to sign an informed consent (Fig. 1).

Initially, patients received a complete nutritional assessment that consisted in a medical evaluation, anthropometric measurements, blood biochemistry analysis, and dietary intake. Patients also provided basal sociodemographic data and they answered the physical activity IPAC questionnaire (18). Patients under their usual treatment were followed for 14 weeks at which point the same measurements done at baseline were performed again. After this second visit, the nutritional intervention with lupin was initiated. During the initial seven-weeks of the intervention-phase, patients continued with their usual drug treatment plus one-daily-dose of 10 g of a *L. mutabilis*-based snack that was consumed 30 minutes before lunch. During the following seven weeks patients continued with their usual drug treatment plus two daily doses of 10 g of a *L. mutabilis*-based snack 30 minutes before lunch and 30 minutes before dinner. At the end of the intervention period a final measurement of the study variables was done.

Evaluators of outcomes and data analyst were blinded to the treatments that patients received during the study.

**Figure 1.**

Flowchart of data analyzed to evaluate the effect of consumption of a *Lupinus mutabilis*-based snack on T2DM metabolic control.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SNACK

Lupinus mutabilis grains cultivar 450 were used to prepare a dry crunchy snack by the Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Agropecuarias (INIAP), Quito-Ecuador. The snack consisted in 10 g of dehydrated *L. mutabilis* lightly salted and packed in a small bag of aluminum paper which was completely sealed. The macro and micronutrient composition of the snack is presented in table I (19).

ANTHROPOMETRIC AND BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS

Standardized clinic weight and height scales were used to determine both height and weight of each participant. A digital weight scale (Seca®, Quito-Ecuador) calibrated to the nearest 0.1 kg was used to weight patients. For height measurement, a portable stadiometer (Seca®) with a precision of 1 mm was used. Weight and height were taken with light clothing and no shoes (20). Blood pressure measurements were taken by a trained member of the research team using an automatic digital monitor (Omron HEM-757; Omron Corp., Tokyo, Japan); two consecutive recordings of blood pressure were taken after five minutes of rest in a sitting position. Two readings were obtained and the mean value was used for analysis.

BLOOD SAMPLES

Qualified personnel took blood samples in the morning between 8 a.m. and 10 a.m. after approximately 12 hours of fasting. Samples were centrifuged within two hours and

Table I. Macronutrient and micronutrient content of the snack of *Lupinus mutabilis*

Macronutrient	(%)
Protein	51.7
Fat	21.6
Total fiber	8.3
Ashes	2.4
Humidity	6
Carbohydrates	15.9
Dry matter	25.8
Micronutrient	(%) or ppm
Na (%)	0.04 ± 0.001
K (%)	0.02 ± 0.002
Mg (%)	0.16 ± 0.010
Ca (%)	0.50 ± 0.025
P (%)	0.43 ± 0.006
Fe (ppm)	99.33 ± 6.658
Zn (ppm)	54.33 ± 4.163
Mn (ppm)	24.00 ± 2.000
Cu (ppm)	9.23 ± 0.929

processed immediately. Samples were collected at baseline, 14 weeks and 28 weeks.

Serum glucose was measured using a glucose oxidase method (Roche-Diagnostics, Quito, Ecuador) using a Hitachi Roche 917 full-automated analyzer system. Serum insulin was determined

using an electro-chemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA) following the manufacturer's instructions (Roche Diagnostics/Hitachi, Quito, Ecuador) and chemiluminescent emission was measured using a fully automated analyzer system ELECSYS 2010 (Roche Diagnostics, Quito, Ecuador). Both glucose and insulin determinations were carried out in NetLab Laboratory. NetLab maintains an internal and external quality control system (College of American Pathologists, Brazilian Society of Clinical Pathologists, SBOC).

The primary end points of the study were the changes in A1C during the study periods (14 weeks vs 28 weeks and baseline vs 28 weeks). Secondary end-points included: changes in body mass index (BMI), blood pressure, insulin and lipid profile.

ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

The Human Subjects Protection Committee at the Universidad San Francisco de Quito approved this study. Each participant signed an informed consent form after receiving an explanation of the study and its possible consequences.

SAMPLE SIZE AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

A sample size of 63 patients was determined to have 80% power to detect a statistically significant decrease in the final A1C value from 8.1% at baseline to 7.7% at 28 weeks, assuming a standard deviation of 0.8. Since this was a quasi-experimental study, patients served as their own control during the two-phases of the study.

Descriptive statistics such as percentages and means with their standard deviation were calculated. To assess changes from baseline a paired t-test analysis was conducted. A p-value ≤ 0.05 was considered as statistically significant after the Benjamini-Hochberg correction (21).

RESULTS

A total of 79/92 (85.9%) patients who met the eligibility criteria were enrolled in the study. Twenty-eight patients were excluded during the development of the study because they either dropped the study ($n = 15$) or presented A1C levels $> 10\%$ ($n = 13$). Out of these 13 patients, eight had serum A1C levels greater than 10%, after the first phase of the study (without lupin consumption) and five patients at the end of the study period (after lupin consumption); these five last patients maintained serum A1C levels greater than 8% throughout the study period.

Lupinus mutabilis snack was well accepted and tolerated by all participants. Approximately 83% of patients reported a perfect adherence to snack consumption during the study. The remaining 17% also had a good reported adherence (more than 75% of snack was consumed), however, they did not take all the scheduled snacks due to forgiveness or denture poor conditions that made it difficult to chew the snack.

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Table II shows sociodemographic characteristics of participating patients. There were more women than men and participants age ranged between 35 and 88 years. Most participating patients were married, with elementary school level of education. An important percentage of patients smoked and presented hypertension.

ANTHROPOMETRIC AND BLOOD PRESSURE CHANGES

There was a statistically significant decrease in weight and in BMI from baseline to the end of the study at 28 weeks, $p = 0.015$ and 0.009 , respectively (Table III). However, these two parameters did not changed significantly from the 14 to the 28 weeks. In addition, both systolic and diastolic blood pressure were significantly lower at 28 weeks after the supplementation with *L. mutabilis* compared with 14-weeks and baseline measurements.

Table II. Socio-demographic characteristics of participants

Variable	n (%)
Gender	
Male	19 (37.3)
Female	32 (62.7)
Age in years (mean $\pm$ standard deviation)	64.1 $\pm$ 11.1
Marital status	
Single	4 (7.8)
Divorced/widowed	13 (25.5)
Married	34 (66.7)
Level of education	
No formal education	2 (3.9)
Elementary school	34 (66.7)
High school	13 (25.5)
University	2 (3.9)
Smocking	15(29.4)
Diagnosis of hypertension	29 (56.9)

Table III. Changes in anthropometric and blood pressure parameters during the study period

Variable	Time-point during the study		
	Baseline	14 weeks	28 weeks
Weight (kg)	70.5 $\pm$ 13.6	69.5 $\pm$ 4.0 ¹	69.7 $\pm$ 13.5 ¹
Height (m)	1.52 $\pm$ 0.09		
BMI (kg/m ²)	30.3 $\pm$ 4.5	29.9 $\pm$ 4.4 ¹	29.9 $\pm$ 4.4 ¹
SBP (mmHg)	134.8 $\pm$ 16.1	134.0 $\pm$ 18.7	127.5 $\pm$ 19.5 ^{1,2}
DBP (mmHg)	80.9 $\pm$ 9.2	79.1 $\pm$ 8.7	76.3 $\pm$ 8.5 ^{1,2}

¹Different from baseline. ²Different from 14 weeks.

CHANGES IN BLOOD BIOCHEMICAL PARAMETERS

As shown in table IV, there was a significant increase of glucose and insulin from baseline until the end of the study but there were not important changes between 14 and 28 weeks. Serum A1C levels did not change significantly during the study. In addition, serum HDL concentrations increased significantly at 28 weeks compared with baseline. No other serum markers of lipid metabolism, uric acid or CRP showed statistically significant modifications during the study.

A closer analysis in patients with levels of A1C ≥ 8.0 and ≤ 10 showed that there were no statistically significant changes in A1C levels throughout the study period (Table V).

However, it is noticeable that patients who maintained their A1C levels $\leq 8.0\%$ reduced significantly their levels of A1C after the consumption of the snack achieving a reduction of 0.2-0.4% by the end of the study. Although not statistically significant, only those patients who maintained their A1C serum levels $\leq 8.0\%$ more frequently reached the treatment target value of A1C of 6.5% (Table V). In addition, in this subgroup of patients, glucose increase by 14 weeks was attenuated after lupin consumption. This increase in glucose was accompanied

by an increase in serum insulin that was greater with lupin intake (Table VI).

DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrated that consumption of a snack based on the legume *L. mutabilis* by T2DM patients under regular hypoglycemic treatment improved glucose metabolic control. Thus, patients with serum A1C concentrations $\leq 8.0\%$ that consumed the snack more frequently achieved the ideal target of 6.5% A1C (1). The lower the level of A1C patients maintained, the greater the benefit of the addition of the snack of *L. mutabilis*. This study also showed a significant decrease in BMI and blood pressure and a significant increase in HDL cholesterol by the end of the study period.

A limited number of studies with humans have documented the hypoglycemic effect of *L. mutabilis* consumption in T2DM patients, although those reports are restricted to short-term interventions (14-16). The present report expands those results and demonstrated that consumption of *L. mutabilis* for 14 weeks improved glucose metabolism reflected in lower concentrations of A1C in patients with serum A1C levels $\leq 8.0\%$. In these patients, the typical decrease in A1C after 14 weeks of *L. mutabilis* consumption was 0.2-0.4%, which represents a diminution of about 10 mg/dl of serum glucose. Most oral hypoglycemic drugs lower A1C within a range of 0.5 and 1.5% (1). Patients with T2DM that maintained abnormal serum levels of A1C $\leq 8.0\%$ could benefit with the addition of a snack of *L. mutabilis* to their conventional oral glucose lowering treatment. It looks like the greatest benefit of *L. mutabilis* consumption by T2DM patients depends

Table IV. Changes in blood biochemical parameters during the study

Variable	Time-point during the study		
	Baseline	14 weeks	28 weeks
Glucose (mg/dl)	116.3 $\pm$ 27.8	133.7 $\pm$ 35.4 ¹	134.1 $\pm$ 38.7 ¹
A1C (%)	6.9 $\pm$ 0.9	6.9 $\pm$ 1.0	6.8 $\pm$ 1.2
Insulin (ng/dl)	15.3 $\pm$ 11.8	19.7 $\pm$ 27.2	20.2 $\pm$ 18.2 ¹
TC (mg/dl)	187.2 $\pm$ 39.4	189.5 $\pm$ 32.7	183.4 $\pm$ 37
LDL (mg/dl)	117.4 $\pm$ 28.6	121.5 $\pm$ 32.0	118.3 $\pm$ 33.6
HDL (mg/dl)	43.9 $\pm$ 11.3	48.4 $\pm$ 11.7 ¹	46.3 $\pm$ 11.3 ^{1,2}
TG (mg/dl)	180.4 $\pm$ 129.7	175.0 $\pm$ 100.2	179.9 $\pm$ 114.6
Uric acid	5.1 $\pm$ 1.2	5.1 $\pm$ 1.4	5.0 $\pm$ 1.3
CRPs	3.0 $\pm$ 3.6	2.9 $\pm$ 2.7	3.3 $\pm$ 4.4

¹Different from baseline. ²Different from 14 weeks.

Table VI. Changes in glucose and insulin in patients with A1C serum levels $\leq 8.0\%$

Variable	Time-point during the study		
	Baseline	14 weeks	28 weeks
Glucose (mg/dl)	110.6 $\pm$ 27.6	123.9 $\pm$ 28.6 ¹	123.5 $\pm$ 36 ¹
Insulin (ng/dl)	13.3 $\pm$ 9.5	14.1 $\pm$ 10.7	18.3 $\pm$ 17.6 ¹

¹Different from baseline. ²Different from 14 weeks.

Table V. Changes in A1C and percentage of patients that achieved treatment target value according to the severity of metabolic alterations

Value of A1C maintained through the study	Baseline		14 weeks		28 weeks	
	Mean value (%) $\pm$ standard deviation	% of patients that achieve a target value of A1C ≤ 6.5	Mean value (%) $\pm$ standard deviation	% of patients that achieve a target value of A1C ≤ 6.5	Mean value (%) $\pm$ standard deviation	% of patients that achieve a target value of A1C ≤ 6.5
> 8.0 - $\leq$ 10.0 n = 13	8.1 $\pm$ 0.7	7.7	8.2 $\pm$ 0.9	7.7	8.4 $\pm$ 0.7	0
$\leq$ 8.0 n = 38	6.5 $\pm$ 0.6	50	6.5 $\pm$ 0.6	55.3	6.3 $\pm$ 0.7 ^{1,2}	71.1

¹Different from baseline. ²Different from 14 weeks.

on the severity of their metabolic alteration manifested by A1C serum concentrations. On the other hand, patients with serum A1C levels > 8.0% did not show significant improvements of glucose metabolism. It is important to note that during the first 14 weeks of the study, when patients did not receive *L. mutabilis* there was an increment in blood glucose that was attenuated after *L. mutabilis* consumption in patients with A1C serum levels ≤ 8.0%. As expected, the observed increments in glucose were paralleled with greater concentrations of serum insulin; insulin increases were greater after *L. mutabilis* consumption. In this regard, oral administration of γ -conglutin from lupin (120 mg/kg) during one week increased the expression of *Ins-1* gene and pancreatin insulin content in an animal model for diabetes (22). It is possible that hydrolysates from *L. mutabilis* (including those derived from γ -conglutin) could have increased insulin production directly stimulating pancreatic β -cells or through the increase of GLP-1 produced by inhibition of dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) activity (17). These studies indicate that the consumption of *L. mutabilis* could increase serum insulin concentrations as observed in the present study.

It is important to consider that *L. mutabilis* is a high-quality food which provides other important health benefits; it is well accepted and affordable, it is feasible to increase its daily dosage and does not cause side-effects nor has negative interactions with other drugs unlike most hypoglycemic medications. The mechanisms of action related to the consumption of lupin and other legumes are under intensive study (16-19). We have shown that hydrolysates of *L. mutabilis* inhibit gluconeogenesis, DPP-IV, and enhance the sensitivity of the insulin receptor mediated by translocation of the transporter of GLUT-4 (17). These molecular and cellular mechanisms resemble the biochemical effects of sitagliptin (gliptins) and metformin drugs (biguanides).

Previous studies have reported a decrease of 2.4 to 8.4 mmHg in systolic blood pressure (23,24) after consumption of 15 to 25 g/day of *L. angustifolius* protein isolate for 12 month and eight weeks, respectively (23,24). In agreement with those observations, here we demonstrated that upon consumption of *L. mutabilis* there was a decrease of 7 and 3 mmHg in systolic and diastolic blood pressures, respectively. A possible mechanism of action of lupin consumption on blood pressure could be related to its important content of protein and fiber and the dietary substitution of carbohydrate with them (25-27). Also, amino acid sequences of hydrolysates generated after *L. mutabilis* protein digestion could have potential inhibition of the angiotensin converting enzyme (17). A reduction of 7 mmHg would reduce cardiovascular risk by about 14% (25). In addition, the observed increase in HDL-cholesterol in this study could further contribute to decrease the cardiovascular risk with *L. mutabilis* consumption. The present results agree with other observations that demonstrate increases in serum HDL of subjects with hypercholesterolemia after consumption of lupin protein isolates from *L. angustifolius* (23). It is difficult to estimate the magnitude of reduction in cardiovascular risk because there is controversy regarding the benefit of increasing HDL levels (28). Interestingly, recent epidemiological studies demonstrate that consumption of legumes is inversely

associated with total mortality and non-cardiovascular death (29). In addition, these studies indicate that lupin species intake can positively affect cardiovascular risk factors in at risk populations.

Limitations of the present study included the low number of eligible patients: 51 instead of the initially calculated sample of sixty-three. This could have precluded to achieve statistical significance of the effect of the consumption of *L. mutabilis* in subjects that regularly have A1C levels > 8%. Future studies should assess higher doses of *L. mutabilis* intake, the effects in glucose metabolism in subjects with A1C levels > 8% and, most important, the potential of this legume to prevent T2DM.

CONCLUSIONS

Therapeutic dietary changes including frequent consumption of legumes are promising complementary strategies for the management of patients with T2DM. In this quasi-experimental crossover study, an intervention with 15 g of LM resulted in a significant decrease in blood pressure and a significant increase in HDL-cholesterol. Patients with serum A1C concentrations < 8.0% reduced significantly their A1C after the intervention and 71.1% achieved a target concentration ≤ 6.5%. Patients with T2DM could benefit with the addition of LM-snack to their conventional treatment.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Análisis de menús sin gluten de comedores escolares en Granada capital y área metropolitana: ¿son equilibrados?

Analysis of the gluten-free menus served in school canteens: are they balanced?

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Resumen

Introducción y objetivos: analizar el perfil alimentario y el valor nutricional de los menús adaptados para celíacos ofertados en los comedores de los centros escolares de Granada capital y área metropolitana.

Material y métodos: estudio descriptivo en el que se han analizado los menús adaptados para niños celíacos de 41 centros escolares, cinco con cocina propia y 36 abastecidos por *catering*. La participación de los centros fue voluntaria, una vez fueron informados de las características y objetivos del estudio. Se recogió información a través de las fichas técnicas de los platos elaborados con la cantidad de cada alimento, además de las marcas de los productos sin gluten utilizados. Se analizaron menús de cuatro semanas en cuanto a distribución de raciones, energía, macro y micronutrientes para el grupo de 10 a 12 años, obteniendo valores medios y desviación estándar de 31 parámetros. Se utilizaron el programa Odimet y la base de datos CeliacBase. Se usó el programa estadístico IBM SPSS 22.0.

Resultados: la pasta sin gluten fue la base del primer plato en el 31,7% de los menús analizados. En el segundo plato, la carne fue el constituyente principal. En todos los menús se ofertaba, al menos, una ración diaria de verdura. El 80% de los menús no alcanzaron la ingesta energética recomendada, aunque la distribución de macronutrientes fue adecuada. La cantidad media de fibra y de hidratos de carbono totales fue superior a lo recomendado. La cantidad de calcio y vitamina D no alcanzó la ingesta recomendada. Destaca un elevado consumo de sodio, que duplica la cantidad recomendada para la comida del mediodía.

Conclusiones: los menús escolares adaptados para niños celíacos se ajustan a las recomendaciones, aunque deberían limitar la ingesta semanal de carne y presentan exceso de azúcares totales y sal.

Palabras clave:

Enfermedad celíaca.
Nutrición infantil.
Comedor escolar.
Menú sin gluten.

Abstract

Introduction and objectives: the alimentary profile and the nutritional value of the menus adapted for coeliacs in the dining halls of the schools of Granada capital and Metropolitan Area.

Material and methods: descriptive study in which we analyzed the menus adapted for children from 41 schools, 5 with their own kitchen and 36 supplied by catering. The information is recognized through the technical sheets of the dishes made with the quantity of each food, in addition to the brands of the gluten-free products. The four-week menus will be analyzed in terms of the distribution of rations, energy, macro and micronutrients for the age group of 10 to 12 years, obtaining average values and standard deviation of 31 parameters. The Odimet program and the CeliacBase database are used. The data will be analyzed using the IBM SPSS 22.0 statistical program.

Results: gluten-free pasta was the basis of the first course in 31.7% of the menus analyzed. In the second dish, the meat was the main constituent. In all the menus, at least one daily vegetable ration was offered. 80% of the menus did not reach the recommended energy intake, although the distribution of macronutrients was adequate. The average amount of fiber and total carbohydrates was higher than recommended. The amount of calcium and vitamin has not been recommended. It emphasizes a high consumption of sodium, which doubles the amount recommended for the midday meal.

Conclusions: school menus adapted for children conform to the recommendations, although they should be limited to intake.

Key words:

Celiac disease.
Child nutrition. School canteens. Gluten-free menu.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La enfermedad celiaca (EC) es una patología sistémica autoinmune que afecta a individuos genéticamente susceptibles (1) y que se caracteriza por la presencia de una combinación variable de manifestaciones clínicas dependientes del gluten, anticuerpos específicos de EC, haplotipos HLA-DQ2 o HLA-DQ8 y enteropatía (2). En la actualidad, la dieta sin gluten (DSG) estricta continúa siendo el único tratamiento eficaz para evitar el daño en la mucosa intestinal y las manifestaciones extraintestinales de la enfermedad. La eliminación del gluten de la dieta dará como resultado la reparación del daño intestinal y la resolución de los síntomas en la mayoría de los pacientes celiacos, reduciendo el riesgo de complicaciones futuras asociadas a la enfermedad (2,3).

En una DSG deben excluirse alimentos básicos derivados del trigo como el pan, la harina y la pasta, que son fuentes importantes de energía, hidratos de carbono y micronutrientes. Entre los alimentos sin gluten es importante diferenciar aquellos que, por su naturaleza, se hallan exentos de gluten, como el arroz, el maíz o la patata, y los alimentos que contienen gluten, pero que se elimina mediante procesamiento industrial dando productos sin gluten (PSG). En ocasiones, en dicho procesamiento se altera la composición de macro y micronutrientes y, en consecuencia, el valor nutricional (4). Los alimentos básicos que contienen gluten (trigo, cebada y centeno) son ricos en calcio, ácido fólico, hierro y vitaminas del complejo B, y su exclusión podría perjudicar el estado nutricional si no se reemplaza con alternativas apropiadas.

Diversos estudios demuestran que estos productos presentan un mayor contenido en hidratos de carbono y grasas que sus equivalentes con gluten (5-7), debido a que se utilizan en grandes cantidades en los PSG para mejorar la textura y suplir las propiedades del gluten en los alimentos horneados (8). Estudios previos han mostrado que los panes sin gluten presentan hasta el doble de grasa total y tres veces más grasa saturada que los equivalentes con gluten (9), además de presentar un alto índice glucémico y un menor contenido en proteínas, en comparación con el pan hecho con harina de trigo (5).

En cuanto a los hábitos alimentarios de individuos con EC, se han descrito diferencias respecto a la población sana, como son un mayor consumo de hidratos de carbono y grasas, de azúcares añadidos y de ingesta calórica total. Se ha observado, además, una mayor prevalencia de sobrepeso y obesidad (10-13), ya que, debido al aumento excesivo del consumo de grasas y productos con alto índice glucémico, la DSG puede tener un efecto negativo sobre los factores de riesgo cardiometabólicos, la concentración sérica de triglicéridos o la resistencia a la insulina, habiéndose descrito cifras de prevalencia de sobrepeso y obesidad de entre el 9,4% y el 20,8% en niños celiacos que llevaban a cabo una DSG (14). El incremento gradual ocurre tras el inicio de la DSG (15) debido en parte al cambio en las costumbres alimentarias y al aumento de hábitos obesogénicos (16). Asimismo, diversos estudios han descrito que la ingesta de fibra se encuentra por debajo de las recomendaciones actuales, tanto en individuos con EC como en no celiacos (17-21) y, en general, los PSG contienen menos fibra que sus equivalentes con gluten (22).

Por otra parte, se ha comprobado que en una DSG la proporción de micronutrientes también se encuentra alterada. Diversos estudios han objetivado que la ingesta de hierro es menor que en la población general (13,18), siendo junto al déficit de vitamina D uno de los más prevalentes entre los enfermos celiacos (23). Son varios los estudios que han puesto de manifiesto que, tanto en las dietas con gluten como en las DSG, el consumo está por debajo de las recomendaciones actuales, tanto de calcio (18,21,24-26) como de vitamina D (11,17,20,21,27). En cuanto a otros micronutrientes como el folato, el magnesio o el zinc, hay estudios que muestran que puede haber un déficit en su ingesta en comparación con las dietas normales (10,11,20,21).

Puesto que cada vez más niños realizan la comida principal del día en los colegios, es importante que los centros escolares promuevan hábitos saludables para prevenir el inicio de obesidad o enfermedades futuras (28) y, en el caso concreto de grupos específicos, que proporcionen menús adaptados a sus requerimientos. En España, con el objetivo de establecer una serie de recomendaciones generales para garantizar una adecuada alimentación en la escuela, la Agencia Española de Consumo, Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutrición (AECOSAN) del Ministerio de Sanidad y Consumo y el Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa del Ministerio de Educación, Política Social y Deporte, siguiendo los objetivos recogidos en la Ley Orgánica 2/2006 de Educación (29) y en la estrategia para la Nutrición, Actividad Física y Prevención de la Obesidad (estrategia NAOS) (30), puso en marcha el proyecto Programa Escolar de Referencia para la Salud y el Ejercicio contra la Obesidad (PERSEO), dirigido a la población de Educación Primaria y cuyo objetivo principal es asegurar un adecuado aporte nutricional para evitar desequilibrios alimentarios. La *Guía de comedores escolares* (31), elaborada dentro del programa, establece las raciones recomendadas de cada grupo de alimentos para la población infantil, además de proveer una serie de recomendaciones para elaborar menús adecuados para comensales con EC.

Los objetivos del presente estudio fueron, por un lado, valorar si los menús escolares adaptados para niños con EC de los colegios públicos, concertados y privados de Granada capital y el área metropolitana se ajustan a las recomendaciones dadas por la AECOSAN en cuanto a distribución de raciones por grupos de alimentos. Por otro, valorar si se ajustan a las ingestas recomendadas para la población española en cuanto a macro y micronutrientes.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

POBLACIÓN DE ESTUDIO

Se analizó el menú adaptado a niños con EC de centros de enseñanza primaria privados, concertados y públicos de Granada capital y área metropolitana. Se incluyeron cinco centros que cuentan con servicio de comedor escolar mediante cocina propia y 36 que se abastecen mediante empresas de catering. Los centros aceptaron participar voluntariamente tras ser informados

de las características del estudio. Se excluyeron 51 colegios y 12 *catering* que, tras ser informados detalladamente de las características y los objetivos del estudio, decidieron no participar en el mismo, algunos alegando no tener menús adaptados para EC al no contar con escolares con dicha enfermedad.

Para cada centro, se analizaron un modelo de menú mensual y la ficha técnica de los platos, con el objetivo de conocer los ingredientes utilizados (incluidas las marcas de los productos sin gluten) y la cantidad de cada uno de ellos.

MEDIOS

Se analizó la distribución semanal de los distintos grupos de alimentos utilizando como referencia las recomendaciones dadas por la AECOSAN a través del Programa PERSEO y su *Guía de comedores escolares* (31), así como la composición nutricional de los alimentos utilizados mediante la plataforma Organizador Dietético Metabólico (Odimet) (32), elaborado por la Unidad de Diagnóstico y Tratamiento de Enfermedades Metabólicas del Hospital Clínico Universitario de Santiago de Compostela. Se obtuvo información nutricional acerca de los PSG comercializados, recogida de CeliacBase (33), base de datos realizada en la Universidad Rovira i Virgili de Tarragona en la que se incluyen artículos de 126 marcas que se comercializan en España. Se han utilizado como referencia las ingestas recomendadas para la población española publicadas por Moreiras y cols. (34) comparando la media de cada uno de los parámetros con los valores recomendados para los niños de diez a 13 años con una actividad física moderada. Para conocer la distribución de los grupos de alimentos en los menús se ha realizado la media de distribución de raciones de las cuatro semanas de cada menú mensual. Se analizaron 31 parámetros que incluyen calorías totales, macro y micronutrientes. Asimismo, en los menús basales se analizaron frecuencia de consumo de grupos de alimentos y distribución de los mismos en los distintos platos del menú, para poder objetivar diferencias respecto a los menús homólogos sin gluten. Los datos se analizaron mediante el programa estadístico IBM SPSS 22.0.

RESULTADOS

La configuración de la comida del mediodía fue de dos platos, pan y postre en todos los menús analizados excepto en uno, que se componía de tres platos (ensalada, primer y segundo plato), además del postre. En el resto de los menús, el segundo plato siempre iba acompañado de una ración de verdura o ensalada. En las figuras 1 y 2 se detalla el patrón alimentario de los primeros y los segundos platos.

La pasta sin gluten fue el grupo principal en el 31,7% de los primeros platos analizados, seguida de las legumbres (28,3%) y de la verdura (18,3%). En cuanto al segundo plato, la carne fue el constituyente principal, siendo la base del 35%, seguida del pescado, (34%) y del huevo (16%). En cuanto a los postres, en el 74,4% se ofertaba fruta, seguida de lácteos (25,5%).

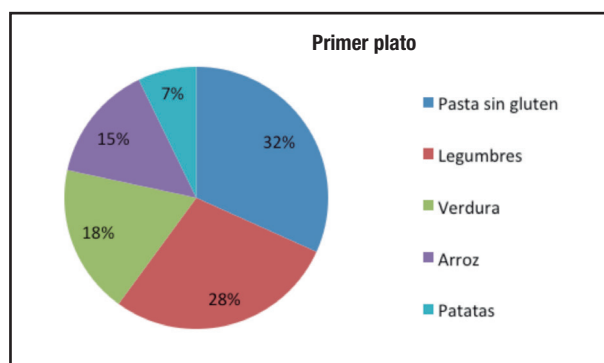


Figura 1.

Patrón alimentario del primer plato de los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados.

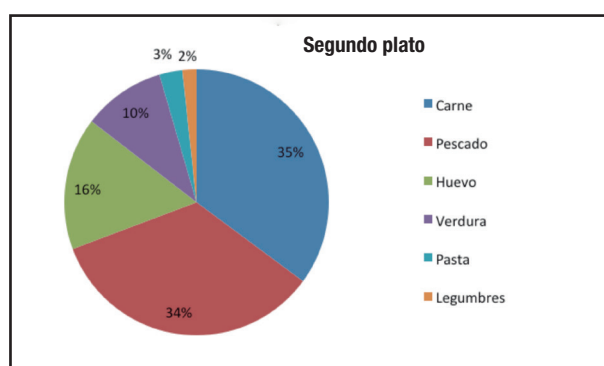


Figura 2.

Patrón alimentario del segundo plato de los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados.

La ingesta semanal de carne fue superior a lo recomendado en todos los menús analizados y, por el contrario, la ingesta diaria de lácteos fue inferior. Los resultados, en cuanto al estudio de la distribución de los distintos grupos de alimentos, tanto diaria como semanal, se muestra en la tabla I.

Los menús presentaron un exceso de azúcares totales y sodio, con aporte vitamínico correcto salvo para la vitamina D. Los resultados de ingesta de energía y la cantidad y proporción de macronutrientes se muestran en la tabla II. Las tablas III y IV muestran el contenido medio de vitaminas y minerales en los menús analizados.

DISCUSIÓN

Los resultados muestran que los menús de los comedores escolares estudiados que han sido adaptados para niños celiacos son, en términos generales, equilibrados. No obstante, presentan varias irregularidades, algunas de las cuales probablemente sean generales a los menús servidos en los centros escolares y no atribuibles únicamente a la EC.

Tabla I. Distribución diaria y semanal de raciones por grupos de alimentos obtenidas en los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados

Grupos	Raciones/día Media $\pm$ DE	Valor referencia*
Arroz, patatas, cereales, pasta	1 $\pm$ 0,15	1
Pan	1 $\pm$ 0,09	1
Fruta	0,7 $\pm$ 0,14	0,8-1
Verdura	1,63 $\pm$ 0,18	1
Lácteos	0,34 $\pm$ 0,23	0,7-1,5
Grupos	Raciones/semana Media $\pm$ DE*	Valor referencia*
Legumbres	1,56 $\pm$ 0,21	1-1,5
Pescado	2 $\pm$ 0,29	1,5-2
Carnes	2,55 $\pm$ 0,71	1,5-2
Huevos	1,37 $\pm$ 0,46	1-1,7

DE: desviación estándar. *Distribución recomendada por la Agencia Española de Consumo, Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutrición (AECOSAN) (31).

Tabla II. Ingesta de energía y macronutrientes en los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados

	Media $\pm$ DE	Valor referencia*
Energía (kcal)	649,81 $\pm$ 53,92	690-735
Hidratos de carbono (g)	84,45 $\pm$ 6,21	93,5-135
Hidratos de carbono (%)	52,86 $\pm$ 4	50-65
Azúcares (g)	17,76 $\pm$ 2,91	9,5-13,5
Fibra (g)	10,77 $\pm$ 1,93	5,5
Proteínas (g)	25,32 $\pm$ 4,26	20,8-62,3
Proteínas (%)	16,28 $\pm$ 2,69	10-30
Lípidos (g)	22,79 $\pm$ 3,97	27,6-32
Lípidos (%)	31,62 $\pm$ 3,21	30-35
AGMI (g)	12,06 $\pm$ 2,65	4,5
AGPI (g)	3,07 $\pm$ 0,57	3
AGS (g)	4,70 $\pm$ 0,8	3

DE: desviación estándar. *Valor de referencia ajustado al 35% de la ingesta que debe de cubrir el almuerzo (34).

La composición de los menús servidos en los comedores escolares analizados sigue la estructura básica de la comida del mediodía en nuestra cultura: primer plato, segundo plato y postre. En el estudio "Dime Cómo Comes" (35), los escolares presentaban clara preferencia por los alimentos del grupo de la pasta, arroz y patatas. Sin embargo, los menús analizados en dicho estudio ofertaban pasta una media de una vez por semana y con la mis-

Tabla III. Ingesta de vitaminas en los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados

	Media $\pm$ DE	Valor referencia*
Vitamina A (mcg)	234,89 $\pm$ 104,76	280-350
Riboflavina (mg)	1,06 $\pm$ 2,04	0,5
Niacina (mg)	5,71 $\pm$ 1,16	5,2-5,6
Piridoxina (mg)	4,58 $\pm$ 11,32	0,56
Vitamina B12 (mg)	1,39 $\pm$ 0,93	0,7
Vitamina C (mg)	53,25 $\pm$ 5,72	21
Vitamina D (mcg)	1,42 $\pm$ 1,22	5,2
Vitamina E (mg)	3,59 $\pm$ 0,68	3,5
Vitamina K (mcg)	36,25 $\pm$ 17,92	21

DE: desviación estándar. *Valor de referencia ajustado al 35% de la ingesta que debe de cubrir el almuerzo (34).

Tabla IV. Ingesta de minerales en los menús adaptados para enfermos celiacos analizados

	Media $\pm$ DE	Valor referencia*
Calcio (mg)	165,07 $\pm$ 41,5	465
Cobre (mg)	0,45 $\pm$ 0,06	0,39
Yodo (mg)	32,9 $\pm$ 11	40,2-43,7
Hierro (mg)	3,84 $\pm$ 0,61	4,2-6,3
Magnesio (mg)	96,18 $\pm$ 10,66	105-122,5
Potasio (mg)	1,134,66 $\pm$ 92,52	1,085
Selenio (mcg)	21,09 $\pm$ 8,19	14-15,7
Fósforo (mg)	342,58 $\pm$ 34,34	420
Zinc (mg)	2,72 $\pm$ 0,7	5,2
Sodio (mg)	998,31 $\pm$ 404,33	525

DE: desviación estándar. *Valor de referencia ajustado al 35% de la ingesta que debe cubrir el almuerzo (34).

ma frecuencia se servían las legumbres. Es importante destacar que los menús analizados en nuestro estudio ofertan legumbres con una frecuencia superior, una media de 1,5 veces a la semana. En cuanto al segundo plato, en nuestro trabajo destaca un consumo de carne y productos derivados superior a la ingesta recomendada y a otros estudios similares (35-37). No obstante, encontramos ingestas semanales superiores en un estudio realizado en Granada en 2010 con menús basales (38). No parece haber relación con el hecho de que los menús analizados en nuestro estudio sean sin gluten ya que, por lo que hemos podido comprobar comparándolos con los menús basales de los centros escolares y empresas estudiadas, las raciones de carne no se sustituyen en los menús adaptados, ya que la carne no contiene gluten. Además, cabe destacar que todos los menús incluían al menos una ración diaria de verduras. Esto supone una importante labor educativa por parte de los centros escolares y de las empre-

sas de *catering*, ya que, según el estudio EnKid (39) y el estudio "Dime Cómo Comes" (35), el grupo de las verduras era rechazado por la mayoría de los niños. Por otra parte, destaca también la alta oferta de fruta en el postre en los menús analizados, con una media de 3,7 raciones semanales, similar a la observada en un estudio llevado a cabo en la Comunidad Valenciana (36) y ligeramente superior a otros trabajos (35,37,38).

En cuanto al análisis de la energía proporcionada, la media de los menús analizados en el presente estudio se situó en 649,81 kcal. En el grupo de los centros con cocina propia, solo un menú alcanzó la ingesta recomendada. En el 80% de los menús la ingesta calórica fue inferior y en ninguno se superó lo recomendado. Como se ha indicado anteriormente, esto supone una ingesta inferior a la recomendada para el almuerzo en niños de diez a 13 años con actividad moderada, cuya ingesta total de energía diaria debería ser de 2.300-2.450 kcal. No obstante, si se toma-se como referencia la ingesta de niños de la misma edad con actividad física menos intensa, probablemente la ingesta calórica sería adecuada. También observamos que se encuentra por debajo del consumo medio en otros estudios realizados con menús basales (36-38). Tras analizar la energía aportada por los PSG, los únicos que varían entre los menús basales y los adaptados, podemos concluir que este menor aporte de energía no se debe a los PSG, ya que el aporte calórico de estos productos es similar a sus equivalentes con gluten. Sí hemos observado que los menús adaptados incluyen menos alimentos fritos y rebozados que los basales. Esto podría explicar el menor aporte energético.

En cuanto a la proporción de macronutrientes, en nuestro estudio existe una adecuada distribución de hidratos de carbono, proteínas y grasas. Analizando individualmente cada menú, el 100% distribuye los macronutrientes según lo recomendado, de modo similar a otros estudios realizados en menús escolares de niños (36), y a diferencia de otros en los que se ha descrito un porcentaje de hidratos de carbono inferior a lo recomendado en los menús servidos en centros escolares (37). A pesar de ello, existe una ingesta media de azúcares totales (sacarosa, glucosa, fructosa, lactosa, galactosa, maltosa y almidón) que sobrepasa las recomendaciones actuales. Hay que tener en cuenta que una diferencia importante entre los menús basales y los menús adaptados es la ración diaria de pan, que debe ser sin gluten. Estudios previos han observado que los celíacos consumen más azúcares añadidos (10-12,21), probablemente debido a que los panes sin gluten los contienen en mayor cantidad, presentando además un mayor índice glucémico (5). No obstante, también hay que destacar un alto contenido de verduras en los menús adaptados analizados, lo que podría explicar en parte el alto contenido de hidratos de carbono en la dieta.

Diferentes trabajos ponen de manifiesto que la ingesta de fibra se encuentra disminuida en individuos celíacos (17-21) y que los PSG suelen contener menos cantidad de fibra que sus equivalentes con gluten (22). En nuestro estudio, sin embargo, encontramos que la ingesta de fibra es superior a la recomendada, lo cual se deba probablemente a que la cantidad de fruta y verdura que se sirve es elevada.

Respecto a las proteínas, el aporte medio de los menús estudiados se ajusta a las recomendaciones actuales. En la literatura

encontramos estudios realizados en celíacos que afirman que, en este grupo, la ingesta de proteínas se encuentra disminuida (10) o, por el contrario, aumentada (13,21). Sería necesario realizar un registro dietético de los consumidores celíacos de nuestros comedores escolares para conocer la ingesta diaria real de proteínas, pero sí podemos afirmar que, al menos en la comida servida en los centros escolares, esta cantidad se ajusta a las recomendaciones.

En cuanto a las grasas, nuestro trabajo muestra que el aporte medio coincide con las recomendaciones actuales, con una ingesta superior de ácidos grasos monoinsaturados y ligeramente superior a lo recomendado también de grasas saturadas. Miranda y cols. (9) determinaron que los panes sin gluten contenían tres veces más grasa saturada que sus equivalentes con gluten, pudiendo ser este el motivo.

Entre los minerales, en nuestros resultados destaca que el aporte de magnesio y hierro se ajusta a las recomendaciones, aunque estudios previos afirman que la ingesta de hierro se encuentra disminuida (13,18). La oferta media de calcio, yodo, fósforo y zinc fue ligeramente inferior a lo recomendado y, sin embargo, la cantidad de cobre, potasio y selenio fue superior. Existen estudios que muestran que los niños celíacos consumen menos calcio que sus equivalentes sanos (11,26). No obstante, dado que el calcio es aportado mayoritariamente por la leche y sus derivados y estos se ingieren en mayor proporción en el desayuno y la merienda, podemos suponer que, a pesar de que en la comida del mediodía no se llega al 35% recomendado, el consumo total de lácteos fuera de la escuela a lo largo del día sí puede cubrir las necesidades diarias. Sin embargo, no podemos atribuirlo al hecho de que el menú se encuentre adaptado, dado que la ingesta de lácteos es la misma tanto en los menús sin gluten como en los menús basales. Destaca, por otra parte, un aporte excesivo de sodio que duplica la ingesta recomendada para la comida del mediodía. No se han encontrado en la bibliografía ingestas similares a las encontradas en nuestro estudio. No obstante, no lo podemos atribuir a los productos sin gluten, ya que la mayoría del sodio procede de la sal utilizada en la elaboración de los platos.

La ingesta de vitaminas fue adecuada excepto para la vitamina D, que fue inferior, acorde a lo referido en otros estudios que indican que el consumo de vitamina D y de calcio es inferior al recomendado tanto en niños celíacos como en niños sanos (11,17,18,20,21,24-26).

Como limitaciones del estudio, en el análisis de los alimentos ofertados hemos encontrado el mismo problema que ya apareció en otros estudios (11,21) al analizar la composición de los PSG: no se da una información completa de los micronutrientes, por lo que la ingesta podría estar subestimada. Asimismo, es importante tener en cuenta el sesgo de participación. Sería interesante analizar los menús de centros escolares y *catering* que decidieron no participar. Además, el análisis de la composición nutricional de los menús escolares adaptados resulta complicado de realizar, ya que la cantidad consumida no solo depende de las raciones que se sirven sino que también es importante conocer la cantidad que finalmente ingieren los niños. En este

estudio se ha realizado la valoración nutricional tomando como referencia las cantidades señaladas en la ficha técnica de los platos, aunque hay que tener en cuenta que estas probablemente no se ajusten a lo ingerido finalmente, bien porque no se sirven exactamente dichas cantidades o porque el comensal no las consume completamente.

Como conclusión, en los menús escolares adaptados para niños celiacos analizados en este estudio, la distribución diaria y semanal de los alimentos del grupo de patatas, cereales, arroz, pasta, pan, fruta, verdura, legumbres y pescado es correcta y se ajusta a las recomendaciones dadas por la AECOSAN. La oferta semanal de carne es superior a lo recomendado y la distribución diaria de lácteos no cumple las recomendaciones mínimas. La proporción de macronutrientes se ajusta a las recomendaciones, aunque la ingesta de azúcares totales es superior a lo recomendado. El aporte medio de vitaminas es correcto, a excepción de la vitamina D, que se encuentra por debajo, igual que el de calcio. Destaca un alto contenido de sodio en los menús ofertados. Creemos que es primordial la inclusión de nutricionistas en los colegios que no dispongan aún de ellos, así como normativa que regule firmemente la composición de los menús y controles que hagan que se cumpla, puesto que en enfermedades como la EC, cuyo único tratamiento es la dieta, es fundamental que la misma se realice correctamente, para paliar así desequilibrios por exceso o por defecto ya objetivados en esta población (10,11,13). Sería interesante la realización de más estudios que incluyesen mayor número de centros, así como el análisis de los menús de colegios que decidieron no participar.

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Trabajo Original

Otros

Relación de la composición corporal medida por DEXA con el estilo de vida y la satisfacción con la imagen corporal en estudiantes universitarios

Relationship of body composition measured by DEXA with lifestyle and satisfaction with body image in university students

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Resumen

Introducción: el índice de masa corporal (IMC) es una medida subrogada de la adiposidad corporal, por lo que puede infradiagnosticar sobrepeso y obesidad, lo que hace necesario definir variables más adecuadas para su correcto diagnóstico.

Objetivo: comparar la categorización de sobrepeso y obesidad según el porcentaje de grasa medido con absorciometría de rayos X de energía dual (DEXA) con el IMC y la fórmula Clínica Universidad de Navarra - Body Adiposity Estimator (CUN-BAE), así como su relación con la adherencia a la dieta mediterránea, la actividad física y la satisfacción con la imagen corporal.

Sujetos y métodos: estudio descriptivo transversal llevado a cabo en una muestra de 64 estudiantes de Medicina. Se determinaron peso, talla, perímetro de cintura, porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA, adherencia a la dieta mediterránea, nivel de actividad física y satisfacción con la imagen corporal.

Resultados: el IMC infradiagnostica sobrepeso respecto al porcentaje de grasa medido por DEXA mientras que la ecuación CUN-BAE presenta una buena correlación. El porcentaje de grasa se asocia inversamente con la satisfacción con la imagen corporal con mayor fuerza que el IMC.

Conclusión: se necesitan nuevas herramientas capaces de distinguir los casos con IMC normal cuyo porcentaje de grasa corporal está elevado. Sería útil estudiar si el empleo de un cuestionario de satisfacción con la imagen corporal en personas clasificadas como normopeso podría distinguir a aquellas con una mayor probabilidad de exceso de grasa y así emplear estudios más exhaustivos en este colectivo.

Palabras clave:

Dieta mediterránea.
Imagen corporal.
IMC (índice de masa corporal). CUN-BAE.
DEXA. Estudiantes universitarios.

Abstract

Introduction: body mass index (BMI) can under-diagnose overweight and obesity as it is a surrogate measure of central adiposity, making it necessary to define more adequate variables for its correct diagnosis.

Objective: to compare the categorization of overweight and obesity according to the percentage of fat measured with dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) with the BMI and the Clínica Universidad de Navarra - Body Adiposity Estimator (CUN-BAE) formula, as well as their relationship with adherence to the Mediterranean diet, physical activity and satisfaction with body image.

Subjects and methods: cross-sectional study conducted in 64 medical students. We determined weight, height, waist circumference, percentage of fat measured with DEXA, adherence to the Mediterranean diet, level of physical activity and degree of satisfaction with body image.

Results: BMI underdiagnoses overweight with respect to the percentage of fat measured by DEXA while CUN-BAE has a good correlation. Percentage of fat is inversely associated with satisfaction with body image more strongly than the BMI.

Conclusion: the limitations of BMI to diagnose excess body fat pose the need for new tools to distinguish patients with normal BMI whose percentage of body fat is high. It would be useful to assess whether the use of a questionnaire of satisfaction with body image in people classified as normal weight could distinguish individuals with a higher probability of excess of fat, and thus, employ more accurate study methods in this group.

Key words:

Mediterranean diet.
Body image. BMI
(body mass index).
CUN-BAE. DEXA.
University students.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La obesidad se define como el exceso de grasa corporal y se asocia a un mayor riesgo cardiovascular, de diabetes mellitus tipo 2 y ciertos tipos de cáncer (mama, colorrectal, endometrio, etc.) (1). El aumento en la prevalencia del sobrepeso y la obesidad ha impulsado campañas de prevención basadas fundamentalmente en la alimentación y la actividad física, aspectos descuidados en el estilo de vida actual (2).

La dieta mediterránea es un patrón de dieta equilibrado caracterizado por un consumo elevado de frutas y verduras frescas, aceite de oliva y bajo consumo de lácteos y carnes rojas. La adherencia a la dieta mediterránea ha demostrado disminuir la mortalidad al prevenir el desarrollo de sobrepeso y obesidad (3). Sin embargo, el patrón alimenticio de los jóvenes universitarios de hoy en día comienza a asemejarse más al modelo de dieta occidental en detrimento del patrón de dieta mediterránea, aumentando el consumo de grasas saturadas y azúcares refinados y favoreciendo con ello un aumento de la grasa corporal (4).

Mantener un estilo de vida activo con 30 minutos de actividad moderada casi a diario se ha relacionado con un descenso en la mortalidad de un 27%. Sin embargo, no llega al 50% el porcentaje de jóvenes que realizan actividad física de forma habitual (5).

El período universitario supone un cambio en el estilo de vida de los jóvenes, enfrentándose a sus propias elecciones alimenticias aquellos que salen de casa y compatibilizando los estudios con la actividad física y social. Además, la predilección de la sociedad por establecer cánones de belleza que fomentan la extrema delgadez en las mujeres y la excesiva musculatura en hombres influye directamente en su desarrollo personal, lo cual afecta a la satisfacción con su propia imagen corporal y retroalimenta su estilo de vida, pudiendo ello derivar en conductas alimentarias insalubres. Más del 60% de los estudiantes universitarios se perciben de forma errónea y sobreestiman su índice de masa corporal (IMC), hecho más marcado en el sexo femenino (6). Las mujeres más insatisfechas con su figura son las que presentan sobrepeso o bajo peso y los hombres más insatisfechos son aquellos que presentan sobrepeso y obesidad (7).

Para definir y clasificar la obesidad en el adulto se emplea el IMC, razón establecida en base a la masa y talla de cada persona, ya que son dos parámetros fáciles de medir. Sin embargo, el IMC es solo una medida subrogada de la adiposidad corporal y no es una medida precisa de composición. Otras medidas antropométricas, como la circunferencia de la cintura, han demostrado ser mejores estimadores del riesgo cardiovascular que el IMC (8). A raíz de esta controversia se publicaron distintas fórmulas como la Clínica Universidad de Navarra - Body Adiposity Estimator (CUN-BAE), basada en la edad, el sexo, la altura y el peso de la persona, como herramienta alternativa más precisa para el cálculo del porcentaje de grasa y la detección de sobrepeso en esta población (9).

La absorciometría de rayos X de energía dual (DEXA) es una técnica indirecta de análisis de la composición corporal basada en la absorciometría fotónica de rayos X, con una alta precisión para medir la grasa corporal y buena correlación con los valores

estimados mediante hidrodensitometría (10). El tiempo necesario para su realización oscila entre tres y 20 minutos, dependiendo de la masa corporal de cada persona, y tiene en cuenta la variabilidad interindividual en el contenido mineral del hueso. Todo ello hace del DEXA una herramienta precisa y cada vez más contrastada en investigación, pero por su elevado coste es poco aplicable en la práctica clínica habitual (11).

Teniendo en cuenta la magnitud del problema social y sanitario que suponen el sobrepeso y la obesidad, se realizó un estudio basado en el análisis de la alimentación, ejercicio físico y satisfacción con la imagen corporal en relación con el IMC y el porcentaje de grasa en un grupo de estudiantes universitarios.

El objetivo fundamental es determinar la correlación entre la categorización de sobrepeso y obesidad según el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA con el IMC y la fórmula de CUN-BAE. Como objetivo secundario se plantea la posible asociación entre las distintas mediciones de adiposidad con hábitos saludables (adherencia a la dieta mediterránea y ejercicio físico) y la satisfacción con la imagen corporal.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Estudio descriptivo transversal llevado a cabo en una muestra de 64 estudiantes de Medicina recogida entre los años 2015 y 2018, en una rotación de asignación aleatoria. A cada estudiante se le realizó un estudio antropométrico (peso, talla, IMC, perímetro de cintura), un DEXA, un cuestionario de actividad física adaptado a España por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y el Ministerio de Sanidad, Servicios Sociales e Igualdad que responde a las preguntas de la Encuesta Europea de Salud (12), el test empleado en el estudio Prevención con Dieta Mediterránea (PREDIMED) de adherencia a la dieta mediterránea (13) y una adaptación del cuestionario Eating Disorders Inventory-2 (EDI-2) de satisfacción con la imagen corporal (14,15). Se calculó el porcentaje de grasa corporal mediante la fórmula CUN-BAE. Se informó a los participantes del objetivo y las características del estudio y dieron su consentimiento informado. Los datos recogidos se codificaron para respetar la confidencialidad. De los 64 sujetos, hay once que no realizaron los cuestionarios, por lo que no se tuvieron en cuenta para el análisis estadístico de los datos de los cuestionarios.

Las características demográficas y antropométricas de la muestra están reflejadas en la tabla I y la distribución de los sujetos por niveles de actividad física queda recogida en la tabla II.

DATOS ANTROPOMÉTRICOS

Las mediciones antropométricas (peso, talla) fueron realizadas siguiendo los protocolos del National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES, 2007). El peso corporal se determinó con una báscula Seca® (Hamburgo, Alemania), con una precisión de 100 g, y la talla se midió con un tallímetro calibrado con una precisión de 0,5 cm. El IMC se calculó según la fórmula $IMC = \text{peso}/\text{talla}^2$, tomando los rangos definidos por la OMS (1995):

Tabla I. Características demográficas y antropométricas de la muestra

	Total (n = 64)	Hombre (n = 20)	Mujer (n = 44)	N.S.
Edad	23 (2,2)	23,6 (3,3)	22,7 (1,5)	0,118
Talla	170 (7,7)	177,2 (5,4)	166,7 (6,2)	< 0,001
Peso	62,5 (11)	73,1 (9,8)	57,7 (7,7)	< 0,001
IMC	21,5 (2,6)	23,2 (2,4)	20,69 (2,2)	< 0,001
Circunferencia cintura	76,2 (8,8)	82,3 (9,5)	73,4 (6,9)	< 0,001
CUN-BAE	23,4 (5,4)	18,1 (4,3)	25,7 (4)	< 0,001
% grasa DEXA	25,3 (6,7)	19,4 (6,1)	28 (5)	< 0,001
kg grasa DEXA	15,8 (5,3)	14,3 (5,8)	16,5 (4,9)	0,135
Adherencia mediterránea*	9,1 (1,8)	8,9 (1,9)	9,2 (1,8)	0,672
Imagen corporal*	30,9 (9)	33,6 (8,9)	29,5 (8,3)	0,100

*Referido solo a los 53 sujetos que cumplimentaron los cuestionarios. N.S.: nivel de significación; CUN-BAE: Clínica Universidad de Navarra - Body Adiposity Estimator; DEXA: absorciometría de rayos X de energía dual. Los resultados se describen como media (DE).

Tabla II. Distribución de porcentajes de los niveles de actividad física

		Hombre	Mujer	Total
Nivel actividad física	0	5,6%	8,6%	7,5%
	1	11,1%	31,4%	24,5%
	2	33,3%	34,3%	34,0%
	3	50,0%	25,7%	34,0%

< 18,5, peso insuficiente; 18,5-24,9, peso normal; 25-29,9, sobrepeso; y ≥ 30 , obesidad. El perímetro de cintura se midió en el punto medio entre la cresta iliaca y la última costilla en la línea medio axilar, tomando como puntos de corte para obesidad en mujeres > 88 cm y en hombres > 102 cm.

PORCENTAJE GRASA CORPORAL

Se determinó el porcentaje de grasa corporal mediante DEXA, previa comprobación de la calibración. El DEXA estudia la composición corporal a partir de un modelo de tres compartimentos basado en la masa grasa, la masa ósea y la masa magra. Sin embargo, no permite distinguir el líquido del espacio intersticial e intravascular del músculo, por lo que presenta una mayor fiabilidad para la medición de la masa grasa que para la magra. Teniendo en cuenta, además, el objetivo de nuestro estudio, los datos empleados fueron el porcentaje de grasa corporal y kg de grasa.

Se calculó el porcentaje de grasa corporal utilizando la fórmula CUN-BAE desarrollada por la Universidad de Navarra (9), para comparar sus resultados con la medición con DEXA. Esta fórmula se basa en la edad, el sexo, la talla, el peso y el IMC para estimar el porcentaje de grasa corporal.

Como valores de referencia se tomaron los más usados en la literatura, utilizados por J Gómez-Ambrosi y cols. (9): hombres:

20,1-24,9% sobrepeso y $\geq 25\%$ obesidad; mujeres: 30,1-34,9% sobrepeso y $\geq 35\%$ obesidad.

NIVEL DE ACTIVIDAD FÍSICA

Se analizaron las respuestas a la pregunta de la Encuesta Europea de Salud “¿Cuál es la respuesta que mejor describe su actividad física o deportiva en su tiempo libre?”, utilizada en el trabajo “Actividad física y prevalencia de patologías en la población española”, elaborado por el Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte (12). Las posibles respuestas son: a) no hago ejercicio, el tiempo libre lo ocupo de forma casi exclusivamente sedentaria (leer, ver la televisión, ir al cine, etc.); b) hago alguna actividad física (AF) o deportiva ocasional (caminar o pasear en bicicleta, jardinería, gimnasia suave, actividades recreativas que requieren un ligero esfuerzo, etc.); c) hago AF varias veces al mes (deportes, gimnasia, correr, natación, ciclismo, juegos de equipo, etc.); y d) hago entrenamiento deportivo o físico varias veces a la semana. De acuerdo con estas respuestas, se creó una variable para clasificar a la población a estudio en cuatro niveles de actividad física, 0, I, II y III, correspondientes a las opciones de respuesta a, b, c y d, respectivamente.

Se establecieron los grupos en función del nivel de actividad física: 0 y I (sedentarios); II y III (activos). Se calculó el índice de comportamientos sedentarios, dividiendo el porcentaje de sujetos sedentarios entre el de sujetos activos (0+I/I+II).

ADHERENCIA A LA DIETA MEDITERRÁNEA

Se utilizó el test de adherencia a la dieta mediterránea empleado en el estudio PREDIMED (13), que consiste en un cuestionario basado en 14 preguntas acerca de hábitos alimenticios característicos de la dieta mediterránea (consumo de aceite de oliva, verduras, hortalizas, fruta, vino, pescado, frutos secos, etc.). Cada pregunta puntúa 0 o 1, en función de si cumple o no con el

aspecto de adherencia a la dieta mediterránea evaluado en cada pregunta, tomando valores totales de 0 a 14. Se categorizó a los sujetos en baja adherencia (≤ 5), adherencia intermedia (6-9) y buena adherencia (> 9), utilizando los mismos puntos de corte que en el estudio PREDIMED (13).

SATISFACCIÓN CON LA IMAGEN CORPORAL

Se utilizó la subescala de insatisfacción corporal del cuestionario EDI-2 (14,15), que evalúa el malestar que una persona siente en relación a la forma general de su cuerpo o de partes del mismo. Está compuesto por nueve preguntas basadas en el tamaño del abdomen, muslos, caderas y glúteos, centrando el análisis en áreas centrales más que periféricas. La puntuación mínima y máxima de cada pregunta es 0 y 5, respectivamente, según seis posibles respuestas. De esta forma, el cuestionario toma valores de 0 a 45, de menor a mayor grado de satisfacción con la imagen corporal.

MÉTODOS ESTADÍSTICOS

El análisis estadístico se realizó con el paquete estadístico SPSS 19.0 para Windows. La normalidad de las variables se determinó mediante histograma, gráfico P-P y el test de Shapiro-Wilk (porcentaje de grasa mediante CUN-BAE: $W = 0,983$, $p = 0,545$; porcentaje de grasa en DEXA: $W = 0,978$, $p = 0,319$).

Para comparar la sensibilidad y especificidad del IMC con respecto a la medición del porcentaje de grasa corporal por DEXA para el diagnóstico de sobrepeso-obesidad se emplearon tablas cruzadas IMC-DEXA-sexo, pruebas Chi-cuadrado y V de Cramer como test para la comparación de variables cualitativas. Para comprobar la validez de la estimación del porcentaje de grasa corporal mediante la fórmula CUN-BAE respecto a la medición con DEXA, se emplearon el coeficiente de correlación de Pearson y el coeficiente de correlación intraclase, test utilizados para estudiar la asociación de dos variables cuantitativas. Para estudiar la asociación del porcentaje de grasa en DEXA y del IMC con el nivel de actividad física, la adherencia a la dieta mediterránea, el sexo y la satisfacción con la imagen corporal se utilizó el Rho de Spearman, empleado para variables que tienen categorías ordinales.

Se consideró como estadísticamente significativo un valor de $p < 0,05$. Las variables cuantitativas se expresan como media (desviación estándar) y las categóricas, como porcentaje de frecuencias.

Dado que la asignación de los alumnos a la rotación en Endocrinología se realiza de forma aleatoria, se evitó el sesgo de selección por voluntariado. La recogida de datos antropométricos, DEXA y cuestionarios se realizó el mismo día para evitar variaciones. El DEXA se calibró al principio de cada día para evitar cualquier sesgo sistemático de medición. La recogida de datos de las encuestas se realizó de forma escrita con un mismo cuestionario para todos, explicando debidamente cada apartado y cumplimentando los datos de forma codificada para evitar sesgos debidos al encuestado.

RESULTADOS

Se observó coincidencia significativa entre el diagnóstico de sobrepeso por IMC y por DEXA según la prueba de Chi-cuadrado (4,215), pero el efecto es pequeño según el test V de Cramer (0,26).

En la figura 1 se muestran el IMC y el porcentaje de grasa en DEXA por sexos. En hombres, el IMC es mayor con porcentajes de grasa más bajos, mientras que en mujeres el IMC es más bajo con porcentajes de grasa más altos. Para un mismo IMC, las mujeres tienen valores más altos de grasa corporal. En ambos sexos, observamos que, aun con valores de IMC normales, hay cierto número de sujetos con sobrepeso según el DEXA.

Del total de sujetos, 58 tenían un IMC normal, pero 23 de ellos (nueve varones y 14 mujeres) tenían sobrepeso según DEXA (39,7%). De los seis sujetos que tenían un IMC > 25 , uno de ellos no tenía sobrepeso según DEXA (16,7%) (Tabla III).

Para estudiar la validez de la fórmula CUN-BAE para calcular el porcentaje de grasa corporal, se compararon los valores de grasa corporal medidos con esta fórmula y con DEXA con un coeficiente de correlación de Pearson de 0,718 ($p < 0,05$). También se utilizó el Coeficiente de correlación intraclase, con

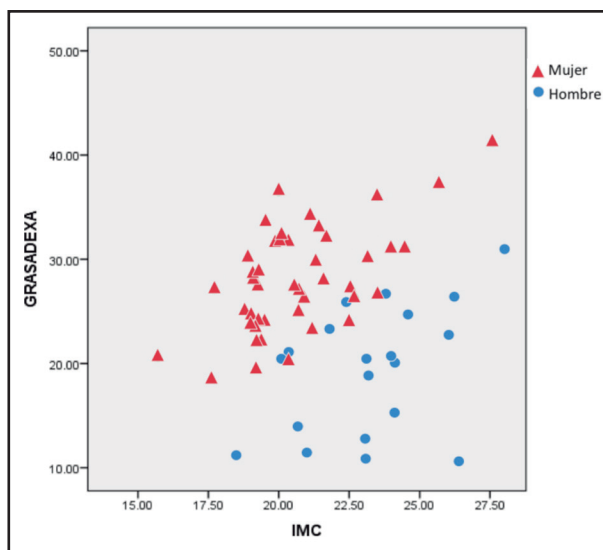


Figura 1.

Relación entre el IMC y el % de grasa corporal con DEXA.

Tabla III. Proporción de normopeso y sobrepeso según IMC entre normopeso y sobrepeso con DEXA

IMC	% Grasa corporal DEXA		Total
	Normal	Sobrepeso	
≤ 25	35 (60,3%)	23 (39,7%)	58
> 25	1 (16,7%)	5 (83,3%)	68

valores de 0,671 ($p < 0,05$) para medidas individuales y de 0,803 ($p < 0,05$) para medidas promedio. La estimación del porcentaje de grasa corporal mediante la fórmula CUN-BAE es consistente y tiene una fiabilidad buena respecto a la medición por DEXA (Fig. 2).

Se observó una correlación negativa baja ($\rho = -0,349$, $p < 0,05$) entre el porcentaje de masa grasa medido por DEXA y el nivel de actividad física, pero no con el grado de adherencia a la dieta mediterránea (Fig. 3). No se observó correlación del IMC con ninguno de los dos hábitos.

Por último, el porcentaje de grasa corporal en DEXA mostró una moderada asociación inversa con la satisfacción con la imagen corporal ($\rho = -0,538$, $p < 0,05$) (Fig. 4). Por tanto, los sujetos con menor porcentaje de grasa corporal tenían una satisfacción más alta con la imagen corporal. Esta asociación no se observó con el IMC ($\rho -0,205$).

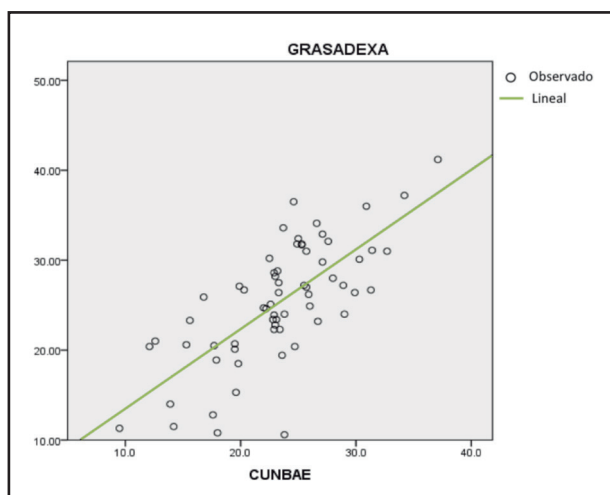


Figura 2.
Correlación entre el % grasa corporal según DEXA y CUN-BAE.

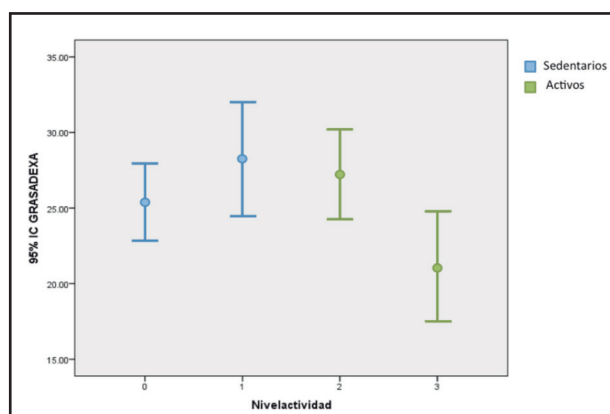


Figura 3.
Correlación entre el nivel de actividad física y el % de grasa corporal.

DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo fundamental del presente estudio es determinar la correlación entre la categorización de sobrepeso y obesidad según el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA con el IMC y la fórmula de CUN-BAE. El objetivo secundario es estudiar la posible asociación entre estas variables con hábitos saludables y la satisfacción con la imagen corporal. Es el primero en comparar el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA con la adherencia a la dieta mediterránea, actividad física y satisfacción con la imagen corporal en estudiantes universitarios.

ESTIMACIÓN DE LA GRASA CORPORAL

La buena correlación entre la fórmula CUN-BAE con el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA refuerza la importancia de tener en cuenta aspectos como la edad y el sexo a la hora de estimar el porcentaje de grasa corporal, ya que tanto el sexo femenino como la edad avanzada se asocian con un porcentaje de grasa mayor (16). La fórmula CUN-BAE ha demostrado ser una herramienta sencilla y fiable para el cálculo del porcentaje de grasa corporal, exceptuando a los pacientes con obesidad grados III y IV (17).

A un mismo IMC, el porcentaje de grasa es mayor en mujeres. De las 64 personas estudiadas, 58 estaban clasificadas con un IMC normal y, sin embargo, de ellas 23 tenían sobrepeso según DEXA (39,7%). Esta falta de correlación entre el IMC y el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA, observada también por J Gómez-Ambrosi y cols. (8), cuestiona la fiabilidad del IMC a la hora de establecer el grado de riesgo cardiovascular, ya que infraestima dicho riesgo cuanto más grasa corporal hay y lo sobreestima cuando hay más músculo, al no considerar las variaciones asociadas al sexo y la edad de los sujetos.

DIETA MEDITERRÁNEA

La puntuación media del cuestionario de adherencia a la dieta mediterránea hallada en nuestra muestra es similar al 8,6 hallado

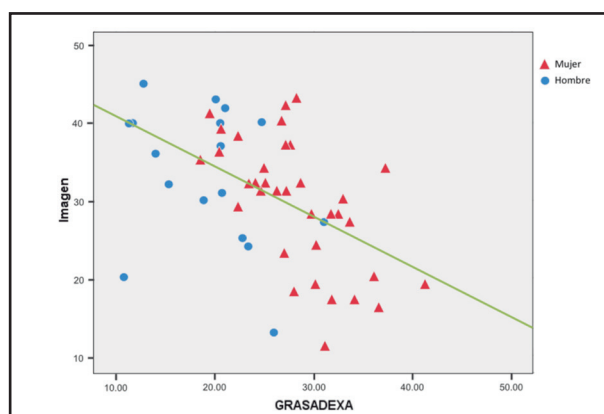


Figura 4.
Correlación entre la imagen corporal y el % de grasa en DEXA.

en el estudio PREDIMED (13), clasificándose como adherencia intermedia (6-9 puntos). Este resultado también se acerca al obtenido en el estudio de García-Meseguer y cols. basado en estudiantes universitarios de distintas carreras de Castilla-La Mancha, que concluyó que la adherencia a la dieta mediterránea entre estudiantes universitarios es intermedia-baja (4).

ACTIVIDAD FÍSICA

Según la EESE de 2014, la población de edades comprendidas entre los 18 y los 24 años es sedentaria en un 32,6% (18), coincidiendo con el 32% registrado en nuestra muestra. Por otra parte, existe una fuerte correlación negativa entre la actividad física y el porcentaje de grasa corporal, siendo más evidente en los estudiantes con un grado máximo de ejercicio (nivel III). Este hallazgo coincide con otros estudios que relacionan la composición corporal medida con DEXA con el ejercicio físico (19).

SATISFACCIÓN CON LA IMAGEN CORPORAL

Se observa una fuerte correlación negativa entre el grado de satisfacción con la imagen corporal y el porcentaje de grasa medido con DEXA, mayor que con el IMC. El hecho de que puntúen peor en el cuestionario los estudiantes que tienen un porcentaje de grasa más alto sugiere que son más conscientes de un exceso de grasa corporal que de un IMC elevado. Teniendo en cuenta la estrecha relación entre el exceso de grasa y el riesgo cardiovascular, este cuestionario de imagen corporal podría emplearse como medida inicial para distinguir a los individuos con una peor valoración de su fenotipo y emplear estudios más exhaustivos de cálculo de grasa corporal en este colectivo. Ello ayudaría a no infradiagnosticar casos de sobrepeso y obesidad que actualmente están considerados como normopeso, empleando técnicas de detección de grasa de mayor coste, como el DEXA, de forma eficiente.

Como aspectos positivos de este estudio, cabe destacar que al tratarse de un grupo homogéneo con una composición corporal similar aumenta la potencia de la prueba estadística al disminuir la varianza intragrupo. Los datos antropométricos de la población estudiada fueron similares a los obtenidos en otros estudios sobre la población universitaria en España (20,21). Según la Encuesta Europea de Salud en España (EESE) del año 2014 con respecto a la población de 18 a 24 años, el 19,8% tenía sobrepeso y el 4,5%, obesidad. Estos datos difieren de los hallados en nuestra muestra, donde un 9,4% tiene sobrepeso y ninguno presenta obesidad. La prevalencia de peso insuficiente fue del 2,2%, un poco menor al 4,7% observado en nuestro grupo. Todo esto podría deberse al pequeño tamaño muestral o a que, efectivamente, el IMC medio de nuestra población universitaria es menor al de la población general.

Otros rasgos importantes son haber usado el DEXA como referencia para medir el contenido de grasa corporal y el rango de edad de los participantes en el estudio, que coincide con el

momento en el que los sujetos establecen los hábitos que probablemente mantendrán en la edad adulta, por lo que la intervención en estas edades podría ser más efectiva.

El principal punto débil es el pequeño tamaño de la muestra estudiada y estar limitada a un tipo muy concreto de sujetos (estudiantes de los tres últimos cursos del Grado de Medicina). Es preciso realizar estudios similares en poblaciones más amplias y representativas de esta franja de edad para confirmar estos resultados.

En conclusión, este estudio muestra la necesidad de nuevas herramientas como la ecuación CUN-BAE, fácilmente aplicables en la práctica clínica y que sean capaces de diagnosticar el sobrepeso en la población con un IMC normal. Se plantea el estudio de la relación entre la satisfacción con la imagen corporal y el porcentaje de grasa en una muestra de mayor tamaño como medida inicial para distinguir a los individuos con una mayor probabilidad de tener sobrepeso sin necesidad de emplear datos antropométricos. Todo ello permitiría emplear técnicas de detección de grasa de forma más eficiente y dirigir las medidas preventivas correspondientes a la verdadera población diana.

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Trabajo Original

Otros

Influencia del entrenamiento en fútbol sobre parámetros de estrés oxidativo en eritrocitos *Influence of soccer training on parameters of oxidative stress in erythrocytes*

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Resumen

Introducción: cualquier situación de estrés, entre las cuales se incluye la realización de ejercicio físico, implica la posibilidad de una excesiva producción de radicales libres y, por acción de estos, un estrés oxidativo en las células. Para combatir estos efectos, las células disponen de unos mecanismos de defensa denominados sistemas antioxidantes.

Objetivos: el objetivo del presente estudio se basa en analizar los posibles cambios fisiológicos en relación a parámetros relacionados con el estrés oxidativo (MDA) y con la actividad antioxidante (vitamina A, vitamina C y vitamina E) en los eritrocitos de jugadores profesionales de fútbol, en comparación con sujetos no entrenados.

Métodos: cuarenta y dos varones divididos en 21 jugadores de fútbol (SG) (24,95 ± 3,03 años) y 21 estudiantes sedentarios (CG) (23,71 ± 2,42 años) participaron en el estudio. Se les evaluaron los niveles basales de MDA, vitamina C, vitamina A y vitamina E en eritrocitos, así como las características antropométricas y el VO₂max.

Resultados: se observaron diferencias significativas en las características antropométricas ($p < 0,05$) y VO₂max ($p > 0,01$). SG presentó niveles estadísticamente inferiores de MDA ($p > 0,01$), vitamina C ($p > 0,05$), vitamina E ($p > 0,05$) y vitamina A ($p > 0,01$).

Conclusiones: existe un mayor estrés oxidativo en jugadores de fútbol que en sedentarios, por lo que puede ser necesaria una suplementación con antioxidantes en este grupo.

Palabras clave:

Estrés oxidativo.
Malondialdehído.
Actividad antioxidante
no enzimática.

Abstract

Introduction: the situations of stress among which physical exercise is included imply the possibility of an excessive production of free radicals and, by their action, an oxidative stress in the cells. To combat these effects, cells have defense mechanisms called antioxidant systems.

Objectives: the objective of this study is to analyze the possible physiological changes in relation to parameters related to oxidative stress (MDA) and antioxidant activity (vitamin A, vitamin C and vitamin E) in the erythrocytes of professional soccer players, in comparison with untrained subjects.

Methods: forty-two men divided into 21 soccer players (SG) (24.95 ± 3.03 years) and 21 sedentary students (CG) (23.71 ± 2.42 years) participated in the study. Their basal levels of MDA, vitamin C, vitamin A and vitamin E in erythrocytes, as well as their anthropometric characteristics and VO₂max, were evaluated.

Results: significant differences were observed in the anthropometric characteristics ($p < 0.05$) and VO₂max ($p > 0.01$). SG presented statistically lower levels of MDA ($p > 0.01$), vitamin C ($p > 0.05$), vitamin E ($p > 0.05$) and vitamin A ($p > 0.01$).

Conclusions: there is higher oxidative stress in soccer players than in sedentary players and it may be necessary to supplement with antioxidants in this group.

Key words:

Oxidative stress.
Malondialdehyde.
Non-enzymatic
antioxidant activity.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Se ha observado que el ejercicio físico aumenta la producción de especies reactivas de oxígeno (ERO) (1). La presencia de las ERO es algo natural en los seres vivos y no solo la presencia o no de estos radicales libres resulta relevante, sino que es de especial interés la cantidad en la que se producen.

Cualquier situación de estrés que requiera un proceso metabólico en el que haya reacciones redox es, *per se*, una posible fuente continua de producción de radicales libres. El ejercicio físico, que se encuentra dentro de estas situaciones de estrés metabólico, implica la posibilidad de una excesiva producción de radicales libres. El incremento del consumo de oxígeno, la liberación de catecolaminas, el exceso de ácido láctico, la actividad de enzimas como la xantina oxidasa o la generación de radicales libres por las mitocondrias son fuentes que pueden aumentar la producción de ERO durante el ejercicio (2). Por ello, parámetros como la intensidad o la duración de la actividad física parecen estar relacionados con el daño oxidativo (3,4). Incluso durante la recuperación del ejercicio físico, las células sanguíneas pueden por sí mismas producir cantidades significativas de ERO. Los mayores generadores de ERO se localizan en la sangre durante el ejercicio y pueden ser eritrocitos (debido principalmente a su cantidad) y leucocitos, debido a la activación drástica durante el ejercicio (5). La excesiva producción de radicales libres puede ocasionar daños en otros tejidos tales como el ADN, proteínas o glúcidos (6). Además, la disfunción contráctil relacionada con el daño oxidativo y la fatiga muscular pueden ocurrir cuando los niveles de ERO exceden la capacidad del sistema antioxidante durante el ejercicio irregular o extenuante y sostenido (7,8), por lo que su diagnóstico es de vital importancia.

Numerosos estudios han tratado de observar tanto la respuesta aguda como la respuesta crónica del ejercicio físico sobre parámetros de estrés oxidativo y respuesta antioxidante (9-12). El estrés oxidativo se ha destacado en respuesta a cualquier forma de ejercicios exhaustivos aeróbicos y anaeróbicos (13,14). Concretamente en fútbol, se han observado cambios de MDA plasmáticos durante el periodo de recuperación tras un esfuerzo en un partido (15). Así, la acumulación de ejercicio intenso prolongado puede provocar un aumento del estrés oxidativo, incluso en deportistas altamente entrenados (16,17). A lo largo de una temporada, Spanidis y cols. (2016) observaron un aumento tanto en la capacidad antioxidante total plasmática como en los parámetros de estrés oxidativo en jugadores de baloncesto (18). En una investigación reciente, se encontró que el estado redox de los jugadores profesionales de fútbol se altera de acuerdo con el periodo de entrenamiento (periodos de temporada) y que las variaciones de la relación GSH/GSSH se correlacionan con las cargas de entrenamiento acumuladas (19).

Sin embargo, pocos estudios han comparado el efecto crónico (adaptaciones) del entrenamiento en fútbol con sujetos sedentarios en estos parámetros. Por ello, el propósito de este estudio fue comparar las posibles adaptaciones producidas en el MDA y las vitaminas antioxidantes no enzimáticas en eritrocitos en jugadores de fútbol (SG) y sujetos sedentarios (CG).

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

PARTICIPANTES

Veintiún jugadores de fútbol varones (SG) ($24,95 \pm 3,03$ años) y 21 ($23,71 \pm 2,42$ años) estudiantes varones (CG) que no practicaban ninguna actividad deportiva diaria ($23,23 \pm 3,89$ años) participaron en el presente estudio. Los sujetos fueron evaluados al inicio de la temporada. Todos ellos fueron informados acerca del propósito del estudio y firmaron un formulario de consentimiento antes de inscribirse en el estudio. Esta investigación se llevó a cabo bajo las directrices éticas de la Declaración de Helsinki, actualizadas en la Asamblea Médica Mundial en Seúl en 2008, para la investigación con sujetos humanos.

Los jugadores de fútbol tenían al menos cinco años de experiencia en el entrenamiento de fútbol y un volumen de entrenamiento de alrededor de 12 horas por semana, perteneciente al mismo equipo que participó en una liga semiprofesional de España. Asimismo, no ingerían ningún tipo de suplementación adicional a su dieta diaria. Igualmente, como criterio de inclusión en el grupo control, los sujetos no podían haber utilizado suplementaciones nutricionales en los seis meses anteriores al estudio.

TEST DE ESFUERZO

El consumo máximo de oxígeno fue medido a través de una prueba incremental máxima hasta el agotamiento en tapiz rodante (Ergo-Fit 4000, Alemania). A fin de eliminar los posibles efectos de la fatiga producidos por el entrenamiento, el SG realizó la prueba con 48 horas de recuperación tras el último entrenamiento. Previamente al test, se realizó un calentamiento de diez minutos a 8 km/h. Posteriormente, el test se inició en 8 km/h incrementando la velocidad cada dos minutos en 1 km/h hasta la extenuación, momento en el que los participantes no podían mantener la velocidad requerida. El consumo máximo de oxígeno (VO_2max) se obtuvo mediante analizador de gases (Geratherm Respiratory GMBH, Ergostik™ [Ref 40.400; Corp Bad Kissingen]).

MEDIDAS ANTROPOMÉTRICAS

Las características morfológicas de los participantes se midieron por la mañana y a la misma hora (09:00 a.m.). La altura se midió con una precisión de 0,1 cm utilizando un estadiómetro montado en la pared (Seca®, Hamburgo, Alemania) y el peso corporal se midió con una precisión de 0,01 kg utilizando balanzas digitales electrónicas calibradas (Seca®, Hamburgo, Alemania) en condiciones descalzas. El contenido de grasa corporal se estimó a partir de la suma de seis pliegues cutáneos (abdominal, suprailiaco, tricipital y subescapular, muslo y pantorrilla). El grosor de los pliegues cutáneos se midió con un calibrador de pliegues cutáneos (Holtain®, Crymmych, Reino Unido). La composición corporal se calculó siguiendo las directrices del grupo español de cineantropometría (20). El mismo investigador, experto en técnicas de cineantropometría, realizó todas las mediciones.

Los sujetos fueron medidos en el laboratorio tras un ayuno nocturno y se abstuvieron de un entrenamiento intenso y/o competencia durante al menos 24 horas antes de la prueba.

Los atletas fueron informados para abstenerse de la suplementación dietética con vitaminas o antioxidantes y no cambiar sus hábitos alimenticios a lo largo del estudio.

RECOLECCIÓN DE MUESTRAS

A las nueve en punto de la mañana, después de pesar a los participantes, se extrajeron diez mililitros de sangre venosa antecubital de cada participante usando EDTA como anticoagulante. La sangre se centrifugó inmediatamente a 3.000 rpm durante diez minutos (P-Selecta®, Meditronic) usando una jeringa de plástico con una aguja de acero inoxidable. La muestra de sangre se recogió en un tubo de polipropileno libre de metal (lavado previamente con ácido nítrico diluido). Tras ello, la muestra de sangre se centrifugó a 3.000 rpm durante 15 minutos a temperatura ambiente (23 ± 1 °C) para separar el plasma de los eritrocitos. Los eritrocitos se lavaron tres veces con NaCl al 0,9% (p/v), se reconstituyeron con agua destilada en el mismo volumen que el plasma y se almacenaron a -20 °C hasta su ensayo. Los parámetros de eritrocitos se expresaron en µg/g Hb.

DETERMINACIÓN DE ELEMENTOS

La hemoglobina (Hb) se determinó mediante un analizador de Hb (HemoCue®, Suecia). La peroxidación lipídica en eritrocitos se estimó mediante la medición de MDA, como describe Chirico (21), determinado por HPLC (Spectra™ Series P100/UV 100) y realizando calibración lineal ($r = 0,99$). MDA-HPLC y MDA-TBARS son sensibles para detectar cambios en la MDA inducida por ejercicio agudo (21). MDA-HPLC es la técnica más adecuada para la detección precisa de MDA en los deportes y el área de ejercicio debido a su sensibilidad y precisión (22).

El contenido de vitamina C de las muestras se determinó por HPLC usando los métodos descritos por Manoharan y Schwille (23) y se analizó el mismo día. Las vitaminas A y E se analizaron por HPLC mediante el método descrito por Shearer (24).

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

El análisis estadístico se llevó a cabo con el software IBM SPSS Statistic versión 22 para Windows. Los resultados se expresan como media $\pm$ desviación estándar (media $\pm$ desviación estándar). La prueba t de Student se utilizó para comparar la concentración en reposo entre SG y CG. Un valor $p < 0,05$ se consideró estadísticamente significativo.

RESULTADOS

En la tabla I se muestran las características antropométricas y de VO_{2max} de la muestra. Se observan diferencias significativas

en todas las características antropométricas ($p < 0,05$) a excepción de la altura. También hubo diferencias muy significativas en relación al VO_{2max} ($p < 0,01$)

Se expresan en la tabla II los valores obtenidos de MDA eritrocitario, tanto en sujetos “entrenados” como en sujetos “no entrenados”, expresados en µmol/g Hb.

Como se puede observar, existen diferencias significativas entre ambos grupos, siendo mayores las concentraciones eritrocitarias encontradas en sujetos no entrenados. Concretamente, se pueden apreciar valores más elevados de vitamina C en CG, siendo las diferencias encontradas estadísticamente significativas ($p < 0,05$) en la medición de este parámetro de actividad antioxidante. Igualmente, se encontraron valores significativamente más elevados de vitamina E en sujetos no entrenados ($p < 0,05$). Finalmente, se obtuvo un mayor contenido significativo de vitamina A en CG con respecto al grupo SG ($p < 0,01$).

DISCUSIÓN

En la tabla I se muestran algunos parámetros relacionados con la antropometría y la capacidad funcional que demuestran las claras diferencias en ambos grupos. Por otro lado, el propósito de este estudio fue comparar las posibles adaptaciones producidas en MDA y las vitaminas antioxidantes no enzimáticas en SG y CG. Atendiendo a los resultados obtenidos, las concentraciones de MDA eritrocitario obtenidas en el presente estudio son menores a los niveles previos obtenidos en un estudio reciente, donde se suplementaba con sésamo a jugadores semiprofesionales (25).

Tabla I. Características generales de la muestra

	CG	FG
Altura (m)	$1,68 \pm 0,34$	$1,78 \pm 0,05$
Peso total (kg)	$72,12 \pm 8,56$	$69,86 \pm 4,53^*$
% peso graso	$44,95 \pm 0,85$	$47,05 \pm 0,84^*$
% peso muscular	$16,55 \pm 0,57$	$17,42 \pm 1,43^*$
VO_{2max} (ml/kg/min)	$45,61 \pm 4,95$	$61,02 \pm 4,35^†$

CG: estudiantes sedentarios; SG: jugadores de fútbol; % peso graso: porcentaje graso corporal; % peso muscular: porcentaje de peso muscular; VO_{2max} : consumo máximo de oxígeno. * $p < 0,05$; † $p < 0,01$. Test de Student, comparación no entrenados vs. futbolistas.

Tabla II. Concentraciones de MDA y vitaminas antioxidantes en eritrocitos

Parámetros	SG	CG
MDA (µmol/g Hb)	$0,55 \pm 0,12$	$0,70 \pm 0,21^{**}$
Vitamina C (µg/g Hb)	$7,23 \pm 2,35$	$21,12 \pm 5,28^*$
Vitamina E (µg/g Hb)	$3,20 \pm 1,03$	$5,76 \pm 1,45^*$
Vitamina A (µg/g Hb)	$0,15 \pm 0,03$	$0,48 \pm 0,08^{**}$

CG: estudiantes sedentarios; SG: jugadores de fútbol; * $p < 0,05$; † $p < 0,01$ diferencias entre SG vs. CG.

En otros trabajos, al comparar sujetos entrenados con sujetos no entrenados los valores fueron significativamente inferiores ($p < 0,01$) en deportistas, como refleja la presente investigación. Esto podría deberse a las adaptaciones producidas por el entrenamiento, y podría existir un equilibrio entre la producción de ERO y la respuesta antioxidante (26,27). Este fenómeno fue corroborado por Hadzovic y cols. (2014), que indicaron aumentos en los marcadores de estrés oxidativo en comparación con los valores referenciales al observar dichos marcadores en luchadores, jugadores de fútbol y de baloncesto. Por otro lado, en un estudio sobre suplementación llevado a cabo en jugadores semiprofesionales de fútbol, los valores iniciales de MDA previos a la intervención eran superiores a los observados en esta investigación (25). En la línea de los resultados obtenidos en la tabla II, Olubajo and Olubajo AF (28) realizaron una investigación en mujeres futbolistas y mujeres desentrenadas donde se tomaron niveles de MDA previos y posteriores a una prueba incremental. Los niveles previos de MDA fueron similares en ambos grupos y, en contraste con el presente estudio, los niveles de SG basales en ayuno fueron significativamente menores a CG, aunque en dicho estudio obtenían esta diferencia después de la prueba incremental.

La respuesta antioxidante estudiada en el presente trabajo refleja una menor concentración eritrocitaria de vitamina C en SG, en contrapunto con Cazzola y cols. (29), quienes encontraron niveles significativamente mayores en futbolistas que en sedentarios, pero medidos en plasma en vez de en eritrocitos (29). No obstante, en lo que respecta a la respuesta eritrocitaria de dicha vitamina ante esfuerzos de intensidad máxima, se han encontrado descensos estadísticamente significativos (30) al igual que tras la realización de un entrenamiento de 60 minutos con futbolistas profesionales en comparación con los valores iniciales (31). Estos niveles inferiores en eritrocito podrían ser debidos a la salida de vitamina C al plasma, ya que a nivel celular existe un incremento en la actividad enzimática antioxidante que constituye la primera barrera para combatir la producción de ERO (32,33). Así, Munoz Marin y cols. (3) obtuvieron niveles significativamente mayores de vitamina C en plasma y significativamente menores en eritrocito tras un test máximo en ciclistas entrenados.

Dentro de las vitaminas liposolubles, en la vitamina E se observó que los valores eritrocitarios obtenidos en SG son significativamente inferiores ($p < 0,05$) a CG. Ante un esfuerzo físico, los valores de vitamina E en plasma resultan superiores a los encontrados en eritrocito (34), debido a que en el interior celular podrían actuar otras enzimas antioxidantes, siendo la utilización y los niveles de vitamina E eritrocitaria menores. Igualmente, estos resultados podrían ser debidos a la actuación de la vitamina E eritrocitaria cuando otros sistemas antioxidantes no son capaces de neutralizar los radicales libres de oxígeno responsables de la peroxidación lipídica (35).

Finalmente, los niveles de vitamina A, también de naturaleza liposoluble, y al igual que en las vitaminas antioxidantes anteriormente analizadas en este estudio, fueron significativamente inferiores en deportistas entrenados que en sujetos no entrenados, con una alta significación estadística ($p < 0,01$). Al no haber hallado literatura científica en la que se midan las adaptaciones

producidas por el entrenamiento en este antioxidante no enzimático, no podemos hacer una comparación de esta investigación con otras, si bien el comportamiento de esta vitamina ante el ejercicio físico ha mostrado resultados contradictorios en diferentes investigaciones (36-39). En cualquier caso, al igual que ocurre con la vitamina E, los niveles reducidos de vitamina A podrían deberse a su utilización para combatir la producción de radicales libres de oxígeno.

Los resultados obtenidos en los distintos marcadores medidos, tanto de peroxidación lipídica como de actividad antioxidante a nivel eritrocitario, muestran una evidencia en cuanto a los niveles inferiores de las distintas vitaminas analizadas en SG respecto a CG. Este déficit de vitaminas antioxidantes podría ser debido a su utilización para combatir el estrés oxidativo derivado del entrenamiento, por lo que una suplementación de estas vitaminas antioxidantes o una mayor ingesta de alimentos ricos en estas vitaminas podría resultar beneficiosa para evitar posibles déficits o carencias en sujetos entrenados, tal y como muestran algunos estudios, en los cuales se observa cómo las suplementaciones de antioxidantes permiten, por un lado, reducir el estrés oxidativo provocado por el entrenamiento y la competición y, por otro, que el rendimiento no se vea afectado por el déficit de estas vitaminas (40).

No obstante, este trabajo presenta una serie de limitaciones que deben ser tenidas en cuenta a la hora de interpretar los resultados. En primer lugar, la falta de un registro dietético en los participantes, que podría afectar a las concentraciones eritrocitarias encontradas, si bien es cierto que estas concentraciones son las menos afectadas por la ingesta dietética a corto plazo. Por otro lado, solo se realizó una toma para la determinación de los diferentes parámetros bioquímicos basales, y sería interesante, para futuras investigaciones, obtener varias muestras a lo largo de la(s) temporada(s) para observar la evolución de los parámetros de estrés oxidativo y respuesta antioxidante.

CONCLUSIONES

En conclusión, los sujetos entrenados presentan mayor estrés oxidativo eritrocitario que los sujetos no entrenados, en condiciones basales, probablemente como consecuencia del entrenamiento. En esta fase sería recomendable un mayor aporte en dichos antioxidantes a los deportistas.

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Trabajo Original

Otros

Influencia del ejercicio físico en la evolución del peso gestacional y posparto. Ensayo clínico aleatorizado

Influence of exercise on weight gain during pregnancy. Randomized clinical trial

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Resumen

Introducción: el ejercicio físico es una buena forma de mantener un estilo de vida saludable y su práctica regular es recomendable durante el periodo gestacional, favoreciendo, entre otros, una adecuada ganancia ponderal durante la gestación y una mejor recuperación del peso pregestacional.

Objetivo: analizar la evolución del peso, gestacional y posparto, en mujeres embarazadas que realizan un programa de ejercicio físico moderado en el medio acuático.

Material y métodos: se realizó una intervención mediante un programa de ejercicio físico acuático diseñado específicamente para mujeres embarazadas. Los participantes fueron asignados al azar al grupo de ejercicios (GE; n = 65) o al grupo de control (GC; n = 64). Los participantes en el GE realizaron tres sesiones por semana de ejercicios físicos, que fueron dirigidos por el investigador principal. Las participantes del GC recibieron atención prenatal de rutina. El peso materno se midió durante la gestación en las semanas 20 y 35 y en el posparto en las semanas 16 y 28 del mismo.

Resultados: la ganancia ponderal durante la gestación presenta diferencias significativas entre grupos ($p < 0,001$). Las retenciones de peso a los cuatro meses y a los siete meses fueron significativas entre GE y GC ($p < 0,001$). El peso del recién nacido se mantuvo en el rango de peso normal para recién nacidos a término en ambos grupos, aunque con diferencias significativas ($p = 0,011$).

Conclusión: la metodología Study of Water Exercise Pregnancy (SWEP) durante el embarazo ayuda al control de la ganancia de peso gestacional y a la recuperación del peso pregestacional.

Palabras clave:

Mujeres embarazadas.
Ejercicio. Aumento de peso. Peso al nacer.
Ambiente acuático.

Abstract

Introduction: physical exercise is a good way to maintain a healthy lifestyle and its regular practice is recommended during the gestational period, favoring, among others, an adequate weight gain during pregnancy and a better recovery of pre-pregnancy weight.

Objective: to analyze the evolution of weight, gestational and postpartum, in pregnant women who perform a program of moderate physical exercise in the aquatic environment.

Material and methods: an intervention was carried out through a program of aquatic physical exercise designed specifically for pregnant women. The participants were randomly assigned to the exercise group (EG; n = 65) or to the control group (CG; n = 64). Participants in the EG performed three sessions per week of physical exercises, which were led by the principal investigator. CG participants received routine prenatal care. Maternal weight was measured during pregnancy at weeks 20 and 35, and postpartum at weeks 16 and 28 of the same.

Results: weight gain during pregnancy shows significant differences between groups ($p < 0.001$). Weight retention at four months and at seven months were significant between EG and GC ($p < 0.001$). The weight of the newborn remained in the range of normal weight for term newborns in both groups, although with significant differences ($p = 0.011$).

Conclusion: the Study of Water Exercise Pregnancy (SWEP) methodology during pregnancy helps control the gain of gestational weight and the recovery of pre-pregnancy weight.

Key words:

Pregnant women.
Exercise. Weight gain.
Birth weight. Aquatic environment.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) describió en 2013 que la evidencia apoya asociaciones entre ganancia excesiva gestacional y retención de peso después del parto en la madre, además de relacionarse con el aumento del peso de los bebés al nacer. Por otro lado, un incremento de peso materno insuficiente conlleva dar a luz hijos de un menor peso (1).

Asimismo, tras el congreso de noviembre de 2015, el ACOG (2) observa que el ejercicio físico tiene efectos beneficiosos cuando se practica de forma regular en cualquier momento de la vida, incluida la gestación.

Con el ejercicio físico se pretende conseguir una sensación de bienestar de la madre, mejorar el sueño y ayudar a controlar el peso (3), tanto de la madre como de su bebé. Además, es un factor positivo para facilitar el parto, pues se ha comprobado una menor duración en sus distintas etapas y menores intervenciones obstétricas. Se minimizan las complicaciones que pudieran surgir durante el alumbramiento y mejora el control glucémico en la diabetes gestacional (4-6).

La gestante disminuye el ejercicio físico y la causa puede ser el desconocimiento de sus efectos beneficiosos. Ello incluye también a los profesionales sanitarios, que deben informar a las mujeres sobre las ventajas del ejercicio físico durante el embarazo, tanto para la mujer como para su bebé (6).

En la actualidad, el American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) recomienda durante el embarazo, en ausencia de complicaciones médicas u obstétricas, el ejercicio regular, al menos tres veces por semana durante 30-40 minutos (7).

La mujer necesita prepararse durante el embarazo para el rol de madre y para los eventuales cambios que sufrirá su entorno (social, familiar, laboral, etc.) (8). El ejercicio físico es una buena forma de mantener un estilo de vida saludable y su práctica se ha demostrado recomendable durante el periodo gestacional (9), ya que es una buena herramienta para limitar los efectos que sobre el cuerpo de la mujer tienen lugar durante ese periodo.

Atendiendo a lo anteriormente expuesto, nos planteamos la hipótesis de si era posible controlar la ganancia ponderal, y con ello, mejorar la recuperación del peso pregestacional, realizando un programa de ejercicios en el medio acuático especialmente diseñado para este periodo tan crucial de la vida de la mujer y que estuviera de acuerdo con las recomendaciones de ejercicios que propone o establece el ACOG.

El objetivo del presente estudio fue analizar la evolución del peso, gestacional y posparto, en mujeres embarazadas que realizan un programa de ejercicio físico moderado en el medio acuático.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODO

DISEÑO DEL PROYECTO

Se realizó un ensayo controlado aleatorio de etiqueta abierta, en el que tanto los sujetos como los investigadores conocían el

grupo de intervención. El estudio siguió las normas CONSORT publicadas en 2010 (10).

Fue aprobado por el Comité de Ética para la Investigación de la provincia de Granada (CEI-Granada), número 2606.2013. Las mujeres firmaron un consentimiento informado antes del estudio, de acuerdo con las normas establecidas por la Declaración de Helsinki, revisadas por el Secretariado de la AMM (Asociación Médica Mundial) en lo concerniente al Consentimiento Informado el 5 de mayo de 2015 (11).

El estudio está registrado en la web ClinicalTrials.gov con el número (NCT02761967).

MUESTRA

Los datos de las participantes fueron compilados en los centros de salud del Distrito Sanitario Granada-Metropolitano, los cuales brindan atención de maternidad a la población de la ciudad y actúan como centros de referencia para la provincia.

El investigador responsable del reclutamiento contactó con 364 posibles participantes, quienes fueron informadas de las condiciones del estudio. A las mujeres que expresaron interés en el proyecto se les envió información relevante por correo electrónico, que contestaron por la misma vía si estaban interesadas. De estas mujeres, 235 fueron excluidas; 122 no cumplieron con los criterios de inclusión, 93 se negaron a participar (sin especificar ninguna razón) y 20 se negaron a participar por razones personales, como el miedo al ejercicio físico durante el embarazo, las responsabilidades familiares o la dificultad para asistir a las sesiones de ejercicio. La muestra final, por lo tanto, estuvo compuesta por 129 mujeres. Los datos antropométricos de referencia se obtuvieron durante la semana 12, en el primer trimestre del embarazo. En la semana 14, cada mujer fue asignada al azar a uno de los grupos de estudio, ya sea al grupo de ejercicios (EG; $n = 65$) o al grupo de control (CG; $n = 64$). Las mujeres asignadas al GE fueron entrevistadas por el investigador principal, quien les informó sobre los beneficios que se esperan de la participación en las sesiones de ejercicio.

Para participar en este estudio, las mujeres embarazadas deben estar saludables con una gestación única sin complicaciones y no sufrir ninguna de las contraindicaciones absolutas descritas en la Sección 1 del documento ACOG número 650: *"Physical activity and exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period"* (2). Es decir, enfermedad cardíaca, enfermedad pulmonar restrictiva, cerclaje por incompetencia cervical, gestación múltiple con riesgo de parto prematuro, sangrado persistente en el segundo o tercer trimestre, parto prematuro durante el embarazo actual, rotura de las membranas, preeclampsia o hipertensión inducida por el embarazo y anemia severa. Si se observaba alguna contraindicación relativa, se debía obtener un informe favorable del obstetra antes de participar en este estudio. En caso de alguna indicación de que el ejercicio debiera suspenderse, se consultaría al obstetra de la mujer sobre la conveniencia de continuar con el programa.

Se aceptaron mujeres primíparas y múltiparas para determinar si había diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre ellas.

INTERVENCIÓN

Las gestantes del GE realizaron ejercicio físico de carácter moderado en el medio acuático según la metodología Study of Water Exercise Pregnancy (SWEP) publicada por el Grupo de Investigación CTS-367 (12). Desde la 20 hasta la 37 SG se efectuaron tres sesiones semanales de una hora de duración de los ejercicios recogidos en ese método. Se impartieron por la mañana o por la tarde, tras una ingesta calórica e hidratación adecuadas.

Las sesiones comprendían tres fases. Primero, la fase de calentamiento, que a su vez se dividió en calentamiento general ejecutado en seco y calentamiento específico en el medio acuático, con ejercicios adecuados a la práctica prevista. En la fase principal, el ejercicio se dividió en una parte aeróbica en piscina grande y otra de ejercicios de fuerza propios del parto en la piscina pequeña. Por último, la fase final, que consistió en ejercicios de estiramiento y relajación.

El GC siguió las recomendaciones habituales durante el embarazo, consistentes en recibir las orientaciones generales de su matrona sobre los efectos positivos del ejercicio físico.

Las participantes del GC tenían las visitas habituales con los proveedores de salud (matronas, obstetras y médicos de familiar) durante el embarazo, al igual que las del GE.

INSTRUMENTOS

Variables sociodemográficas y antropométricas

Se midieron los siguientes parámetros: edad, nivel de estudios, clase social, paridad, estado civil, historial obstétrico, estatura y peso en la 20 SG (Peso1) y 35 SG (Peso2) y a las 16 (Peso3) y 28 semanas tras el parto (Peso4).

El peso corporal (kg) se evaluó con una escala calibrada y la altura (m) se midió utilizando una varilla metálica calibrada.

El IMC se calculó utilizando la fórmula desarrollada por Quetelet, astrónomo belga, naturalista y matemático. El valor del IMC se obtiene mediante la fórmula $\text{peso}/\text{altura}^2$ y se expresa como kg/m^2 (13).

También se evaluó la clase social de la gestante. Se midió con la versión en español de Álvarez-Dardet y cols. (1995) (14) de la clase social basada en la ocupación (15), con las siguientes categorías: ocupaciones profesionales, ocupaciones gerenciales y técnicas, ocupaciones no manuales calificadas y ocupaciones manuales calificadas, ocupaciones parcialmente calificadas y ocupaciones no calificadas.

La variable ganancia ponderal (Gan_pond) se calculó restando la variable Peso2 a la variable Peso1. La variable retención de kilogramos a los cuatro meses del parto (ret_4meses) se calculó restandole a la variable Peso3 la variable Peso1 y la variable retención de kilogramos a los siete meses del parto (ret_7meses) se calculó restandole a la variable Peso4 la variable Peso1.

Resultados perinatales

El registro de las variables edad gestacional en el parto y peso del recién nacido (pesoRN) se efectuó estudiando el registro del

partograma (16). La variable edad gestacional en el parto se calculó en días, convirtiendo la variable a Dias_gest.

Cuestionario de actividad física

Para evaluar el nivel de actividad física de los participantes al comienzo del estudio, se les pidió que completaran el Cuestionario Global de Actividad Física (GPAQ) en la duodécima semana de gestación. El GPAQ fue desarrollado en 2002 por la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS). Consta de 16 preguntas diseñadas para estimar el nivel de actividad física de un individuo en tres dominios (tiempo de trabajo, tiempo de viaje y tiempo libre) y el tiempo empleado en el comportamiento sedentario. El GPAQ se desarrolló inicialmente como un instrumento para evaluar y comparar los niveles de actividad física a nivel local e internacional. Se puede usar para monitorear los niveles de actividad física moderada a vigorosa y los cambios a este respecto y, por lo tanto, para evaluar la efectividad de las intervenciones de actividad física dentro de una población. Su validez y confiabilidad han sido corroboradas por Cleland y cols. (2014) (17).

Nivel de esfuerzo e intensidad del ejercicio

Para medir el esfuerzo percibido por las gestantes durante el ejercicio se empleó la escala clásica de Borg de esfuerzo percibido (EEP) (18). Una puntuación de 12-14, "algo duro", indica ejercicio de intensidad moderada. A las mujeres que informaron un valor mayor a 14 en la escala de Borg al final de cada sesión de ejercicio se les midió la frecuencia cardiaca (utilizando un oxímetro de pulso Quirumed OXYM2000) para determinar si el ejercicio realmente fue moderado o subjetivamente intenso.

TAMAÑO MUESTRAL

Las participantes fueron reclutadas del SWEP. Se trata de un estudio elaborado para estudiar la influencia del ejercicio físico de carácter moderado, realizado en el medio acuático, sobre los resultados perinatales. La metodología completa del SWEP ha sido publicada anteriormente por Aguilar-Cordero y cols. (2016) (12). Estos son resultados secundarios de dicho estudio principal.

ALEATORIZACIÓN

La asignación de la muestra en los diferentes grupos se realizó al azar, siguiendo una técnica probabilística y sin reemplazo, del tipo *open-label*, en la que los sujetos y los investigadores conocían las distintas fases de la intervención.

A cada mujer embarazada captada en el centro de salud y que reunía los criterios de inclusión, el investigador responsable del reclutamiento le entregó un boleto con un número de serie. Cada boleto fue colocado en un sobre opaco y este, a su vez, en un conte-

nedor. Una vez que todos los sobres estuvieron en el contenedor, el investigador principal (IP) extrajo 65 sobres, que fueron asignados al GE, y los 64 sobres restantes fueron asignados al GC. Las personas asignadas al GE tuvieron una entrevista personal con el IP, quien les informó sobre los beneficios de asistir a las sesiones, proporcionó un expediente que explicaba la intervención y enfatizó la necesidad de estar alerta a las señales de advertencia que indican la necesidad de suspender ejercicio físico durante el embarazo.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Se ha efectuado un análisis descriptivo de las principales variables estudiadas. La normalidad de las variables se ha contrastado con el test de Kolmogorov-Smirnov y se analizaron las varianzas mediante el test de Leven. Se llevó a cabo un análisis bivalente utilizando el test t de Student cuando se cumplía la hipótesis de normalidad y el test de Wilcoxon en los casos en los que no se cumplió la hipótesis de normalidad.

Todos los análisis se practicaron mediante el software estadístico SPSS (versión 19, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, Estados Unidos) estableciéndose el nivel significativo en $p < 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

DIAGRAMA DE FLUJO

La captación de la muestra del estudio está mostrada en el diagrama de flujo de la figura 1.

No se observaron diferencias significativas entre las participantes del GE y GC. El análisis descriptivo basal de la muestra se refleja en la tabla I.

Se observa que no hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas al inicio de la intervención entre GC y GE que pudieran influir en el objetivo del estudio.

Se analizaron los datos finalmente de 61 mujeres del grupo de ejercicios y de 58 mujeres del grupo de control. En la tabla II se observan los datos de las variables objeto del estudio, en las distintas fases descritas en la metodología.

La evolución del peso materno durante el embarazo se muestra en la figura 2.

En la figura 3 se puede apreciar que el peso del recién nacido presentó diferencias significativas, siendo menor el de las madres del GE. Aunque nos encontramos una diferencia estadísticamente significativa entre los dos grupos, estos resultados

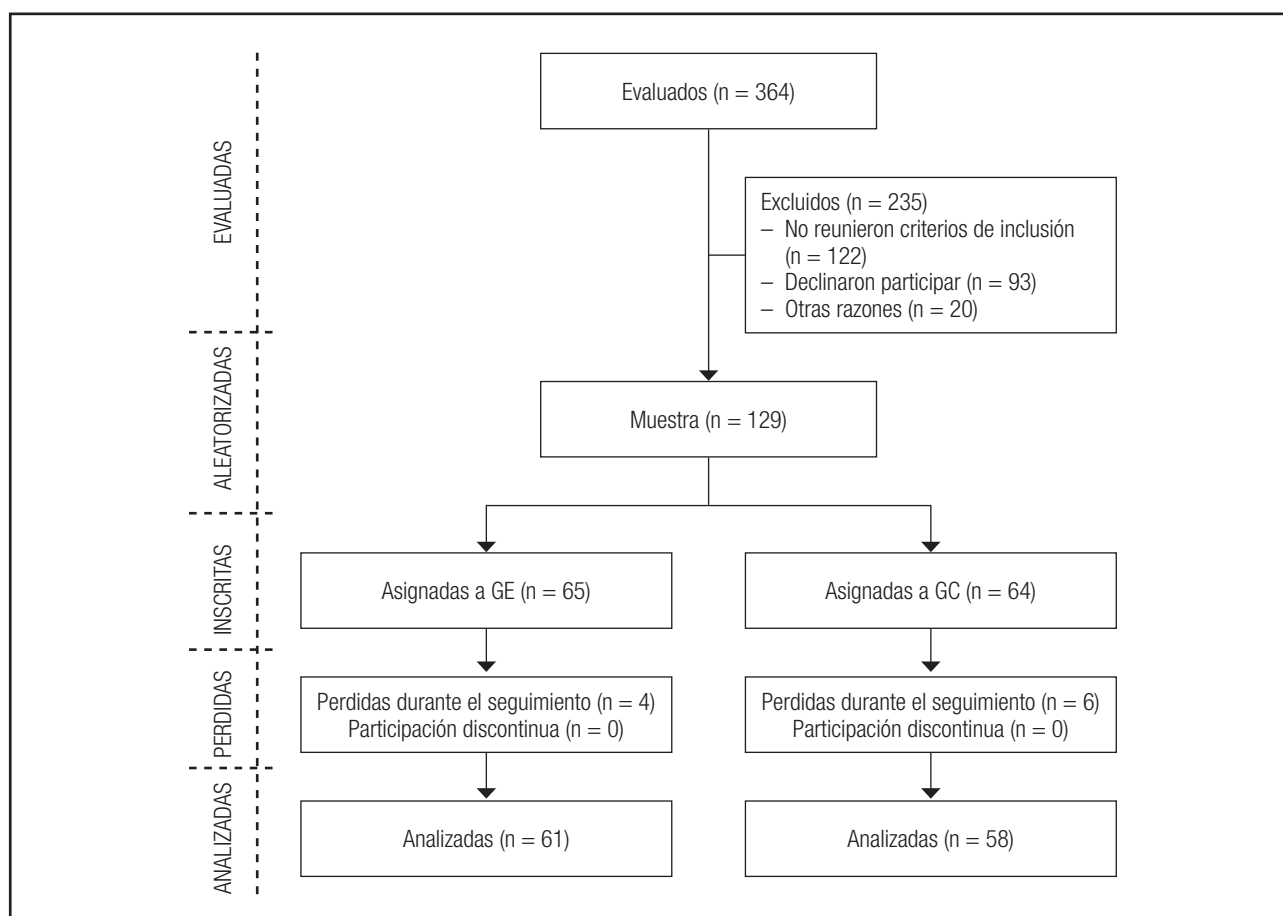


Figura 1.

Diagrama de flujo.

Tabla I. Características basales de la muestra

Características	GE n = 65	GC n = 64	Valor p
Edad materna*	32,12 ± 4,43	30,58 ± 4,75	0,331
Rango	21-43	22-43	
Paridad†	20 (30,8%)	17 (26,6%)	0,739
Estado civil: casada†	57 (44,2%)	59 (45,7%)	0,396
Altura*	1,646 ± 0,06	1,651 ± 0,05	0,604
Peso1*	67,07 ± 12,23	67,89 ± 12,58	0,710
IMC1‡	23,89 (21,52-27,51)	24,01 (21,78-26,58)	0,953
Nivel de estudios			0,506
Sin estudios†	3 (2,3%)	6 (4,7%)	
Estudios primarios†	16 (12,4%)	20 (15,5%)	
Estudios medios†	26 (20,2%)	23 (17,8%)	
Estudios superiores†	20 (15,5%)	15 (11,6%)	
Clase social			0,801
I. Ocupaciones profesionales†	8 (6,2%)	6 (4,7%)	
II. Ocupaciones gerenciales y técnicas†	25 (19,4%)	28 (21,7%)	
III. Ocupaciones no manuales calificadas y ocupaciones manuales calificadas†	10 (7,8%)	13 (10,1%)	
IV. Ocupaciones parcialmente calificadas†	18 (14%)	13 (10,1%)	
V. Ocupaciones no calificadas†	4 (3,1%)	4 (3,1%)	
Dominios de actividad física (de acuerdo a la intensidad) GPAQ			
Trabajo diario†			0,880
Moderado	57 (44,2%)	56 (43,4%)	
Vigoroso	4 (3,1%)	3 (2,3%)	
Desplazamiento moderado†	41 (31,8%)	44 (34,1%)	0,497
Actividad recreacional†			0,681
Moderado	52 (40,3%)	53 (41,1%)	
Vigoroso	13 (10,1%)	11 (8,5%)	

GE: grupo de ejercicios; GC: grupo de control. *Media ± desviación estándar. †Frecuencia (%). ‡Mediana (Q1-Q3).

Tabla II. Resultados tras la intervención

Características	GC n = 58	GE n = 61	Valor p
Días de gestación*	279,7 ± 8,92	280,09 ± 8,26	0,996
Peso neonatal*	3.477,11 ± 414,51	3.259 ± 564,4	0,011
Ganancia ponderal*	11,17 ± 3,47	8,28 ± 2,83	< 0,001
Retención de peso a los 4 meses*	3,45 ± 0,9	2,2 ± 0,56	< 0,001
Retención de peso a los 7 meses*	2,48 ± 0,72	1,58 ± 0,51	< 0,001

GC: grupo de control; GE: grupo de ejercicios. *Media ± desviación estándar.

quedan dentro del intervalo de normopeso en el recién nacido (2.500-4.000 g).

DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo de este estudio fue determinar el efecto de la participación en el programa SWEP, durante el embarazo, sobre la

evolución del peso antes y después del parto. En general, los hallazgos sugieren que el protocolo del ensayo, diseñado específicamente para estudiar los efectos de un programa de ejercicio físico durante el embarazo, fue apropiado, ya que logró altos niveles de cumplimiento y aceptabilidad. Las tasas de participación en el programa de ejercicios superaron la meta del 80% y alcanzaron más del 92%. Menos del 10% de los participantes abandonaron el programa, un resultado favorable que fue facilitado por el uso

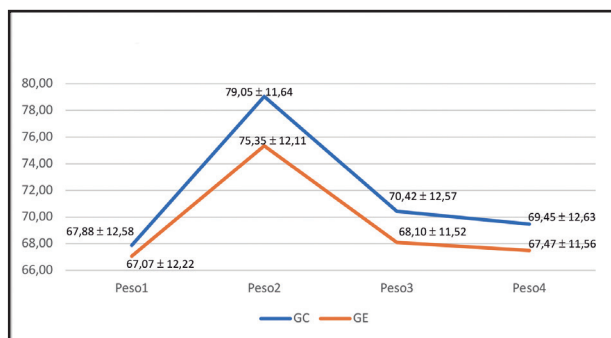


Figura 2.

Evolución del peso materno durante el embarazo y el posparto. Valores expresados como medias $\pm$ desviación estándar. Peso1: peso en la semana 20 de gestación. Peso2: peso en la semana 35 de gestación. Peso3: peso en la semana 16 tras el parto. Peso4: peso en la semana 28 tras el parto. GC: grupo de control; GE: grupo de ejercicios.

de diversos protocolos para ayudar a los participantes. La alta aceptabilidad y la baja tasa de abandono, junto con los resultados positivos obtenidos, sugieren que la mayoría de las mujeres embarazadas serían receptivas a participar en un programa de ejercicio físico en un ambiente acuático como el descrito en el método SWEP.

Estudiando el tiempo de gestación, Rodríguez-Blanque y cols. (2017) (19), Owe y cols. (2012) (20), Barakat y cols. (2014) (21) y Vamos y cols. (2015) (22) llegan a la misma conclusión, al poner de manifiesto que las gestantes que practican ejercicio físico de carácter moderado no presentan diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la duración de su gestación entre los grupos de ejercicio y de control.

En cuanto a la ganancia ponderal, Haugen y cols. (2014) (23), en un estudio observacional realizado durante diez años sobre 56.101 gestantes de feto único que parieron entre la SG 37 y la 42, concluyeron que las mujeres primíparas tenían una ganancia ponderal de 15,5 kg. Habida cuenta de que en ese estudio no se indica ningún tipo de ejercicio físico hecho por las gestantes, en el nuestro, las gestantes que no han realizado ejercicio físico siguiendo la metodología SWEP presentaron una ganancia de 11,17 kg.

Perales y cols. (2016) (24) realizaron un ECA con 166 gestantes de feto único. En el GE se siguió un programa de acondicionamiento físico durante el embarazo de tres días semanales y el resultado observado fue una ganancia ponderal de 11,6 kg para el GE, frente a 12,6 kg en el GC ($p = 0,06$). En el trabajo que aquí se desarrolla, las gestantes presentaron una diferencia de 2,89 kg, puesto que las gestantes activas durante el embarazo ganaron 8,28 kg frente al GC, en el cual alcanzaron 11,17 kg de media.

Nascimento y cols. (2011) (25), en un estudio en el que el grupo de intervención siguió un programa de intensidad moderada, describieron que las mujeres embarazadas con sobrepeso que hicieron ejercicio ganaron menos peso desde la entrada al estudio hasta el final del embarazo. Estos datos concuerdan con los de Barakat y cols. (2006) (26), que aunque no encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos que reali-

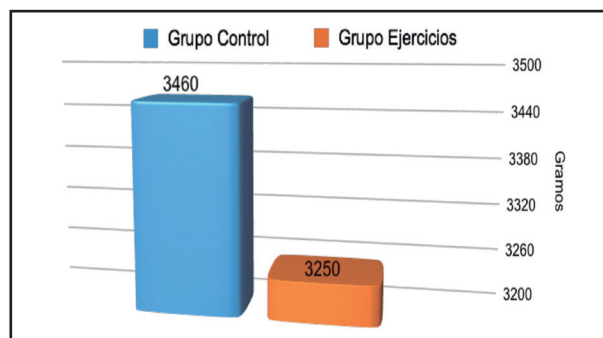


Figura 3.

Diferencias en el peso del recién nacido entre el GC y el GE.

zaron ejercicio aeróbico moderado y los que no, describen que el grupo de ejercicio presentó medias inferiores en la ganancia de peso materno y el peso de los bebés que el grupo de control. Este hecho también sucede en nuestro estudio, que presenta diferencias estadísticamente significativas en ambas variables.

En cuanto a la recuperación del peso pregestacional, Barakat y cols. (2013) (27), en un estudio piloto (dentro de un posterior ensayo clínico), aleatorizado, no apareado y no enmascarado, sentaron las bases del presente proyecto aunque con resultados parecidos pero sin significancia estadística.

En 2015, Kinzly (28) no obtuvo resultados significativos en un estudio con una muestra pequeña ($n = 28$), que realizó ejercicio físico durante el embarazo e incluso en el posparto. Aunque en la investigación concluyeron que las mujeres que cumplieron con la recomendación de ejercicio físico no tenían más probabilidades de ganar peso adecuado o perder más peso a los tres meses del posparto, la investigadora indica que esta conclusión debe tomarse con cuidado debido al pequeño tamaño de la muestra. Este hecho se constata en nuestra investigación, en la que la muestra es muy superior y donde observamos que el grupo de ejercicios durante el embarazo presentó una menor ganancia ponderal y una mejor recuperación del peso pregestacional tanto a los cuatro meses del parto como a los siete meses.

El peso de los recién nacidos de las mujeres que practicaron ejercicio físico es menor respecto a los del grupo control ($p = 0,01$). Como también pone de manifiesto el estudio de Barakat y cols. (2010) (29), el ejercicio físico desarrollado durante el embarazo reduce el peso del recién nacido y no influye en la edad gestacional.

FORTALEZAS Y LIMITACIONES

Entre las fortalezas se observa, en nuestra opinión, que los resultados presentados son muy confiables, ya que el programa de ejercicio empleado (el método SWEP) fue diseñado específicamente para mujeres embarazadas. Además, estaba supervisado por profesionales, lo que garantizaba una gestión y control adecuados de la variable independiente (ejercicio físico). El hecho de que todos los aspectos del programa de ejercicios fueron

coordinados por expertos en ciencias de la actividad física y por profesionales de la salud (enfermeras especialistas en ginecología y obstetricia) aseguró su idoneidad y la seguridad de los participantes, y contribuyó a la alta tasa de adherencia y escasa tasa de abandonos en la muestra final, considerándose una estrategia factible e idónea para futuros estudios.

Existen limitaciones en nuestro estudio que no nos permiten extrapolar nuestros resultados a todas las embarazadas. Entre ellas, cabe destacar que la muestra del estudio estaba compuesta por mujeres que no presentaron riesgos especiales durante el embarazo. Además, se observó una alta tasa de no participación sin causa justificada que podría ser debida en parte a un sesgo de selección, ya que las mujeres que tenían interés en él eran contactadas por correo electrónico, lo que limita la participación debido a que implica un nivel sociocultural en las mismas.

IMPLICACIONES

En vista de nuestros resultados, recomendamos que los programas de ejercicios físicos como los que se describen en este estudio se incluyan en los protocolos y directrices para las mujeres durante el embarazo. Recomendamos que las investigaciones futuras en este campo deberían examinar cómo la implementación de programas similares a los que describimos podría producir las siguientes consecuencias: menos consultas médicas realizadas debido a patologías relacionadas con el embarazo, menor duración de la estadía hospitalaria posterior al parto y menos visitas médicas posparto. Otra área de interés sería estudiar la rentabilidad de la incorporación de estos programas en la cobertura prevista por el seguro médico.

CONCLUSIONES

El ejercicio físico de carácter moderado en el medio acuático, esto es, la metodología SWEP, ayuda a controlar la ganancia de peso de la gestante durante ese período, además de favorecer la recuperación del peso pregestacional.

La práctica de ejercicio físico durante el embarazo en el medio acuático no provoca efectos negativos en el peso del recién nacido ni interfiere en la duración del embarazo.

El método SWEP ha supuesto un método fiable y seguro para dicho ejercicio físico de las mujeres embarazadas. Se aconseja, por ello, el seguimiento de este programa con las mujeres embarazadas que no presenten contraindicaciones para su práctica.

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Revisión

Omega-3 fatty acids and cognitive decline: a systematic review

Omega-3 y deterioro cognitivo: una revisión sistemática

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Abstract

In a growing elderly population, mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and age related cognitive decline (ARCD) are increasing in prevalence worldwide. In the search for food compounds able to ameliorate this condition, it has been postulated that n-3 Long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 LCPUFA), also known as omega-3, consumption could have a positive effect in the prevention or therapy of these cognitive declines. However, there are contradictory findings in the literature concerning the effects of n-3 LCPUFA on cognitive decline making it difficult to draw a conclusion on this topic. This current systematic review studies the relationship between n-3 LCPUFAs and cognitive status in aged adult and elder populations to determine whether there is or not a positive effect of n-3 LCPUFAs supplementation on cognitive decline. Additionally, we remark how duration periods, different cognitive baseline status in subjects, dosage of n-3 LCPUFAs administration and the presence of other factors might be related to different outcomes. A search of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) related with the relationship between cognitive impairment and n-3 LCPUFA (docosahexaenoic acid, eicosapentaenoic acid or combined) supplementation was conducted through PubMed database from January 2010 to December 2017 following the PRISMA statement. Interventional studies which included aged adults or elder subjects with or without MCI and with no previous intake of fish oil supplements (FOS) were included. Ten out of the fourteen RCTs reviewed showed positive outcome on at least one domain of cognitive function (working memory, executive function, verbal memory, short-term memory, perceptual speed, etc.). This systematic review concludes that omega-3 supplementation might have a positive effect on cognitive function. Thus, n-3 LCPUFAs could be used as a preventive or therapeutic tool for cognitive decline in aged or elder adults.

Key words:

Cognitive decline.
Omega-3
polyunsaturated fatty
acids (n-3 PUFAs).
Aging. Mild cognitive
impairment.

Resumen

En grupos de población de mayores en constante crecimiento, el deterioro cognitivo asociado o no a la edad incrementa en prevalencia mundialmente. Se ha postulado que el consumo de ácidos grasos de cadena larga n-3 (AGCL n-3), también conocidos como omega-3, podrían tener un efecto positivo en la prevención o tratamiento del deterioro cognitivo. Sin embargo, existen hallazgos contradictorios en la literatura respecto al efecto de los AGCL n-3 sobre la función cognitiva, lo cual hace difícil extraer una conclusión sobre su posible función. La presente revisión sistemática estudia la relación entre los AGCL n-3 y el estado cognitivo en adultos de mediana edad y mayores de 60 años para determinar si hay un efecto positivo de la suplementación con omega-3 en el deterioro cognitivo. Adicionalmente, se hace énfasis en cómo la duración de los ensayos, el estado cognitivo basal de los sujetos, la dosis de AGCL n-3 y la presencia de otros factores pudiesen estar relacionados con los diferentes resultados obtenidos. Una búsqueda de ensayos clínicos aleatorizados relacionados con la relación entre el deterioro cognitivo y la suplementación de AGCL n-3 (ácido docosahexaenoico, ácido eicosapentaenoico o una combinación de los mismos) se llevó a cabo a través de la base de datos PubMed desde enero de 2010 hasta febrero de 2018 siguiendo la metodología PRISMA. Estudios de intervención que incluían sujetos adultos de mediana edad y mayores de 60 años con o sin deterioro cognitivo leve sin que hubieran recibido otros suplementos (aceite de pescado) fueron incluidos. Diez de los 14 ensayos clínicos aleatorizados mostraron una mejora en algún dominio de la función cognitiva (memoria de trabajo, función ejecutiva, memoria verbal, memoria a corto plazo, rapidez de percepción, etc.). Esta revisión sistemática concluye que la suplementación con AGCL n-3 puede tener un efecto positivo en la función cognitiva. De esta manera, podrían ser usados como una medida preventiva o como tratamiento para el deterioro cognitivo.

Palabras clave:

Deterioro cognitivo.
Ácidos grasos de
cadena larga omega
3 (AGCL n-3).
Envejecimiento.
Deterioro cognitivo
leve.

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INTRODUCTION

Omega-3 fatty acids or n-3 long chained polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 LCPUFA) are nutrients mainly found in the diet that could reduce the risk or help in the treatment of cognitive decline. There are three different types of n-3 LCPUFA: α -linolenic acid (ALA), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and eicosapentanoic acid (EPA). Of these, DHA and EPA (in lesser proportion) are important components of the neuronal membranes in the brain (1-3). These n-3 LCPUFAS have been shown to have a major role from the moment of the fetus formation to the aging process and brain senescence (1,4,5). Brain function, visual development and neural development depend on an adequate n-3 LCPUFA supply (2,6). In fact, a study performed in children yielded beneficial effects from supplementation of n-3 LCPUFA on cognition and motor skills (7).

As humans age, the concentration of n-3 LCPUFAs in the brain decreases, which translates into an increase in the risk of suffering from the negative consequences of neurodegeneration (8-10). Moreover, aging is also linked to damage in the neural tissue due to different cellular processes like chronic mild inflammation (11,12), mitochondrial insufficiency (13), oxidative stress (14-16) and accumulation of β -amyloid (17). Recent evidence suggests that n-3 LCPUFAs have a beneficial effect on the prevention of cognitive decline due to different mechanisms such as anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects and others that slow down or "compensate" neurodegeneration (10).

Even though human aging is a physiological process, it involves the global degeneration of motor and cognitive abilities due to different biological and chemical processes. As humans age the brain shrinks, vasculature gets damaged and neurotransmitters and hormone levels change, which can be globally translated into cognitive decline (18). Deterioration throughout the lifespan due to normal aging is referred to as age related cognitive decline (ARCD) (19). On the other hand, mild cognitive impairment (MCI) is the term used to identify the state of cognitive function prior to dementia, which is different from normal ageing, being it an intermediate stage between the two (20). However, there is no agreement in the field for early detection of MCI (21). As research work on MCI continues to increase, lack of consensus has arisen concerning its identification in a patient and its specific boundaries (22). According to the first key symposium on MCI conducted by the International Working Group on Mild Cognitive Impairment, there are three key criteria for a general detection of MCI: "(i) The person is neither normal nor demented; (ii) there is evidence of cognitive deterioration shown by either objectively measured decline over time and/or subjective report of decline by self-report and/or informant report in conjunction with objective cognitive deficits; and (iii) activities of daily living are preserved and complex instrumental function are either intact or minimally impaired" (22).

A growing population of elder subjects and unhealthy diets are nowadays leading to the increase in the prevalence of different age-related diseases, being cognitive impairment one of the most prevalent ones (23-25). Cognitive decline is considered as inevitable, however, its magnitude is highly variable and affected by different pathogenic processes such as hypertension, diabetes

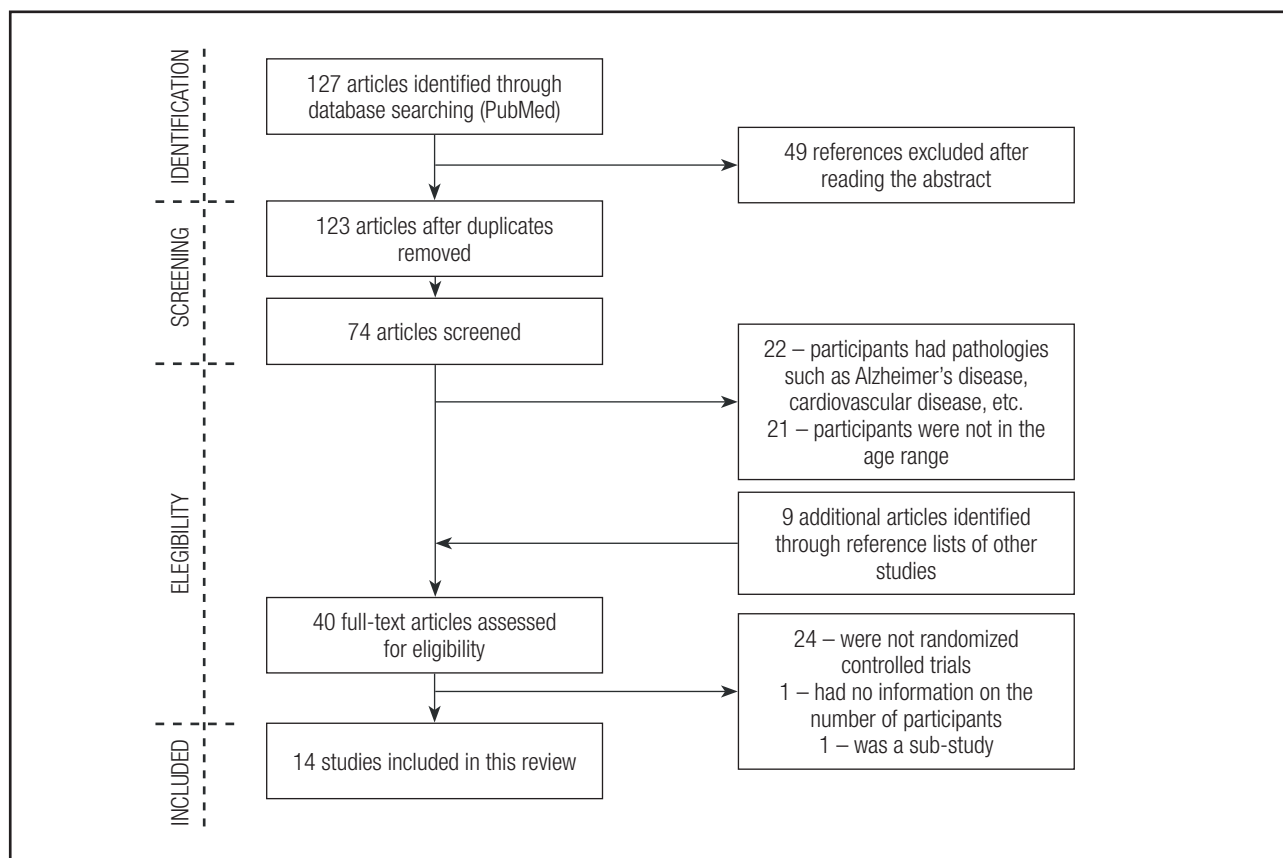
and cardiovascular risk factors (26-28). Cognition can also be impaired by other different factors such as decreased physical activity, genetic predisposition, metabolic disorders and unhealthy diet (25,27,29-31). In this context, the beneficial effect of nutrition on cognitive function is a topic of increasing interest (32). Due to the possible positive effects that n-3 LCPUFAs might exert over cognition, several research work were conducted (33-37) in order to explore its possible therapeutic effects. Several clinical studies have explored the association of omega-3 with cognitive impairment. However, conflicting results have been reported (8), making it difficult for the scientific community to draw a conclusion on this topic. In this sense, the main objective of the present work is to review the evidence on the role of n-3 LCPUFAs on cognitive function in aged adult and elderly populations, and to determine whether they can be used as a preventive/therapeutic strategy for cognitive decline in elder populations. Additionally, we also remark how different factors such as duration periods, different cognitive baseline status in subjects, dosage of n-3 LCPUFAs administration and the presence of other factors might be related to different outcomes.

METHODS

For the elaboration of this systematic review, the standard informative methods corresponding to the PRISMA statement were followed (38). Relevant studies were identified through a search in a scientific database (PubMed). Additional literature searches included the examination of the reference lists of all pertinent/relevant reviews and studies. The studies chosen were published between January 2010 and December 2017. The search strategy was based on the use of terms related to n-3 LCPUFA (*Docosahexaenoic acid* OR *Omega-3 fatty acids* OR *n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids* OR *DHA*) and their effect on cognition in aged adults (*Cognition* OR *Memory* OR *Mild Cognitive Impairment* AND *Elderly*).

Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) on the effect of omega-3 supplementation, including DHA and EPA or a combination of both, on cognition and/or memory outcomes in healthy aged adults with or without MCI were included in this review. Studies were excluded when: a) they only used dietary sources for the intervention; b) participants were not in the age range of 45-80 years old; and c) participants were diagnosed with dementia, Alzheimer's disease, cardiovascular diseases or diabetes, or they suffered from other relevant health conditions that might affect cognitive status. Moreover, studies in animals, *in vitro* studies and reviews were also excluded. Studies that only considered the effects of multivitamins including n-3 LCPUFA but not their independent effects (e.g., evaluation of the effect of multivitamin supplementation including omega-3 fatty acids without the evaluation of the effect of omega-3 fatty acids alone) and studies that did not specify the dosage of n-3 LCPUFA used in the intervention were excluded.

The initial search (which included the following filters: five years, human subjects) yielded 127 references, of which 49 were excluded due to initial screening of titles (Fig. 1). Seventy-four full-text articles were left for further screening. The second screening

**Figure 1.**

Flow diagram of the selection of articles related to the effect of omega-3 supplementation on cognitive decline for this systematic review.

consisted in the reading of the Abstracts; 22 articles were excluded because participants were diagnosed with health conditions that could affect their cognition such as dementia, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, recent strokes or head injuries, Alzheimer's disease, etc., and 21 others due to age ranges different from 45-80 years old. Forty full-text articles were then assessed for eligibility; 24 were excluded because they were not RCTs (cohorts, open label extension studies, etc.), and two were also excluded for other reasons (sub-study and not including number of participants). During the full-text review, nine additional articles were included from the reference list of the studies being reviewed. Finally, 14 interventional studies were included in this synthesis of the current systematic review.

RESULTS

The main characteristics of the 14 RCTs included in this work are summarized in table I. Six studies were conducted in cognitively healthy adults, four in participants with subjective cognitive impairment/complaints, three in participants with MCI and one with participants with cognitive impairment no dementia (CIND) or Alzheimer's disease (AD). This last study was included because it

analyzed the effects in both the CIND and the AD participants and because participants with AD are 19 out of 57 participants. The interventions ranged from a time period of one month to 12 months with an average of 5.7 months. Four different types of intervention relating the dosage and type of n-3 LCPUFA used were identified. In relation to the type of omega-3 administration, the majority of the interventions consisted of a combined administration of DHA + EPA. Nine studies administered DHA+EPA in a dose range of 252 to 1,500 mg of DHA and 60 to 1,500 mg of EPA. Three studies administered DHA only, in which 252 mg DHA was the minimum dosage and 2,000 mg DHA was the maximum. One study had two fish oil intervention groups, one group had krill oil and the other one sardine oil. Lastly, there was one study that consisted in the administration of 300 mg DHA + 100 mg EPA + 120 mg arachidonic acid (ARA). All studies were conducted in subjects over 45 years of age. Furthermore, ten studies included less than 90 participants. Most of the RCTs were conducted in men and women except two that included men only subjects. Studies were conducted in different countries, such as the European Union, the United States, Japan and China.

Moreover, most of the studies did not mention their statistical power. Nonetheless, ten out of 14 achieved significant results in relation to the positive effect that n-3 LCPUFAs exert on cognition.

Table I. Main characteristics of the articles included in this review evaluating the effect of omega-3 supplementation on cognitive decline in elderly populations

Reference and location	Objective	Sample size	Dose used	Intervention duration	Primary outcome
Healthy subjects					
Nilsson A et al. 2012 (42) Sweden	To evaluate the effects of dietary supplementation with n-3 PUFA on cognitive performance in healthy individuals and to relate cognitive outcome to cardio-metabolic risk parameters	75	1,500 mg EPA + 1,050 mg DHA	2.5 months	Better performance in the Working Memory Test compared with placebo ($p < 0.05$)
Stough C et al. 2012 (43) United Kingdom	To study the effects of supplementation with DHA on cognitive function and visual acuity in a healthy aging population	74	252 mg per day DHA + 60 mg EPA	3 months	No significant effects of DHA supplementation on cognitive function
Witte A et al. 2013 (44) Germany	To study the effects of long-chain omega-3 fatty acids in brain function and structure in older adults	65	1,320 mg EPA + 880 mg DHA per day	6.5 months	Enhanced executive functions by 26% Significant increases in regional GM volume compared with placebo
Konagai C et al. 2013 (40) Japan	To investigate the influence of ingestion of krill oil on cognitive function in elderly subjects by using near-infrared spectroscopy and electroencephalography	45	Krill oil (193 mg EPA + 92 mg DHA) or sardine oil (491 mg EPA + 251 mg DHA)	3 months	Significant greater changes in KO and SO group in oxyhemoglobin concentrations in channel 10 (dorsolateral prefrontal cortex) in response to performance of the Working Memory Test compared to the Medium Chain Triglycerides group
Tokuda H et al. 2015 (45) Japan	To evaluate the effects of low doses of LCPUFA supplementation, corresponding with dietary intake, on cognitive function in non-demented elderly participants	115	300 mg of DHA, 100 mg of EPA, and 120 mg of ARA	1 month	Changes in electroencephalograph latency were significantly positive in relation to the placebo group (+13.6 msec) and the LCPUFA group (-1.8 msec) after supplementation
Pase MP et al. 2015 (46) Australia	To determine the effects of fish oil, multivitamin or combined supplementation on a set of cognitive composite scores, including reaction time, cognitive processing speed, short-term memory, and visual memory in healthy adults	160	480 mg EPA + 480 mg DHA	4 months	No effect of treatment on any of the primary cognitive endpoints
Subjects with subjective cognitive impairment/complaints					
Yurko-Mauro K et al. 2010 (47) United States	To determine effects of DHA administration on improving cognitive functions in healthy older adults with cognitive decline (ARCD)	485	900 mg DHA	6 months	Significantly fewer PAL 6 pattern errors with DHA versus placebo at 24 weeks (difference score, -1.63 $\pm$ 0.76, $p = 0.03$). Improved immediate and delayed verbal recognition memory scores ($p < 0.02$)

AD: Alzheimer's disease; ARCD: age related cognitive decline; BOLD: cortical blood oxygen level-dependent activity; CIND: cognitive impairment no dementia; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; FA: fatty acids; FO: fish oils; GM: grey matter; KO: krill oil; MCI: mild cognitive impairment; PAL: CANTAB paired associate learning; SO: sardine oil.

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Table I (Cont.). Main characteristics of the articles included in this review evaluating the effect of omega-3 supplementation on cognitive decline in elderly populations

Reference and location	Objective	Sample size	Dose used	Intervention duration	Primary outcome
Subjects with subjective cognitive impairment/complaints					
Jackson P et al. 2016 (48) United Kingdom	To assess the effect of the supplementation with a multivitamin containing FO or DHA-rich FO alone supplement on cerebral hemodynamics and cognitive function in healthy older adults aged 50-70 years with subjective memory complaints	84	896 mg DHA + 128 mg EPA	6 months	No effect of treatment on either cerebral hemodynamics or cognitive function
Boespflug EL et al. 2016 (49) United States	To determine the effects of long-chain omega-3 FA found in FO, including EPA and DHA, on cortical blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) activity during a working memory task in older adults with subjective memory impairment	21	1,600 mg EPA + 800 mg DHA	6 months	Improvement in working memory performance and BOLD signal in the posterior cingulate cortex during greater working memory load
McNamara RK et al. 2017 (50) United States	To evaluate the effect on cognitive response of FO, blueberry and combined supplementation in older adults with subjective cognitive impairment	76	1,600 mg EPA + 800 mg DHA	6 months	Reduced cognitive symptoms in everyday activities in the FO group as measured by the dysexecutive test. No effect for motor speed, working memory, learning and retention, and lexical access
Subjects with MCI					
Lee LK et al. 2013 (41) Malaysia	To study the effects of fish oil supplementation on cognitive function in elderly people with MCI	36	1,300 mg DHA and 0.45 mg EPA	12 months	The fish oil group showed significant improvement in short-term and working memory ($F = 9.890$; $p < 0.0001$), immediate verbal memory ($p < 0.05$) and delayed recall capability ($p < 0.05$)
Phillips MA et al. 2015 (52) United Kingdom	To explore whether omega-3 PUFA supplements providing DHA and EPA benefit cognition and mood in individuals with early CIND and probable AD	76	600 mg EPA and 625 mg DHA	4 months	No effect of omega-3 fatty acid supplementation on cognition

AD: Alzheimer's disease; ARCD: age related cognitive decline; BOLD: cortical blood oxygen level-dependent activity; CIND: cognitive impairment no dementia; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; FA: fatty acids; FO: fish oils; GM: grey matter; KO: krill oil; MCI: mild cognitive impairment; PAL: CANTAB paired associate learning; SO: sardine oil.

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Table 1 (Cont.). Main characteristics of the articles included in this review evaluating the effect of omega-3 supplementation on cognitive decline in elderly populations

Reference and location	Objective	Sample size	Dose used	Intervention duration	Primary outcome
Subjects with MCI					
Zhang Y et al. 2017 (51) China	To determine the effect of DHA supplementation on cognitive function and hippocampal atrophy in elderly subjects with MCI	240	2,000 mg DHA	12 months	Significant enhancement in the Full-Scale Intelligence Quotient ($p = 0.039$), Information ($p = 0.000$), and Digit Span ($p = 0.000$) between DHA-treated versus the placebo group. Total hippocampus volume in DHA group increased by 4%, while decreased by 0.19% in the placebo group. Global cerebral volume showed a greater increase in the intervention group (+0.29%) compared to the control group (+0.12%)
Bo Y et al. 2017 (39) China	To investigate the effect of n-3 PUFA supplementation on cognitive function in the Chinese elderly with MCI	86	480 mg DHA and 720 mg EPA	6 months	Improved total Basic Cognitive Aptitude Test scores, perceptual speed, space imagery efficiency and working memory

AD: Alzheimer's disease; ARCD: age related cognitive decline; BOLD: cortical blood oxygen level-dependent activity; CIND: cognitive impairment no dementia; DHA: docosahexaenoic acid; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; FA: fatty acids; FO: fish oils; GM: grey matter; KO: krill oil; MCI: mild cognitive impairment; PAL: CANTAB paired associate learning; SO: sardine oil.

However, four studies lacked significant positive results. From the studies with positive outcomes, improvements in perceptual speed, space imagery, working memory, episodic memory, learning function, immediate visual memory, short term memory, delayed recall capability, executive functions and cognitive processing speed were observed. Furthermore, working memory was the domain of cognition most commonly enhanced between the studies (39-42).

DISCUSSION

This review identified 14 RCTs studying the effect that omega-3 supplementation exerts over cognition in aged adult and elder populations.

Ten out of fourteen studies showed a positive association between omega-3 supplementation and cognitive decline. Different study factors may account for differences in results between studies such as study duration, number of participants as well as their cognitive baseline status, dosage and type of n-3 LCPUFA used, diet of the participants, APOE-4 genotype, etc.

Exclusion criteria were similar in all studies, thus the subjects studied could be comparable among them. They excluded participants with history or current neuropsychological disease, psychiatric disease, mental illness and previous intake of FOS. Other exclusion factors that were taken into acquaintance in almost all studies were: depression, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, kidney failure, alcohol or drug abuse, intake of multivitamins previous to the study and use of medications that could affect the outcome of the intervention such as angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor. Another factor that added reliability to these studies was that eleven out of 14 studies reported no significant between group differences and the other three reported studying the differences and adjusting them with statistical analyses such as Student's *t*, Chi-square test and paired *t* test.

An important factor that might have affected the results is the cognitive baseline status of the participants. Some of the previous studies that have yielded positive results on n-3 LCPUFA supplementation have mentioned that the positive effects could only be observed in subjects with MCI but not in healthy subjects or those with AD (53). However, this review showed no difference in results based on the main three different baseline statuses: healthy, subjective cognitive impairment/complaints and MCI. It is also important to mention that most of the studies used different tools to measure baseline cognitive status in participants, being the Mini Mental State Examination (MMSE) the most used one. This methodologic difference in assessing cognitive status could influence the effect that n-3 LCPUFAs exert over cognition.

Moreover, they used different tools to assess cognitive improvement in the participants. This may also account for different results since some tools may be more or less accurate as well as having different sensitivities for diverse aspects of cognition. Furthermore, it was mentioned in three studies

(39,41,46) that a possible factor that might have affected results was proficiency in the tests administered to measure cognitive improvements such as the Basic Cognitive Aptitude Tests (BCAT) and the Swinburne University Computerized Cognitive Assessment Battery. Since tests were administered more than once, participants in both groups could have had the practice effect, showing improvement in cognition without necessarily being it so (39).

A rather novel way to measure cognitive improvement is the near infrared spectroscopy (NIRS), which is a non-invasive neuroimaging technique that measures relative changes in oxyhemoglobin concentration in the superficial cortex in response to a localized neural activity. Both Jackson (2016) (48) and Konagai (2013) (40) used the NIRS to measure cognitive function in their studies. However, they obtained conflicting results which might be attributed to the fact that they used different tasks to activate neural activity.

Moreover, the study lead by Yurko-Mauro (2010) (54) consisting in a supplementation of 900 mg of DHA in healthy participants with ARCD was the first to clinically confirm that DHA significantly improves learning functions and episodic memory. Other studies (39,42,44,49) that consisted in a DHA+EPA intervention corroborate the positive results of n-3 LCPUFA supplementation on cognition, which increases the amount of evidence that omega-3 supplements might be used as a nutritional neuroprotective agent. The mechanisms related to the positive effects of omega-3 on cognition are the following (Fig. 2):

1. Enhancement of the brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) levels (55).
2. Reduction of ARA and its metabolites availability in brain compartments, which contributes to glial and neuronal hyperactivation (55,56).
3. Increase of the antioxidant defenses: reduction of *in vivo* oxidant stress by either direct or indirect pathways (55,57).
4. Increase of phosphatidylserine (PS) concentration in the brain: faster translocation and phosphorylation of protein kinase B (Akt), which increases neuronal survival (58).
5. Synthesis of neuroprotectin D1 (NPD1): a metabolite of DHA which appears to have multiple neuroprotective functions such as up-regulation of anti-apoptotic and down-regulation of pro-apoptotic mediators that modulate cell death (59).
6. Promotion of neurogenesis (60) and improvement in the fluidity in synaptic membranes (61).
7. Increase of a glucose transporter which improves brain glucose transport (15).
8. Improvement of G-protein coupling involved in signal transduction pathways whose deficiency is associated with cognitive deficits (62).

However, not all studies yielded positive results. There are a number of factors involved in the design and methodology of the studies that could have potentially confounded the results. One important confounder is the polymorphisms in APOE (63). It has been found that APOE- ϵ 4 genotype influences the way n-3 LCPUFA are metabolized (64,65), specifically in the manner DHA is incorporated into the plasma lipids (66,67). However, the exact effect that APOE- ϵ 4 has over cognition is not clear yet,

even though large epidemiological studies (68-70) testing the influence DHA supplementation has over cognition reported that the benefits linked to DHA were restricted to subjects that were non-carriers of the APOE- ϵ 4 allele. Although this genotype has been demonstrated to be important in this topic, it was only taken into acquaintance in the study conducted by McNamara et al. (2017) (50) in which it was found that APOE- ϵ 4 genotype did not affect the n-3 LCPUFA metabolism.

Furthermore, diet is another relevant factor which might have affected results. The diet of participants previous to the study is an important confounder since n-3 LCPUFA are more present in some diets than others, which might affect the cognitive status of the subjects. It should also be considered that there is evidence that the effects of n-3 LCPUFAs on cognitive function have a beneficial effect on short term memory only on people deficient in n-3 LCPUFAs (71). Tokuda et al. (2015) (45) mentioned that one limitation of his study was the fact that Japanese population has a high intake of n-3 LCPUFA for which participants of this study might not be comparable with participants of European or American studies. Moreover, McNamara et al. (2017) (50) as well as Boesflug et al. (2016) (49) applied 3-day diet records during the week before enrolment to characterize the background diet of participants. They also applied the same three-day diet records during week 12 and week 24 (final week). Additionally, an omega-3 dietary intake questionnaire (72) was also administered before starting the intervention to identify the habitual intake of omega-3 in their diet. Other studies mentioned the use of Food Frequency Questionnaires (FFQs). Yurko-Mauro et al. (2010) (47) made use of the FFQ to minimize the potential confounding effect of a diet high in DHA before the study entry. Participants that had a high intake of 200 mg of DHA per day were excluded.

As well as the diet previous to the study, the diet followed during the intervention period in the study is of major importance (40,50). Konagai et al. (2013) (40) also used the FFQ but with the purpose of measuring the nutrient intake of participants during the study. Their results showed no significant differences between the ingestion of any of the nutrients measured by the FFQ which helped attribute the results of the study on the omega-3 supplementation only. Furthermore, we found that only two studies out of fourteen restricted the n-3 LCPUFA intake so that the changes in cognition could only be attributed to the n-3 LCPUFA oil supplementation and not to the n-3 LCPUFAs consumed from the diet which makes their results more reliable.

Intervention duration is a very important factor to take into acquaintance. Shorter intervention periods might not give enough time to the omega-3 to show significant results on cognition (52). However, interventions of one month (45) and of two months and a half (42) showed significant results. Interestingly, both of these studies had a statistical power $\geq 80\%$. The RCTs that yielded no results from the intervention all had durations of over two months and a half, which makes the factor duration a less likely confounder factor in the results.

It was also observed that three out of four RCTs with no positive outcome in the intervention had an overall younger age range (≈ 63 years old) of the participants compared to the studies with positive outcomes.

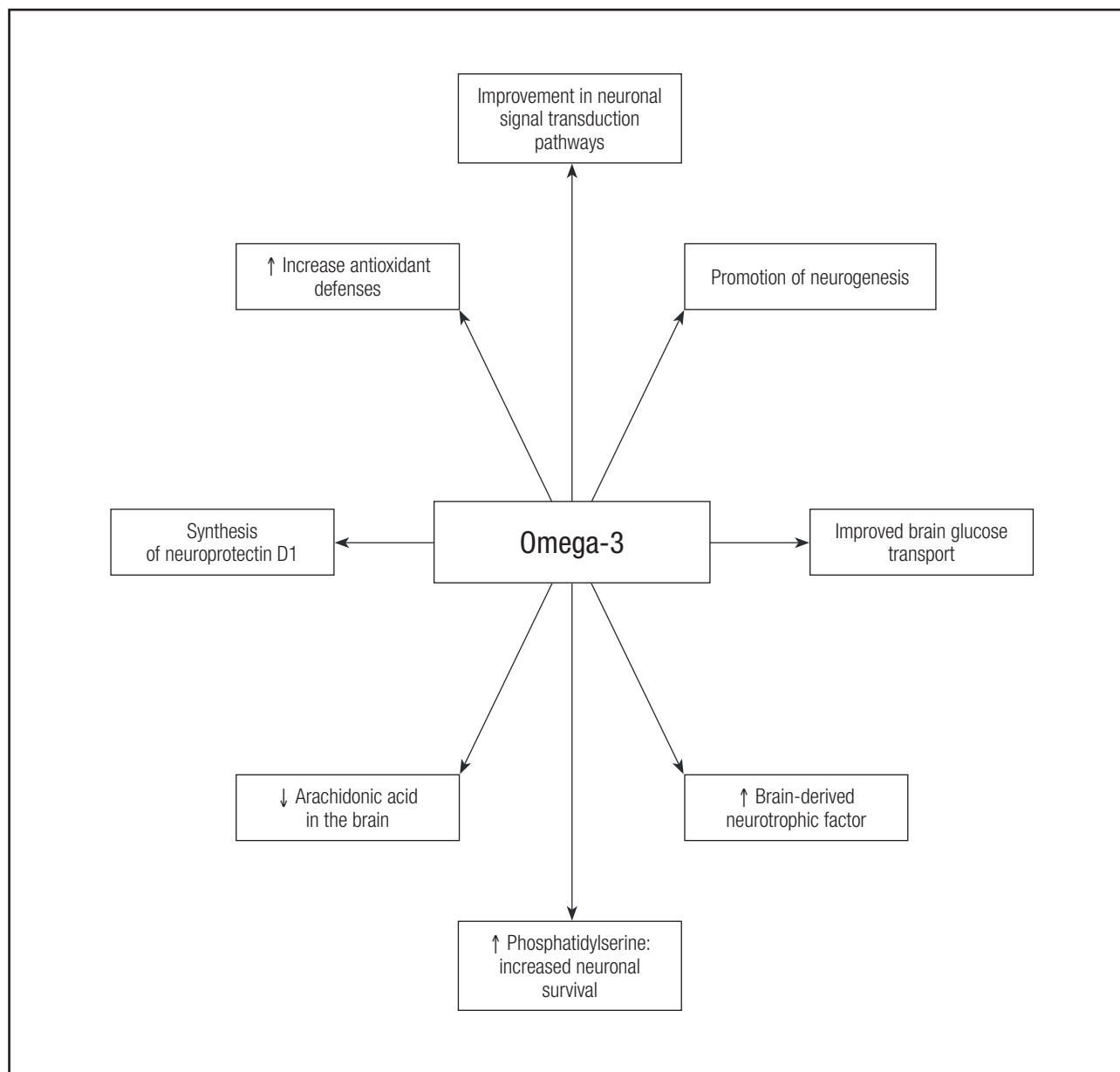


Figure 2.

Possible mechanisms related to omega-3 consumption on cognition.

It could be inferred that older participants benefit more from this kind of intervention although different studies support the idea that early intervention for prevention of worsening of cognitive decline is more effective than an intervention in older participants that already have an evident cognitive decline (73).

Moreover, an interesting study was the one carried out by Nilsson et al. (2012) (42) in which participants acted as their own control since it was a cross-over study. It revealed that a five-week intervention consisting in daily intake of omega-3 from fish oil improved cognitive function in a healthy population. Since the control and intervention group were the same, it annulled

the possibility that between group differences might have been a confounder in the results.

N-3 LCPUFAs effect over cognition have also been assessed in combination with other nutrients relevant to brain function to check for synergic effects that could benefit cognition (48). Two of the reviewed studies tested the effects of a combined supplementation of n-3 LCPUFAs and a multinutrient (46,48), nevertheless, none obtained significant results of the combined omega-3 and multinutrient intervention. Some of the nutrients being used were: ginkgo biloba, vitamin B6, vitamin B12, phosphatidylserine and anthocyanins. Additionally, there was also another study that

investigated the effect of omega-3 alone, in combination of blueberry (BB) powder and of BB powder alone (50). Shukitt-Hale et al. (2015) studied BBs and their relation to neurocognitive function in aging which yielded positive effects (74). However, the study from this review obtained positive results in cognition both from the BB intervention and the one from omega-3 but not from the combined intervention. The reason for which the combined intervention lacked effect is unknown, however, McNamara et al. (2017) stated that one consideration could be that daily, long-term supplementation of omega-3 and BB powder may have sabotaged a beneficial outcome (50).

Moreover, fatty acids (FA) were measured in blood to evaluate the changes in n-3 LCPUFAs concentration in blood. Previous scientific studies have reported a positive relationships between high concentrations of circulating omega-3 FA in blood and cognitive decline (75). Nevertheless, these findings, specifically those referring to verbal fluency, appear to be inconsistent (75,76). This might be explained by the different methods used to measure FA in blood given that they reflect different results (77). Red blood cell (RBC) membranes reflect FA intake over the last 120 days, whereas plasma and serum concentrations of FA reflect the intake of a few prior days (78). Also, it is still uncertain whether FA concentration in blood reflects the concentration of FA in tissues of the central nervous system (51). Most of the studies reviewed measured FA concentration in blood in plasma and only four measured it in RBC membranes. These findings might explain why some studies yielded negative results regardless of the increase in FA concentration in plasma since the increase could only be reflecting the few previous days and not a constant long period.

This systematic review has several limitations such as: a) most of the reviewed RCTs had small sample sizes; b) not all RCTs had the same dosage of omega-3 or duration of intervention; c) baseline cognitive status and assessment of cognitive decline was measured differently among studies; and d) almost none of the studies performed the APOE genotyping.

Regarding previous reviews, meta-analysis and community studies (1,54,71,77,79-83) results have been contradictory. For instance, Burckhardt et al. (2016) (81) found no benefit from n-3 LCPUFA supplementation on cognition; however, this review focused on studies conducted in participants with higher degree of dementia and AD. Additionally, Mazereeuw et al. (2012) (53) suggested a positive effect of n-3 LCPUFAs on the cognitive domains of attention and processing speed on a number of subjects with MCI but not on those with AD. In accordance with the previously mentioned, the results from the only study in this review that included participants with AD were also negative, indicating no effect of n-3 LCPUFA supplementation on cognition. However, most of the conducted reviews on this topic yielded similar results: a possible beneficial effect of n-3 LCPUFA supplementation on cognitive decline (54,83). Nonetheless, just as the studies included in this review, all of them agree on the fact that more RCTs with longer duration and bigger sample size should be conducted for further understanding of the effect of n-3 LCPUFAs on cognition in order to determine an effective and safe therapeutic dosage for cognitive decline.

CONCLUSION

This systematic review concludes that omega-3 supplementation might have a positive effect on cognition. Thus, n-3 LCPUFAs could be used as a preventive tool for cognitive decline in aged or elder adults or as a therapeutic measure in subjects with cognitive decline. Further studies containing detailed information in regard to duration of the trial, dosage of n-3 LCPUFAs in the supplementation, presence of APOE-ε4 carriers, baseline conditions of the participants, etc., are needed for more accurate information upon the effect of n-3 LCPUFAs supplementation in cognition in elder populations.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Revisión

¿Son las dietas vegetarianas nutricionalmente adecuadas? Una revisión de la evidencia científica

Are vegetarian diets nutritionally adequate? A revision of the scientific evidence

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Resumen

El seguimiento de dietas vegetarianas está en auge y, aunque estas se han relacionado con algunos beneficios para la salud, la baja biodisponibilidad de determinados micronutrientes en los alimentos vegetales puede resultar en riesgo de déficit nutricional, por lo que se hace necesaria una adecuada planificación de dichas dietas. En este sentido, se ha evidenciado el déficit de vitamina B12 en vegetarianos y está consensuada la necesidad de ingerir complementos de esta vitamina. La deficiencia de vitamina D puede ser más frecuente que en omnívoros, particularmente durante el invierno, cuando la síntesis cutánea es mínima. La baja biodisponibilidad del hierro, el zinc y el selenio en los alimentos vegetales puede afectar también al estado nutricional de vegetarianos. Además, las dietas vegetarianas suelen ser deficitarias en ácidos grasos poliinsaturados de la serie omega-3, eicosapentaenoico (EPA) y docosahexaenoico (DHA). Por otro lado, estas dietas sí parecen aportar cantidades adecuadas de otras vitaminas, como el ácido ascórbico, el ácido fólico y las vitaminas liposolubles A y E.

En esta revisión se presentan las características de la ingesta de macro- y micronutrientes procedentes de las dietas vegetarianas y la relación dieta-salud. Se exponen, además, datos sobre el estado nutricional de adultos que consumen dichas dietas, proponiendo recomendaciones nutricionales primordiales para prevenir deficiencias. Finalmente, se presenta la posible aplicación clínica de intervenciones controladas con dietas vegetarianas.

Palabras clave:

Dieta vegetariana.
Dieta vegana. Estado nutricional. Alimentos fortificados.
Complementos nutricionales.

Abstract

Vegetarian diets are booming and, although these diets have been linked to some health benefits, the low bioavailability of some micronutrients in plant foods may result in risk of nutritional deficiencies, which makes necessary adequate planning of these diets. In this regard, vitamin B12 deficiency in vegetarians has been evidenced and there is a consensus on the need of supplementation of this vitamin. Vitamin D deficiency may be more frequent than in omnivores, particularly during the winter, when skin synthesis is minimal. The low bioavailability of iron, zinc and selenium in vegetables can also affect nutritional status of vegetarians. Furthermore, vegetarian diets are usually deficient in polyunsaturated fatty acids of the omega-3 family, eicosapentaenoic (EPA) and docosahexaenoic (DHA) acids. On the other hand, these diets appear to provide adequate quantities of other vitamins, such as ascorbic acid, folic acid and the fat-soluble vitamins A and E.

In this review, the characteristics of the intake of macro- and micronutrients of vegetarian diets and the diet and health relationships are presented. In addition, data on nutritional status of this population are also shown and suggestions on nutritional recommendations to prevent deficiencies are given. Finally, the possible clinical application of controlled interventions with vegetarian diets is presented.

Key words:

Vegetarian diet.
Vegan diet. Nutritional status. Fortified foods.
Supplementation.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

En los últimos años, la popularidad de las dietas vegetarianas ha aumentado considerablemente. Aunque existen multitud de variantes de estas dietas, la ovolactovegetariana y la vegana son las más comunes. La dieta ovolactovegetariana puede incluir huevos, lácteos y miel, mientras que la dieta vegana no incluye ningún alimento ni derivado de origen animal. Aunque se conoce que el seguimiento de dietas vegetarianas está en aumento en todo el mundo, no existen cifras precisas sobre la población que sigue este tipo de dietas (1). Concretamente, en España se sabe que el consumo de carne y pescado ha descendido en los últimos años, pero no se dispone de cifras reales sobre población vegetariana (2).

La Asociación Dietética Americana afirma que las dietas vegetarianas convenientemente planificadas son saludables, nutricionalmente adecuadas y que pueden ser beneficiosas para la prevención y el tratamiento de algunas enfermedades como la diabetes tipo 2, ciertos tipos de cáncer, la hipertensión, la cardiopatía isquémica y la obesidad (3). Sin embargo, este tipo de dietas pueden ser deficitarias en ciertos nutrientes como la vitamina B12, la vitamina D3, los ácidos grasos poliinsaturados (AGPs) omega-3 (n-3), el hierro y el zinc (4).

Dado que los estudios científicos sobre dietas vegetarianas son escasos, el objetivo de esta revisión fue profundizar en el conocimiento sobre la valoración del estado nutricional en vegetarianos teniendo en consideración la ingesta de los distintos macronutrientes y micronutrientes. Para ello, se ha llevado a cabo una búsqueda de la literatura más relevante existente sobre dietas vegetarianas y estado nutricional priorizando los artículos publicados entre los años 2000 y 2019. Se utilizaron principalmente las bases de datos PubMed y Google Scholar. Además, se realizó una búsqueda secundaria a través de las referencias incluidas en los artículos y libros encontrados. Se incluyen referencias en inglés y español.

Esto permitirá la difusión de información científica precisa y el avance en investigación sobre las dietas vegetarianas, facilitando futuros estudios en vegetarianos españoles así como el diseño de complementos nutricionales o alimentos funcionales y su implicación en el estado nutricional y en la salud.

INGESTA DE ENERGÍA Y PERFIL CALÓRICO

En algunos estudios se ha observado que la ingesta energética en vegetarianos es menor que en omnívoros (5,6), aunque no se aprecia esta diferencia en otros (7). Tanto en hombres como en mujeres vegetarianos se ha observado que el índice de masa corporal (IMC) es significativamente inferior al de los omnívoros, sobre todo en veganos (8).

En relación al perfil calórico, el mayor porcentaje energético se obtiene a partir de los carbohidratos, que aportan aproximadamente el 52% de la energía total en dietas ovolactovegetarianas y el 55% en dietas veganas (8). La contribución energética de las proteínas es menor en vegetarianos que en omnívoros (7), aportando aproximadamente un 13% del total de la energía (8), al igual que la ingesta de grasa total, que se ha estimado en un 30% (9). Generalmente,

el porcentaje de energía procedente de ácidos grasos saturados (AGS) es bajo en dietas vegetarianas, siendo en las dietas veganas aproximadamente un tercio menor que en dietas omnívoras (6).

MACRONUTRIENTES

LÍPIDOS

Las dietas vegetarianas se asocian generalmente a niveles bajos de lípidos totales en plasma. Se ha observado que en vegetarianos las concentraciones de colesterol total, colesterol-LDL y colesterol-HDL son más bajas que en omnívoros, pero no se han encontrado diferencias en la concentración de triglicéridos (10). Como se ha comentado anteriormente, los AGS en dietas vegetarianas suelen estar en menor proporción que en dietas omnívoras. Sin embargo, la ingesta de AGPs es más elevada, hasta un 45% más alta que en otras dietas (11).

Existen dos AGPs esenciales: el ácido linoleico (LA), perteneciente a la familia de ácidos grasos omega-6 (n-6) y precursor del ácido araquidónico (AA), y el ácido α -linolénico (ALA), perteneciente a la familia n-3 y precursor de los ácidos eicosapentaenoico (EPA) y docosahexaenoico (DHA) (12). Como puede observarse en la figura 1, las rutas metabólicas del LA y del ALA comparten las mismas enzimas. En dietas vegetarianas predomina la ingesta de AGPs pertenecientes a la serie n-6 y es deficitaria la ingesta de n-3, lo que afecta a la síntesis de EPA y DHA. Por tanto, esto puede ser un inconveniente para la salud ya que ambos tienen un papel importante en las funciones neurológicas, cardiovasculares y cognitivas, entre otras (12,13).

Numerosos estudios han demostrado que la ingesta y la concentración en plasma de EPA y DHA en ovolactovegetarianos y veganos son menores que en omnívoros (7,14), ya que las principales fuentes alimentarias son los pescados grasos y sus derivados. Algunos productos lácteos y huevos fortificados contienen pequeñas cantidades de DHA (0,02-0,3 g/porción) que pueden ser las únicas fuentes de este ácido graso en vegetarianos que consumen estos alimentos (15). Se ha observado que los niveles plasmáticos de DHA disminuyen conforme aumenta el tiempo de seguimiento de una dieta vegetariana, lo que sugiere una baja conversión de ALA a DHA, que se ha estimado en un 5-7% (15).

Desde un punto de vista dietético, sería posible maximizar la conversión de ALA a EPA y DHA combinando un aumento en la ingesta de ALA y una disminución en la de LA, logrando el equilibrio óptimo entre los AGPs n-3/n-6 (16). La ingesta de ALA en vegetarianos puede aumentarse mediante el consumo de semillas de lino, semillas de chía o microalgas. Otra opción metabólicamente más eficaz sería administrar una fuente directa de estos ácidos grasos de cadena larga mediante un complemento alimenticio de procedencia vegetal (17).

PROTEÍNAS

La digestibilidad de algunas proteínas vegetales, como es el caso de la soja, es similar a la de la proteína del huevo, considera-

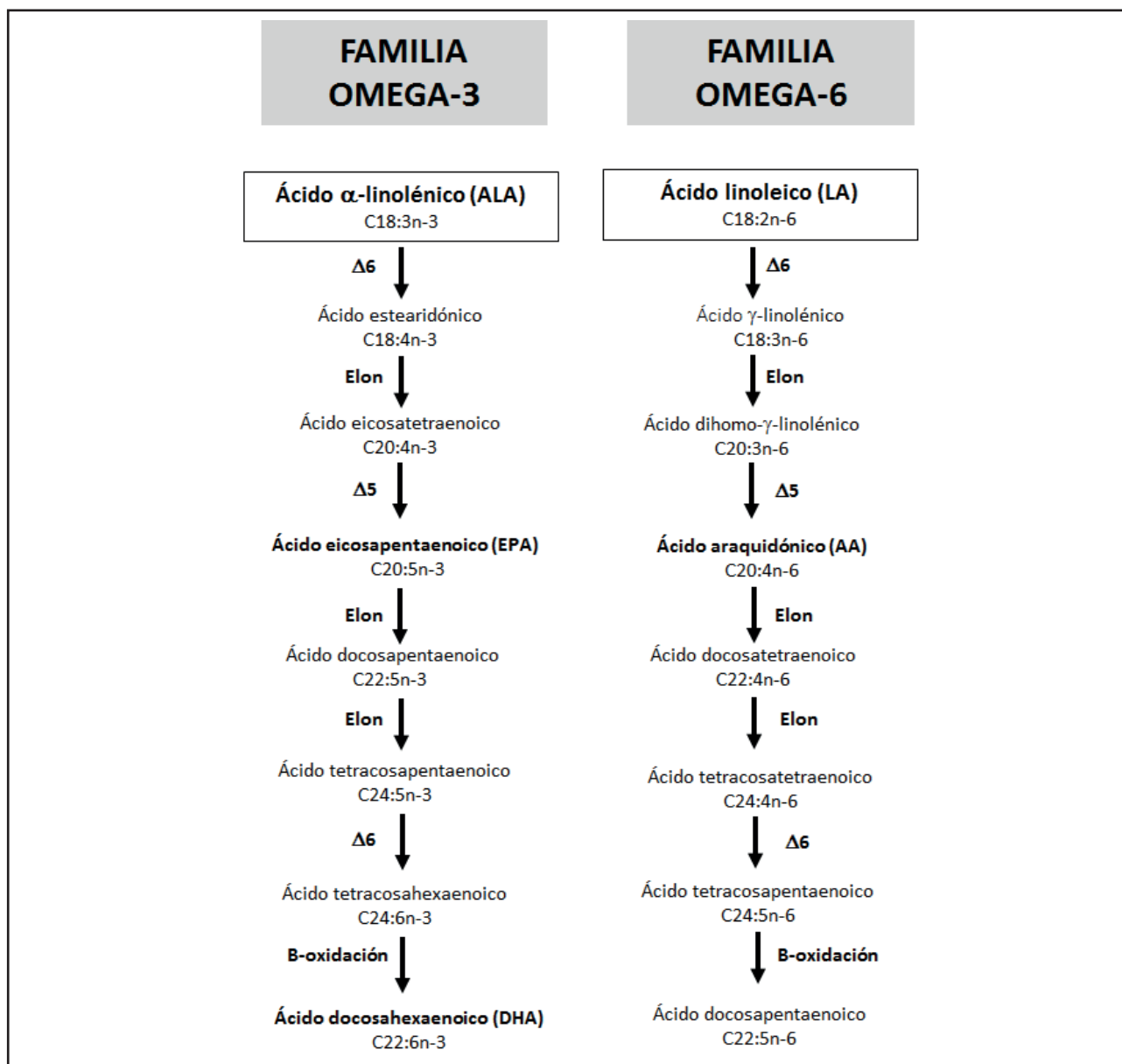


Figura 1.

Biosíntesis de los ácidos grasos poliinsaturados de cadena larga en el ser humano ($\Delta 6$: desaturasa $\Delta 6$; $\Delta 5$: desaturasa $\Delta 5$; Elon: elongasa).

do el alimento con las proteínas de mayor valor biológico (18). Sin embargo, la existencia de antinutrientes en los vegetales, como los fitatos y los taninos, puede dificultar la absorción proteica. Al estudiar la ingesta dietética en vegetarianos se ha observado que el consumo de proteínas, particularmente de los aminoácidos lisina y metionina, es menor que en omnívoros (5,7,8,19). No obstante, se considera que una dieta vegetariana bien planificada en la que se combinan alimentos con diferentes aminoácidos y cuya ingesta de energía es adecuada no supone un déficit proteico (20). La ingesta combinada de proteínas a lo largo del día, y no necesariamente en la misma comida, es suficiente para obtener todos los aminoácidos esenciales (3).

CARBOHIDRATOS

En las dietas vegetarianas, sobre todo en las veganas, los carbohidratos representan el mayor aporte energético, incluso superior al de las dietas omnívoras (6,7). Asimismo, el consumo de cereales de grano entero es superior que en las dietas omnívoras (9) y en cuanto a los azúcares, no existe una diferencia significativa en la cantidad consumida al comparar vegetarianos y omnívoros. Sin embargo, cabe destacar que en el caso de los vegetarianos estos azúcares provienen mayoritariamente de frutas, y no de azúcares añadidos a los alimentos (4), lo que implica la ingesta de otros constituyentes de las frutas que pueden tener beneficios para la salud.

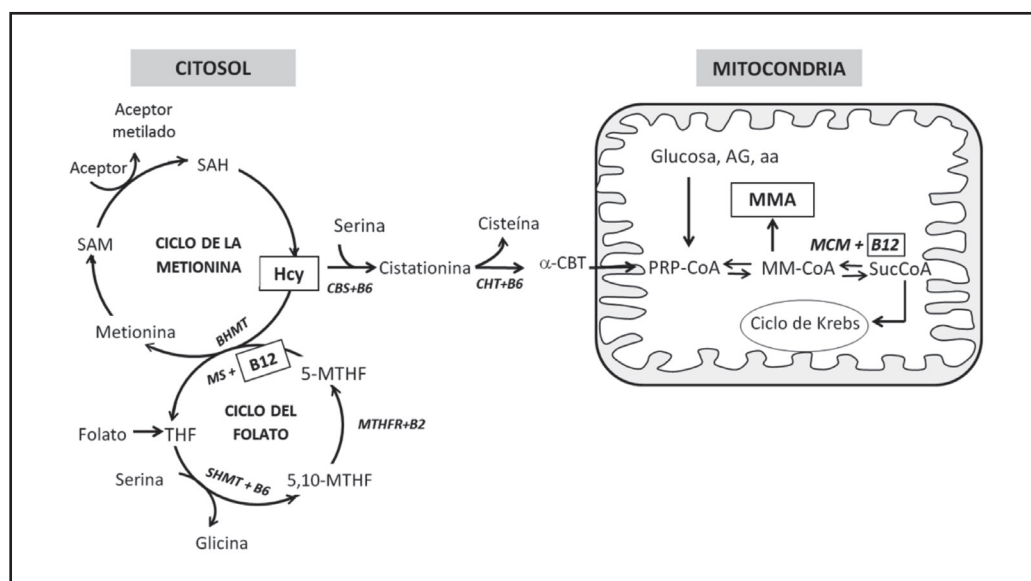
activa del ácido metilmalónico (MMA). Así, ante insuficiencias de vitamina B12 en los tejidos, el MMA y la Hcy en suero se incrementan, por lo que se consideran marcadores tempranos del déficit de esta vitamina.

La vitamina B12, al ser cofactor de la enzima metionina sintasa (Fig. 2), participa en el ciclo del folato, en la formación de tetrahidrofolato (TFH) a partir de 5-metiltetrahidrofolato (5-MTHF) y en el ciclo de la metionina en la conversión de Hcy a metionina. En consecuencia, la deficiencia de folato, al igual que la deficiencia de vitamina B12, puede dar lugar a hiperhomocisteinemia, que se considera un factor de riesgo de enfermedad cardiovascular. Los vegetales son la principal fuente alimentaria de folato y, en consecuencia, en las

VITAMINAS

Vitaminas B12, B6 y ácido fólico

El metabolismo de la vitamina B12 está estrechamente relacionado con el de la vitamina B6 y el folato, como puede observarse en la figura 2. La vitamina B12 interviene como cofactor en la conversión de la homocisteína (Hcy) en metionina y en la producción de succinil-CoA a partir de metilmalonil-CoA, la forma



Metabolismo de la vitamina B12 y del folato. Se muestran subrayados los principales marcadores del estado de la vitamina B12. α -CBT: α -cetobutirato; aa: aminoácidos; AG: ácidos grasos; Hcy: homocisteína; 5-MTHF: 5-metiltetrahidrofolato; 5,10-MTHF: 5,10-metilentetrahidrofolato; MM-CoA: metilmalonil-CoA; PRP-CoA: propionil-CoA; SAH: S-adenosil-homocisteína; SAM: S-adenosil-metionina; BHMT: betaina-homocisteína S-metiltransferasa; CBS: cistationina- β -sintasa; CHT: cistationasa; MCM: metilmalonil-CoA mutasa; MS: metionina sintasa; MTHFR: metilentetrahidrofolato reductasa; SHMT: serina hidroximetiltransferasa; SucCoA: succinil-CoA; B2: vitamina B2; B6: vitamina B6; B12: vitamina B12.

dietas vegetarianas generalmente su ingesta es elevada (28,29). Una dieta rica en folatos puede reducir los niveles de Hcy en sangre enmascarando la deficiencia temprana de vitamina B12 y haciendo evidente esta carencia mediante signos neurológicos cuando el déficit es más severo, lo cual puede causar neuropatías, demencia o atrofia de los nervios ópticos, entre otros problemas de salud (26). Por ello, la Hcy es un marcador de estado de vitamina B12 insuficiente, especialmente en vegetarianos, y se hace necesario el análisis de MMA para un diagnóstico más específico (30).

La vitamina B6 interviene en el metabolismo de la vitamina B12 como piridoxal-5-fosfato, su forma biológicamente activa, en la formación de cistationina a partir de Hcy y de 10-metiltetrahydrofolato (10-MTHF) a partir de THF (Fig. 2). Además, participa junto a la vitamina B12 en la remetilación de Hcy a metionina. Esta vitamina, al estar involucrada en el metabolismo de la Hcy, también puede causar hiperhomocisteinemia. Existe cierta controversia sobre la relación

entre las dietas vegetarianas y el estado de la vitamina B6. Algunos autores han encontrado un consumo mayor de esta vitamina en vegetarianos que en omnívoros (28,29), aunque en otros estudios no se han observado diferencias (31). Sin embargo, aunque la ingesta se encuentra en el rango de cantidad diaria recomendada, se ha detectado que los vegetarianos tienen bajas concentraciones plasmáticas de piridoxal-5-fosfato (28,29,31), pero este marcador aisladamente no informa sobre una deficiencia funcional. Altas cantidades de fibra pueden reducir la biodisponibilidad de esta vitamina, por lo que se trata de un factor a tener en cuenta en dietas vegetarianas (31).

Vitamina D

El ser humano puede obtener la vitamina D a través de la incidencia de la radiación solar en la piel o mediante la dieta (Fig. 3).

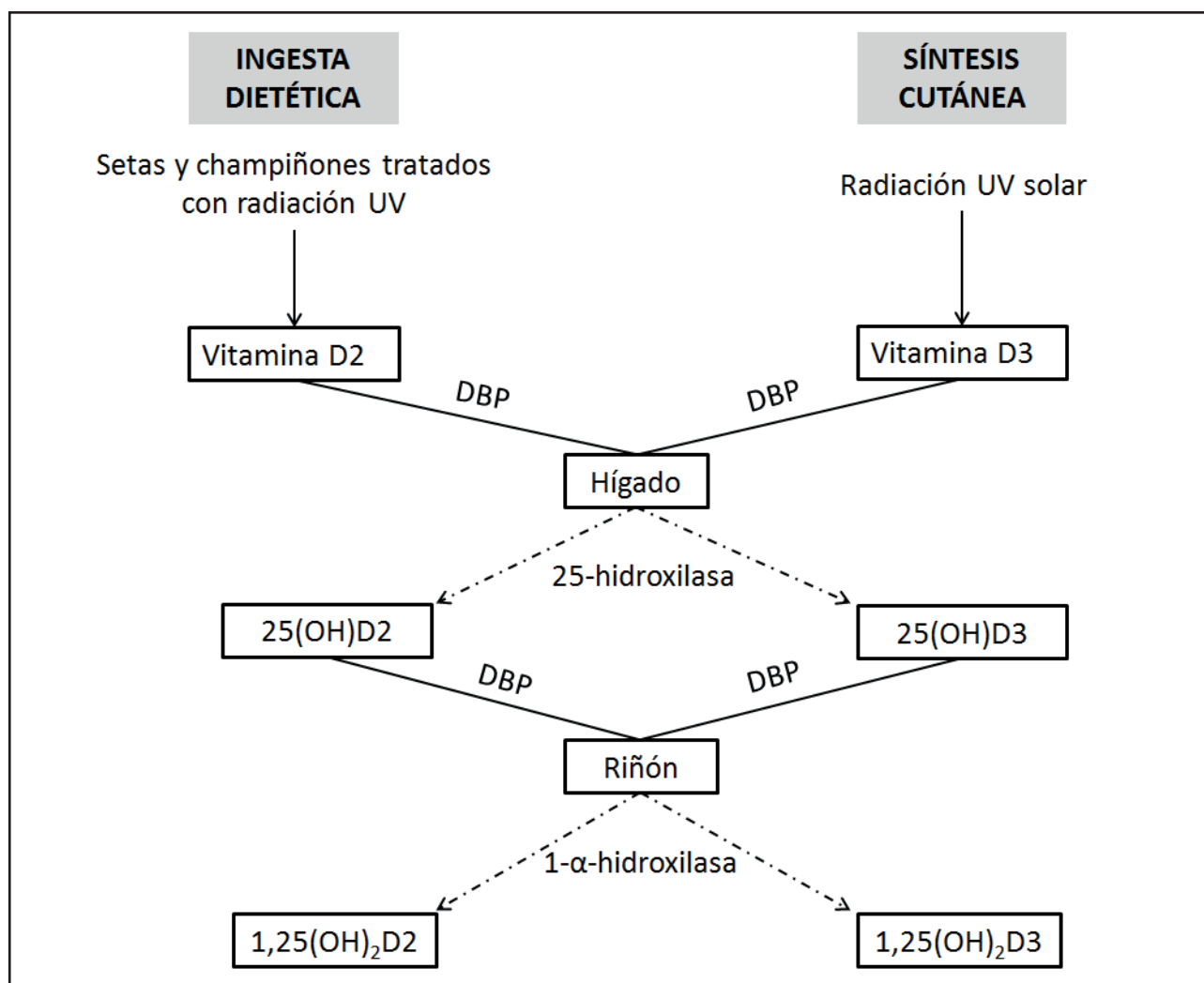
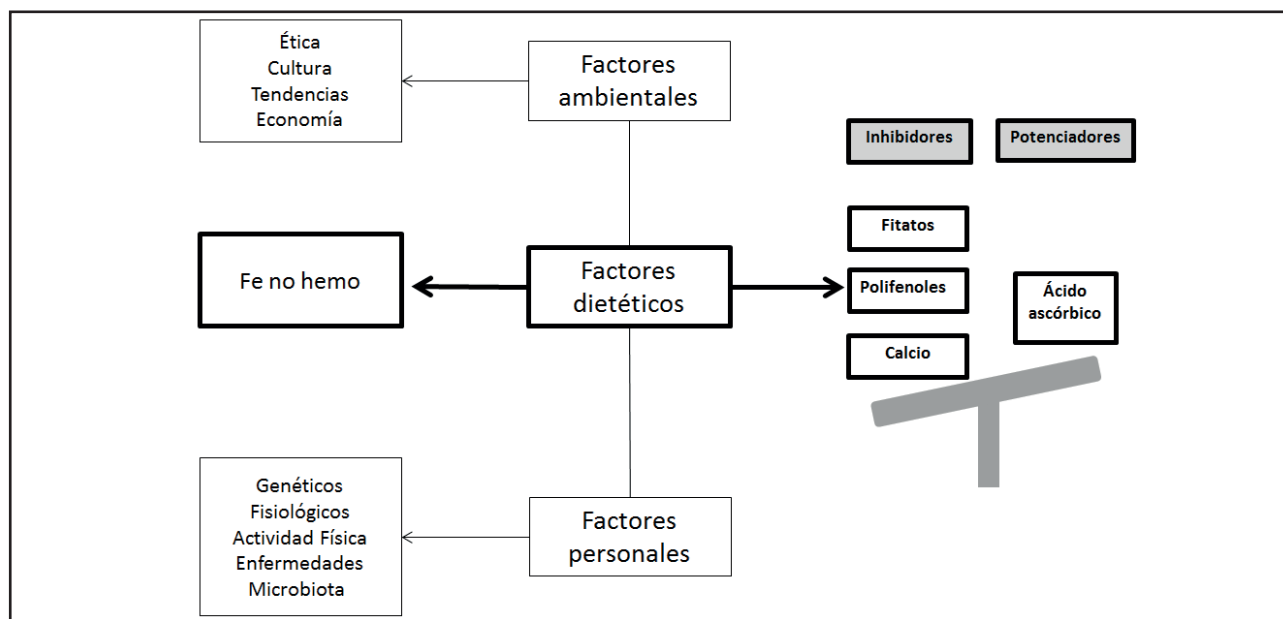


Figura 3.

Metabolismo de la vitamina D en vegetarianos. Se muestran las dos vías de obtención de vitamina D: la dieta y la síntesis cutánea (DBP: proteína transportadora específica de vitamina D).

**Figura 4.**

Factores que condicionan la biodisponibilidad del hierro en vegetarianos, destacando los factores dietéticos..

La síntesis cutánea es la vía principal de obtención de esta vitamina, lo que ocurre mediante la activación por radiación ultravioleta del precursor 7-deidrocolesterol presente en la piel, que posteriormente es transformado a vitamina D3 o colecalciferol. A través de la dieta se puede obtener en forma de D3, de origen animal, o de D2 (ergocalciferol) presente en algunos vegetales (32). Tanto la forma D2 como la forma D3 se transportan unidas a la proteína transportadora específica de vitamina D (DBP) hasta el hígado, donde se hidroxilan mediante la acción de la enzima 25-hidroxilasa dando lugar a 25-hidroxivitamina D2, 25(OH)D2, y 25-hidroxivitamina D3, 25(OH)D3, respectivamente (33). Normalmente, se hace referencia al 25(OH)D total, que es el marcador del estado de la vitamina, y se transporta unido a la DBP hasta el riñón, donde sufre otra hidroxilación mediante la enzima 1- α -hidroxilasa, obteniéndose 1,25-dihidroxicolecalciferol, 1,25(OH)₂D, o calcitriol. Esta es la forma activa de la vitamina D y responsable de las funciones biológicas, siendo su actividad más relevante la mineralización y regulación del remodelado óseo.

En numerosos estudios se afirma que la 25-hidroxilasa y la DBP presentan mayor afinidad por la vitamina D3 que por la D2 y, en consecuencia, la forma D3 contribuye mayoritariamente a la concentración plasmática de 25(OH)D total (33). Asimismo, la degradación de la forma D2 es mayor que la de la D3, lo que favorece también que la forma D3 sea la más activa (33).

Al comparar diferentes grupos de omnívoros, ovolactovegetarianos y veganos se observó que los veganos ingerían una menor cantidad de vitamina D a través de la dieta (6,34). La concentración plasmática de 25(OH)D total es generalmente menor en veganos, sobre todo la concentración plasmática de 25(OH)D3 (7), y existe una alta asociación entre la baja ingesta de vitamina D y el nivel plasmático de 25(OH)D (34). Sin em-

bargo, las concentraciones séricas de 25(OH)D no dependen exclusivamente de la dieta, sino que influyen también la pigmentación de la piel y la exposición solar. En situaciones en las que la síntesis cutánea de vitamina D está disminuida, por ejemplo en invierno, y al no ingerir alimentos de origen animal, puede existir mayor riesgo de déficit en vegetarianos. Con el fin de asegurar unos niveles adecuados, se aconseja la exposición solar y la ingesta de alimentos fortificados con vitamina D, como bebidas vegetales, zumos y cereales de desayuno. Si no se consume este tipo de alimentos y existe riesgo de déficit de esta vitamina, sería necesaria la suplementación diaria con 5-10 μ g de vitamina D (4).

Vitamina E

Generalmente, los vegetarianos ingieren mayor cantidad de esta vitamina que los omnívoros (11,29,35). Hay que tener en cuenta que la actividad biológica de la vitamina E en los alimentos dependerá de la variedad de los tocoferoles y tocotrienoles que se encuentren en ellos. El cociente tocoferol/colesterol permite estudiar la protección que ofrece la vitamina frente a la oxidación, ya que una parte del α -tocopherol se transporta unido a lipoproteínas de baja densidad. En vegetarianos se ha observado que este cociente es mayor que en omnívoros, lo que indica una mayor efectividad en la protección contra la oxidación de los lípidos de baja densidad en esta población (35).

Por lo tanto, el aporte de vitamina E es adecuado en dietas vegetarianas gracias al elevado consumo de alimentos ricos en esta vitamina, como son los aceites vegetales y sus derivados, el germen de trigo, los cereales y los frutos secos.

Vitamina C

Numerosos estudios muestran que las dietas vegetarianas implican el consumo de más cantidad de vitamina C que las dietas omnívoras (6,11,29), pudiendo llegar a diferenciarse la ingesta entre veganos y omnívoros en más de 20 mg diarios (6). Un aspecto importante de esta vitamina, interesante en dietas vegetarianas, es que favorece la absorción de hierro por dos mecanismos: la reducción a hierro ferroso y la formación de un quelato con el hierro en el estómago que se mantiene hasta llegar al intestino, lo que evita que este mineral interactúe con factores inhibidores de su absorción (36).

Por tanto, el aporte de vitamina C a través del consumo de vegetales es suficiente. No obstante, se trata de una vitamina lábil que puede destruirse durante el procesado y cocinado de los alimentos, por lo que es recomendable el consumo de los alimentos en crudo o con tratamientos térmicos moderados.

Vitamina A

Los retinoides, compuestos estructuralmente relacionados con el retinol (considerado la vitamina A preformada), solo se encuentran en alimentos de origen animal (37). Como consecuencia, algunos estudios afirman que los vegetarianos ingieren menor cantidad de vitamina A como retinol que los omnívoros (23,29). En cuanto al β -caroteno, considerado el carotenoide más importante, se ha observado que los veganos tienen mayor concentración plasmática que los omnívoros (3,35). Este puede metabolizarse dando lugar a retinoides y se considera que es suficiente para la obtención de retinol.

En conclusión, las dietas vegetarianas adecuadamente planificadas no parecen suponer un problema en el aporte de vitamina A debido a la conversión de los carotenoides. Con el fin de mejorar la biodisponibilidad de los carotenoides y aumentar su conversión, sería recomendable cocinar los alimentos mediante un tratamiento térmico moderado, puesto que así se desprende de las proteínas a las que está unido, e incluir alimentos con elevado contenido en vitamina E y otros antioxidantes que protegen la vitamina A, además de pequeñas cantidades de grasa en las comidas. También puede incrementarse su biodisponibilidad mediante el corte y la trituración de los vegetales (3).

MINERALES

Hierro

Múltiples factores (Fig. 4) están implicados en la biodisponibilidad del hierro desde la ingesta hasta su utilización metabólica o almacenamiento en el organismo (36). El hierro hemo, cuya absorción es más eficaz que la del hierro no hemo, solo se encuentra en alimentos de origen animal (38,39). La biodisponibilidad del hierro no hemo está influenciada por factores dietéticos inhibidores y potenciadores de su absorción, siendo el ácido ascórbico

el principal potenciador en dietas vegetarianas. Actúa formando un quelato con el hierro e impidiendo que otros componentes alimentarios se unan a este. Además, el ácido ascórbico es co-factor de la enzima Dcytb, que tiene actividad ferorrreductasa y cuya expresión está aumentada en situaciones de deficiencia de hierro e hipoxia. Por otra parte, los inhibidores de la absorción del hierro no hemo se encuentran principalmente en los alimentos de origen vegetal, siendo los mayoritarios los fitatos, presentes en cereales de grano entero y legumbres, y los polifenoles, que se pueden encontrar en el té o el cacao, entre otros. El calcio es un inhibidor de la absorción tanto del hierro hemo como del no hemo, debido a su interacción con el transportador DMT-1, como se ha observado en estudios con modelos *in vitro* que simulan la captación de Fe^{2+} por el enterocito (36).

Los vegetarianos obtienen hierro no hemo de diversas fuentes vegetales, como las legumbres, los cereales integrales y los vegetales de hojas oscuras. Sin embargo, su menor biodisponibilidad es un factor a considerar especialmente en mujeres en edad fértil, que presentan mayor prevalencia de deficiencia de hierro que los hombres y son más propensas a sufrir anemia ferropénica, lo que se ha asociado fundamentalmente a las pérdidas menstruales (39). No obstante, es necesario tener en cuenta la cantidad de hierro total que se ingiere. En este sentido, en las dietas vegetarianas y en las omnívoras la ingesta de hierro es similar, incluso más elevada en el caso de las dietas veganas (6). Otro aspecto interesante es la posible existencia de una respuesta adaptativa que ocasiona un aumento en la absorción del hierro no hemo en vegetarianos. Por todo ello, es posible que el estado de hierro sea adecuado y no exista mayor riesgo de anemia (40).

En conclusión, con el fin de prevenir la deficiencia de hierro en vegetarianos, se recomienda separar la ingesta de productos ricos en polifenoles, como café y té, de las comidas principales (41). Además, para aumentar su biodisponibilidad es aconsejable consumir conjuntamente alimentos vegetales ricos en hierro y alimentos ricos en vitamina C.

Calcio

Los lácteos se consideran las principales fuentes de calcio en la dieta, aunque algunos alimentos vegetales también son ricos en este mineral (42). En la biodisponibilidad del calcio procedente de los alimentos intervienen variables fisiológicas, como la edad, el embarazo y la lactancia, y variables dietéticas, entre las que se incluyen aquellos compuestos que inhiben o promueven la absorción (43). Los fitatos y los oxalatos son los inhibidores de la absorción de calcio más destacados en alimentos vegetales (3). El procesado, la cocción y la digestión de los alimentos pueden disminuir este efecto inhibidor. En dietas vegetarianas, sobre todo veganas, es necesario tener en cuenta estos factores y escoger aquellos vegetales con bajo contenido en ácido oxálico y otras fuentes alimentarias de calcio, como la soja y sus derivados elaborados con sales cálcicas (3).

La relación entre dietas vegetarianas y salud ósea es un tema de interés que se ha analizado mediante distintos estudios. Se

ha observado que las personas que siguen una dieta vegetariana ingieren menor cantidad de calcio que aquellas que consumen alimentos de origen animal (11,34). La ingesta de calcio en vegetarianos puede ser hasta un 25% menor que en omnívoros y procede fundamentalmente de bebidas sustitutivas de leche fortificadas con este mineral (6). En un estudio realizado en Dinamarca en el cual comparaban veganos y omnívoros, se observó que los veganos presentaban la concentración plasmática de PTH elevada y la de 25(OH)D disminuida, lo que se relaciona con un aumento de la resorción ósea (44). Sin embargo, no se ha considerado que las dietas vegetarianas se asocien con menor densidad mineral ósea, en parte porque los estudios disponibles se han realizado en jóvenes (45) y por la influencia de otros factores dietéticos y la actividad física. No obstante, es recomendable seleccionar alimentos vegetales con calcio de elevada biodisponibilidad e ingerir alimentos fortificados con este mineral para el mantenimiento de la salud ósea en vegetarianos.

Zinc

El zinc está presente tanto en alimentos de origen animal como vegetal. Sin embargo, el zinc en los vegetales es de baja biodisponibilidad debido a la interacción con factores inhibidores como el ácido fítico (46), cuyo efecto puede reducirse mediante el tratamiento térmico, la hidrólisis enzimática o la fermentación de los alimentos (47). Por otro lado, otros componentes que tienen los vegetales facilitan la absorción del zinc, como los aminoácidos azufrados (cisteína y metionina) y los hidroxíácidos (como el ácido cítrico). La concentración de zinc en plasma se regula mediante mecanismos homeostáticos dependiendo del estado nutricional del individuo y de la presencia en la dieta de inhibidores y potenciadores de la absorción (46). Además, existe un reservorio dietético de este mineral y cierta cantidad de zinc se reabsorbe mediante la circulación enterohepática (47).

La ingesta recomendada de zinc es un tema que genera cierta controversia entre organismos internacionales al no haber un criterio unificado para definir su deficiencia. En dietas vegetarianas inadecuadamente diseñadas puede existir riesgo de deficiencia de zinc, debido a la ausencia de fuentes dietéticas de procedencia animal y al elevado consumo de vegetales que contienen inhibidores de la absorción de este mineral. Algunos estudios han observado una menor ingesta y concentraciones séricas bajas de zinc en vegetarianos con respecto a omnívoros (46). No obstante, la baja ingesta de zinc puede dar lugar a la reducción de las pérdidas de este mineral por orina y un incremento de la eficacia de la absorción en los tejidos (47).

Se puede concluir que las personas que siguen dietas vegetarianas tienen un riesgo de déficit de zinc superior al de los omnívoros. Para mantener un nivel adecuado de zinc en una dieta vegetariana es necesario tener en cuenta la ingesta de este mineral a través de alimentos de origen vegetal y considerar los factores inhibidores de la absorción, prestando especial atención a aquellos grupos más vulnerables a sufrir deficiencia, como los niños y las embarazadas.

Sodio

La sal añadida a los alimentos supone la principal fuente dietética de sodio. Se ha observado que los vegetarianos ingieren menor cantidad de sodio que los omnívoros (5). Sin embargo, otros autores no han encontrado esta diferencia y consideran que tanto vegetarianos como omnívoros ingieren una elevada cantidad de sal (6), superando los niveles recomendados mediante el consumo de alimentos procesados. Este es un hecho a tener en cuenta, ya que la cantidad de sodio ingerida determina la actividad del sistema renina-angiotensina-aldosterona y niveles elevados de aldosterona se asocian con hipertensión, disfunción endotelial, enfermedades cardiovasculares e insuficiencia cardíaca (48). Por tanto, debido a los problemas que puede ocasionar para la salud, es recomendable limitar la ingesta de sal añadida a los alimentos.

Selenio

Las fuentes dietéticas de selenio son aquellos alimentos con alto contenido en aminoácidos azufrados. Se hallan en forma de selenometionina y sus derivados en vegetales y en forma de selenocisteína en alimentos de origen animal (49). La absorción del selenio presente en vegetales es limitada debido a la presencia de fibra, sobre todo peptinas, y fitatos (49). Así, algunos autores han afirmado la existencia de un riesgo de déficit en vegetarianos (7,23). Es importante tener en cuenta los parámetros utilizados para medir la deficiencia de selenio. En un estudio llevado a cabo en Alemania, se observó que, en comparación con omnívoros, los vegetarianos presentaban concentraciones séricas bajas de selenio y selenoproteína P, transportadora de selenio. Sin embargo, no existían diferencias significativas entre estos grupos al comparar la actividad de la glutatión peroxidasa 3, que puede verse afectada ante un déficit de selenio ya que actúa como cofactor de esta enzima (50).

Por lo tanto, las dietas vegetarianas pueden implicar un riesgo más elevado de déficit de selenio que las dietas omnívoras debido a la escasez en la dieta de selenocisteína. Sería conveniente disminuir la ingesta de inhibidores de la absorción de selenio con el fin de aumentar su biodisponibilidad. Es preciso investigar con mayor profundidad la relación de las dietas vegetarianas y el selenio con el fin de plantear unas pautas dietéticas adecuadas.

Yodo

En los alimentos, el yodo se encuentra mayoritariamente en forma de yoduro, que está presente en cantidades más elevadas en animales marinos y en algas. La cantidad de yodo presente en vegetales está altamente influenciada por la capacidad de estos para absorber dicho mineral y por la composición del suelo (51). El consumo de huevos y productos lácteos también puede contribuir al aporte dietético de yodo, dependiendo de la alimentación del animal. El empleo de sal yodada como condimento es una fuente importante de yodo en países industrializados (52).

Respecto a los estudios realizados sobre la ingesta de yodo en vegetarianos, se ha observado que estos consumen menor cantidad de dicho micronutriente (6,7) y presentan menor concentración en orina que los omnívoros (29). En España no existen datos sobre la ingesta de yodo en vegetarianos, aunque se conoce que en población general el uso de sal yodada contribuye a mantener unos niveles adecuados de este mineral en el organismo. Sin embargo, el consumo elevado de algas o alimentos con alto contenido en compuestos biociógenos, junto con baja ingesta de yodo, podría implicar problemas de salud en vegetarianos.

CONCLUSIONES Y PERSPECTIVAS FUTURAS

En la presente revisión, se han examinado distintos estudios relacionados con el estado nutricional en vegetarianos. Las investigaciones sobre el estado nutricional de esta población que utilizan biomarcadores son limitadas y los conocimientos sobre vegetarianos españoles son aún escasos. En la revisión se presentan diferentes nutrientes considerados relevantes en dietas vegetarianas, bien por su posible riesgo de deficiencia o por ingesta adecuada. La tabla I resume los nutrientes y sus principales características en dietas vegetarianas. Hay que prestar especial consideración a aquellos nutrientes que fundamentalmente se obtienen mediante alimentos de origen animal (como la vitamina B12 y el DHA) o a aquellos que presentan menor biodisponibilidad en alimentos vegetales (como el hierro o el zinc).

Las dietas vegetarianas implican generalmente unos hábitos alimentarios considerados saludables debido al elevado consumo de frutas, verduras y hortalizas, legumbres y frutos secos. Por ello, es habitual que los vegetarianos, en comparación con omnívoros, presenten menores factores de riesgo relacionados

con enfermedades crónicas como el IMC elevado, un inadecuado perfil lipídico o elevado nivel de glucosa en sangre. Con esta premisa, las dietas vegetarianas se han utilizado en estudios de intervención con el fin de prevenir o tratar algunas enfermedades. Se han llevado a cabo investigaciones sobre los efectos beneficiosos en el tratamiento de la diabetes tipo 2 tras el seguimiento de una dieta vegetariana baja en grasa con resultados positivos (53). Se observó la disminución del colesterol total, el LDL-colesterol y los triglicéridos, además de una disminución de peso, tras el cambio hacia una dieta vegetariana (53). Asimismo, en un estudio de intervención con dieta vegetariana en omnívoros sanos se observó una mejora en la resistencia a la insulina y los niveles de glucosa en sangre y una disminución de los triglicéridos y la relación colesterol total/HDL-colesterol en los primeros días del ensayo (54).

Por consiguiente, las dietas vegetarianas bien planificadas podrían tener un efecto beneficioso en la reducción de factores de riesgo relacionados con enfermedades crónicas. Además, el seguimiento de este tipo de dietas por omnívoros durante un periodo determinado de tiempo podría mejorar sus hábitos dietéticos. No obstante, se considera necesario seguir investigando sobre el estado nutricional de vegetarianos y el posible uso de estas dietas con el fin de prevenir y tratar enfermedades.

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Tabla I. Nutrientes y sus principales características en dietas vegetarianas

Nutrientes	Ingesta	Estado nutricional	Recomendaciones	Referencias
Lípidos	Ingesta de AGS ↓ ↑ AGPs n-6 ↓ AGPs n-3 No ingesta EPA y DHA	Menor concentración plasmática de EPA y DHA que en omnívoros	Disminuir la ingesta de AGPs n-6 y aumentar la de AGPs n-3 Ingerir complementos de DHA y EPA	(7,10-17)
Proteínas	La ingesta de proteínas, lisina y metionina puede ser menor que en omnívoros	No se ha descrito malnutrición proteica	Combinar los aminoácidos esenciales para obtener proteína completa	(3,5,7,8,18-20)
Carbohidratos	Principal fuente energética Mayor ingesta de fibra que en omnívoros	Contribuyen a mayor % de energía que en omnívoros	Evitar un consumo excesivo de fibra que impida la absorción de minerales	(4-7,9,21-25)
Vitamina B12	Ingesta insuficiente	↑ MMA e hiperhomocisteinemia, indicadores de deficiencia subclínica de vitamina B12	Complementos de vitamina B12	(26,27)
Ácido fólico	Ingesta elevada de folato	Folato elevado Hiperhomocisteinemia	Uso de complementos solo en caso necesario (embarazadas)	(26,28-30)
Vitamina B6	No hay acuerdo sobre si la ingesta es superior o inferior que en omnívoros	Piridoxal-5-fosfato en plasma menor que en omnívoros	Controlar la ingesta de fibra, que puede reducir la biodisponibilidad de la vitamina B6	(28,29,31)
Vitamina D	Hongos irradiados con UV (D2) Síntesis cutánea (D3)	Estado de la vitamina 25(OH)D sérica menor que en omnívoros	Aumentar la exposición solar Consumir alimentos fortificados	(4,6,7,32-34)
Vitamina E	Ingesta elevada	↑ tocoferol/colesterol	Consumir alimentos ricos en vitamina E: aceites vegetales y derivados, germen de trigo, cereales y frutos secos	(11,29,35)
Vitamina C	Ingesta elevada	Niveles plasmáticos adecuados	Consumir alimentos ricos en vitamina C junto con vegetales que contienen hierro no hemo	(6,11,29,36)
Vitamina A	Ingesta de carotenoides elevada Sin ingesta de retinoides, de origen animal	Concentración más elevada de β-caroteno en plasma que en omnívoros	Tratamiento térmico moderado de los alimentos Consumir los alimentos que son fuente de carotenos con algo de grasa y antioxidantes	(3,23,29,35,37)
Hierro	Ingesta exclusiva de hierro no hemo (de baja biodisponibilidad) Inhibidores de la absorción en alimentos vegetales	Hierro corporal y almacenes de hierro, valorados por ferritina sérica, más bajos que en omnívoros	Separar la ingesta de alimentos ricos en polifenoles de las comidas principales Ingerir alimentos ricos en vitamina C con las comidas principales	(6,36,38-41)
Calcio	Menor ingesta que en omnívoros Ingesta de fitatos y oxalatos, inhibidores de la absorción	↑ PTH y marcadores de la resorción ósea por ingestas insuficientes	Elegir técnicas de procesamiento y cocción adecuadas para disminuir la presencia de inhibidores Consumir alimentos fortificados	(3,6,11,34,42-45)
Zinc	Ingesta inferior que en omnívoros Baja biodisponibilidad	Mayor riesgo de déficit que en omnívoros	Ingerir alimentos con cisteína, metionina e hidroxiácidos, que aumentan la absorción Emplear la enzima fitasa en el procesamiento de los alimentos	(46,47)

AGS: ácidos grasos saturados; AGPs: ácidos grasos poliinsaturados; n-3: omega-3; n-6: omega-6; EPA: ácido eicosapentaenoico; DHA: ácido docosahexaenoico; MMA: ácido metilmalónico; 25(OH)D: 25-hidroxivitamina D; PTH: parathormona.

(Continúa en la página siguiente)

Tabla I (Cont.). Nutrientes y sus principales características en dietas vegetarianas

Nutrientes	Ingesta	Estado nutricional	Recomendaciones	Referencias
Sodio	Controversia sobre si la ingesta es superior o inferior que en omnívoros	Similar a omnívoros	Limitar el consumo de alimentos procesados No exceder en el uso de sal común	(5,6,48)
Selenio	Ingesta de selenio de baja biodisponibilidad	Selenio y selenoproteína P menores que en omnívoros	Limitar el consumo de fibra y fitatos, que inhiben la absorción	(7,23,49,50)
Yodo	Menor ingesta que en omnívoros	Menor concentración en orina que en omnívoros	Limitar el consumo excesivo de algas y alimentos con alto contenido en compuestos bociógenos Uso de sal yodada	(6,7,29,51,52)

AGS: ácidos grasos saturados; AGPs: ácidos grasos poliinsaturados; n-3: omega-3; n-6: omega-6; EPA: ácido eicosapentaenoico; DHA: ácido docosahexaenoico; MMA: ácido metilmalónico; 25(OH)D: 25-hidroxivitamina D; PTH: parathormona.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Revisión

Leche y productos lácteos como vehículos de calcio y vitamina D: papel de las leches enriquecidas

Milk and dairy products as vehicle for calcium and vitamin D: role of calcium enriched milks

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Resumen

La leche y sus derivados son alimentos fundamentales durante todas las etapas de la vida dentro de una dieta occidental equilibrada. En las últimas décadas, su consumo ha disminuido notablemente y de forma paralela se ha detectado un aumento de algunas alteraciones provocadas por la carencia de micronutrientes presentes en los productos lácteos, principalmente calcio y vitamina D. Esta tendencia está derivando en un grave problema de salud pública en determinados grupos de población. Para intentar solucionar estos problemas, se han incorporado al mercado alimentos enriquecidos con estos componentes, entre los que destacan los productos lácteos porque proporcionan mejor biodisponibilidad del calcio y son fuentes de vitamina D, por lo que son los más recomendables. Se han realizado diversas investigaciones que demuestran el beneficio que supone la suplementación con leche enriquecida en calcio y vitamina D en grupos vulnerables, como los adultos mayores y las mujeres posmenopáusicas, en los que mejora sustancialmente el recambio óseo y aumenta la densidad y la fuerza de los huesos. El objetivo de este trabajo es revisar la importancia que tiene el consumo del calcio de la leche, así como las recomendaciones actuales de ingesta, y analizar la utilidad de las leches enriquecidas con calcio para determinados grupos de población como alternativa para aumentar las ingestas de este mineral y también de vitamina D. Asimismo, se pretenden clarificar los errores y mitos que han surgido recientemente en relación a determinados alimentos que pretenden sustituir a la leche y sus derivados, basándonos en sus diferencias de composición, biodisponibilidad y efectos sobre la salud.

Palabras clave:

Leche. Calcio.
Vitamina D. Leches
enriquecidas con
calcio. Salud.

Abstract

Milk and dairy products are key foods during all stages of life within a balanced Western diet. In recent decades, their consumption has decreased significantly. In parallel, an increase in some pathological alterations caused by the deficit of some micronutrients present in dairy products, mainly calcium and vitamin D, has been detected, resulting in a serious public health problem in certain groups of population. In order to avoid these deficiencies, foods enriched in these components have been launched into the market. Within them, enriched milks and dairy products stand out since they allow better bioavailability of calcium and are natural sources of vitamin D. Several studies have been carried out to demonstrate the benefit of supplementation with calcium and vitamin D enriched milks in vulnerable groups such as older adults and postmenopausal women. Those studies have reported a substantial improvement of bone turnover and an increase of bone density and strength. The aim of the present work is to revise the importance of milk-derived calcium intake on health, and the usefulness of calcium-enriched milks for allowing adequate calcium consumption without dietary modifications in certain groups of population. Likewise, it is intended to clarify the errors and myths that have recently arisen in relation to certain foods that seek to replace milk and dairy product, based on their differences in composition, bioavailability and health effects.

Key words:

Milk. Calcium. Vitamin
D. Calcium-enriched
milk. Health.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La leche es un alimento insustituible en todas las etapas de la vida dentro de una dieta equilibrada. Numerosas investigaciones han demostrado el papel que desempeñan la leche y sus derivados como vehículos de nutrientes esenciales para el adecuado funcionamiento del organismo (1,2). La leche es una fuente esencial de proteínas, grasas, minerales y vitaminas, así como de nucleótidos y poliaminas, entre otros micronutrientes. Dentro de estos destacan el calcio y la vitamina D, que por su elevada presencia y su alta biodisponibilidad, no igualada por ningún otro alimento, garantizan las ingestas diarias recomendadas (IDR) (3). Estos dos micronutrientes están vinculados con el desarrollo y mantenimiento de procesos fisiológicos tales como el crecimiento y mantenimiento óseo, la coagulación sanguínea, el metabolismo energético y neuromuscular, la función de enzimas digestivas, la división neuromuscular y la diferenciación celular (3-6). Por estos motivos, el consumo de leche y sus derivados resulta fundamental, no solo durante el crecimiento y el desarrollo, sino en todas las etapas de la vida. Sin embargo, en la actualidad existe una controversia generalizada sobre los posibles efectos perjudiciales que la leche y sus derivados pueden ocasionar sobre la salud, que no está respaldada por la evidencia científica. A consecuencia de dicha “moda alimentaria”, tanto en España como en los países occidentales se ha observado que el consumo de leche ha disminuido notablemente (7), lo que ha dado como resultado una reducción preocupante en la ingesta de calcio y vitamina D, con las consecuencias que su carencia puede ocasionar para la salud (1-3). El impacto que tienen las redes sociales y los medios de comunicación sobre el comportamiento de la población ha contribuido en gran medida a aumentar las dudas y mitos sobre el consumo de leche, que ha sido catalogada como nociva para la salud. Son alarmantes algunos titulares encontrados en estos medios, del tipo “La leche es un veneno”. Por supuesto, hay que incidir en la importancia de una adecuada educación nutricional para que la población pueda tomar decisiones bien informadas y, dentro de esta, las campañas de promoción del consumo de lácteos (basadas en evidencia científica) son muy necesarias. Concretamente, el descenso en el consumo de leche en determinados grupos de población hace interesante la incorporación a la dieta de leches enriquecidas con estos micronutrientes, que permitan la ingesta de las cantidades adecuadas de los mismos sin modificar la ingesta de alimentos.

Esta revisión tiene como objetivo incidir en la importancia que tiene el consumo de calcio a partir de la leche, así como las recomendaciones actuales de ingesta, y analizar la utilidad de las leches enriquecidas con calcio en todas las etapas de la vida. Asimismo, se pretenden clarificar los errores y mitos que han surgido recientemente en relación a determinados alimentos considerados sustitutos de la leche y sus derivados, basándonos en sus diferencias de composición, biodisponibilidad y efectos sobre la salud.

CONSUMO DE LECHE Y DERIVADOS LÁCTEOS. SITUACIÓN ACTUAL RESPECTO A LOS REQUERIMIENTOS EN ESPAÑA

La búsqueda del alimento siempre ha sido un medio de supervivencia para el ser humano, y la leche ha sido, y sigue siendo,

un alimento fundamental en su dieta, principalmente para la dieta occidental equilibrada. El desarrollo evolutivo trascendió con la invención de la agricultura y la ganadería, que permitió disponer de carne y leche en cantidades suficientes para poder cubrir las necesidades energéticas para mejorar el crecimiento y desarrollo, así como los mecanismos de defensa contra enfermedades y, con ello, aumentar las expectativas de vida (8). El *Homo sapiens* se adaptó genéticamente y pudo ingerir y tolerar de adulto la leche gracias a la persistencia de la expresión de lactasa, una enzima que metaboliza el principal carbohidrato de este alimento. La persistencia de la lactasa, que apareció hace unos 7500 años, es un ejemplo de evolución genética. El patrón moderno de diversidad en este *locus* en Europa es el resultado de la interacción de un gran número de factores fisiológicos, genéticos, demográficos, migratorios, de estructuración social y de contacto de culturas (9). Esta adaptación proporcionó una fuerte ventaja genética. Las estimaciones del coeficiente de selección del alelo de persistencia de lactasa producen hasta un 19% más de descendencia fértil que las que no lo portan (9).

A partir de los años cincuenta, el consumo de leche y derivados aumentó progresivamente en paralelo al incremento del nivel de formación y a la capacidad adquisitiva de la población (10). En 1958, se establecieron las normas relativas a la producción y comercialización de leche higienizada. Los avances en los procesos de higienización permitieron una mayor disponibilidad de estos productos, lo que dio lugar al incremento en su consumo con el paso de los años, el cual se asoció a una menor prevalencia de enfermedades infecciosas y a la mejora del estado nutricional de la población. De esta manera, el consumo de leche ha permitido un gran avance en la nutrición humana, no solo desde el punto de vista de seguridad alimentaria, sino también como un vehículo de nutrientes de alta calidad biológica y nutricional, ya que es un alimento asequible y disponible para la población en general. Se podría decir que, hoy en día, la leche y otros productos lácteos proporcionan una variedad de nutrientes de muy buena calidad, y son menos costosos que otros alimentos derivados de animales (11). Sin embargo, en las últimas décadas su consumo ha disminuido notablemente debido a que algunos medios de comunicación y redes sociales han catalogado a la leche y a sus derivados como nocivos para la salud, hecho que no ha sido demostrado científicamente (12,13). En un principio, la leche se consideró como un alimento rico en grasa y se asoció con el desarrollo de patologías como el sobrepeso y la obesidad así como a patologías asociadas, como las cardiovasculares. Es importante mencionar que muchos profesionales de la salud recomiendan la disminución del consumo de grasa láctea por debajo del 10% de la energía total ingerida. Esta recomendación no está del todo justificada, especialmente porque se ha demostrado que los ácidos grasos presentes en la leche no son perjudiciales a nivel cardiovascular (14). A pesar de esto, y ante la necesidad de disminuir la ingesta de grasa total de la dieta, la industria láctea reaccionó incorporando al mercado leches con un contenido reducido de grasa. Posteriormente, el incremento de las intolerancias y alergias alimentarias, algunas autodiagnosticadas de forma errónea, ha llevado a ciertos sectores de la población mal informados a evitar el consumo de lactosa y proteína de leche por conside-

rarlos responsables de estos problemas. Finalmente, y no por ello menos preocupante, se han atribuido otras propiedades perjudiciales a la leche que no han podido ser demostradas científicamente (15,16). Sin embargo, muchos consumidores han optado por eliminarla de sus dietas e incluir productos que, aunque no pueden ser catalogados como leches, han sido lanzados como sus sustitutos y tienen el gran problema de que no aportan las mismas cantidades de nutrientes que la leche, principalmente proteínas, calcio y vitamina D. Como consecuencia de esta "moda alimentaria", tanto en España como en otros países, el consumo de calcio ha disminuido a una media de 803 mg/persona/día, mientras que la ingesta de vitamina D se encuentra en 4,4 µg/persona/día. Estas ingestas están por debajo de las ingestas diarias recomendadas (IDR) para dichos nutrientes, lo que está provocando carencias nutricionales y, como consecuencia, importantes problemas de salud (17). En 2012, un estudio realizado en población española mostró que la ingesta media de calcio fue inferior a la IDR en el 78,4% de los participantes (70% hombres, 86% mujeres), con ingestas por debajo del 67% de la recomendación en el 33,7% de los participantes (25,5% hombres, 40,9% mujeres). En este estudio se describe que la principal fuente de calcio fueron productos lácteos (53,1%), y los resultados señalaron que los individuos que alcanzaban la IDR de calcio consumían más productos de este tipo que los que no la alcanzaban ($551,3 \pm 240,4$ g/día y $305,0 \pm 150,3$ g/día, respectivamente) (18).

REQUERIMIENTOS NUTRICIONALES DE CALCIO Y VITAMINA D A LO LARGO DEL CICLO DE LA VIDA

El calcio es un elemento esencial e imprescindible en la salud del ser humano. Representa el 2% del peso corporal total y desempeña un papel importante para la estructura y regulación del organismo. Su absorción está influenciada por la presencia de vitamina D, entre otros factores. La IDR de calcio ha aumentado desde el 2001 (Fig. 1). Los datos más recientes, de 2016, recomiendan la ingesta de 800-1.200 mg/día para el grupo de edades comprendidas entre 4-8 años, lo que significa un aumento del 50% si se compara con las recomendaciones de 2001, mientras que en el grupo de 9-24 años la IDR es de 1.200-1.500 mg/día, que supone un aumento del 15,4% hasta la edad de 18 años y un aumento del 50% entre las edades de 19-24 respecto a 2001 (19-21). En las mujeres embarazadas se recomienda una IDR de 500 mg/día adicionales a la IDR correspondiente a esa edad, lo que también resulta una variación de más del 50% en comparación con 2001. Por otro lado, en personas mayores de 60 años, la IDR se ha incrementado un 25%, hasta 1.500 mg/día de calcio en 2016. Sin embargo, para edades comprendidas entre 50-65 años, los valores de IDR han disminuido de 1.200 a 1.000 mg/día (21). Estas modificaciones de las IDR están basadas en las conclusiones aportadas por varios estudios que revisan la importancia del calcio en la salud ósea (22-25).

Al igual que ocurre con el calcio, las IDR de vitamina D han aumentado desde 2001 debido a la importancia que tiene

un suministro adecuado para el correcto funcionamiento del organismo y para la prevención de algunas enfermedades (23-26). El aumento propuesto para la IDR en España ha sido del 100% (de 5 µg/día a 10 µg/día) desde el nacimiento hasta la edad de 50 años en mujeres embarazadas y en lactantes. Los valores para personas de entre 50-70 años han permanecido sin cambios, mientras que en población mayor los valores recomendados alcanzan los 20 µg/día (un aumento de 33,34%), ya que en estas personas la producción y la síntesis renal se reducen considerablemente (27). Este aumento de las IDR de vitamina D se justifica tras múltiples estudios que relacionan una ingesta más alta con la prevención de diversas enfermedades, entre las que destaca el raquitismo en niños de hasta cuatro años de edad, al igual que para prevenir las fracturas óseas en mujeres de entre 50-70 años y en hombres mayores de 70 años, y para prevenir el nacimiento de niños de bajo peso en mujeres embarazadas (28).

Finalmente, destacamos que el Consenso Global sobre Prevención y Manejo de Raquitismo Nutricional reconoció la contribución igualitaria de la vitamina D y el calcio dietético como causas de la carencia de calcio, y recomendó la ingesta de 10 µg/día (400 UI) diarias para todos los bebés desde el nacimiento hasta el año de vida y 15 µg/día (600 UI) durante el embarazo y en individuos de riesgo. Incluso, se recomienda que las poblaciones de alto riesgo reciban suplementos de por vida y fortificación de alimentos con vitamina D o calcio (29).

IMPORTANCIA DE LOS NUTRIENTES PROCEDENTES DE PRODUCTOS LÁCTEOS EN EL FUNCIONAMIENTO DEL ORGANISMO

Los minerales juegan un papel multifuncional en la salud humana. Además de participar en la formación de la estructura ósea y los dientes, son necesarios para procesos metabólicos tales como la producción de energía, la absorción de nutrientes y la formación de proteínas, entre otros (30). Concretamente, el calcio es el principal componente de los huesos, los cuales actúan como reservorio de dicho mineral, lo que permite que se mantengan sus niveles en la sangre y en las células, donde actúa como segundo mensajero en la transducción de señales, e interviene en procesos como la coagulación sanguínea, la contracción muscular y la transmisión del impulso nervioso, además de ser cofactor de algunas enzimas y de ayudar al mantenimiento de la integridad y de la funcionalidad de membranas (31). La vitamina D regula la homeostasis del calcio y la mineralización ósea, además de activar un factor de transcripción nuclear conocido como receptor de vitamina D (RVD), implicado en los procesos de diferenciación celular, inmunitarios y neuroprotectores, y en la regulación de la presión arterial y neuroprotectores (6). Dichas funciones los convierten en nutrientes esenciales y justifican la necesidad de su ingesta a través de los alimentos, entre los que destacan los productos lácteos porque mejoran su biodisponibilidad.

Además, es importante mencionar también otros micronutrientes que encontramos en la leche, aunque no sean tan abundantes, pero que son necesarios para el correcto funcionamiento del or-

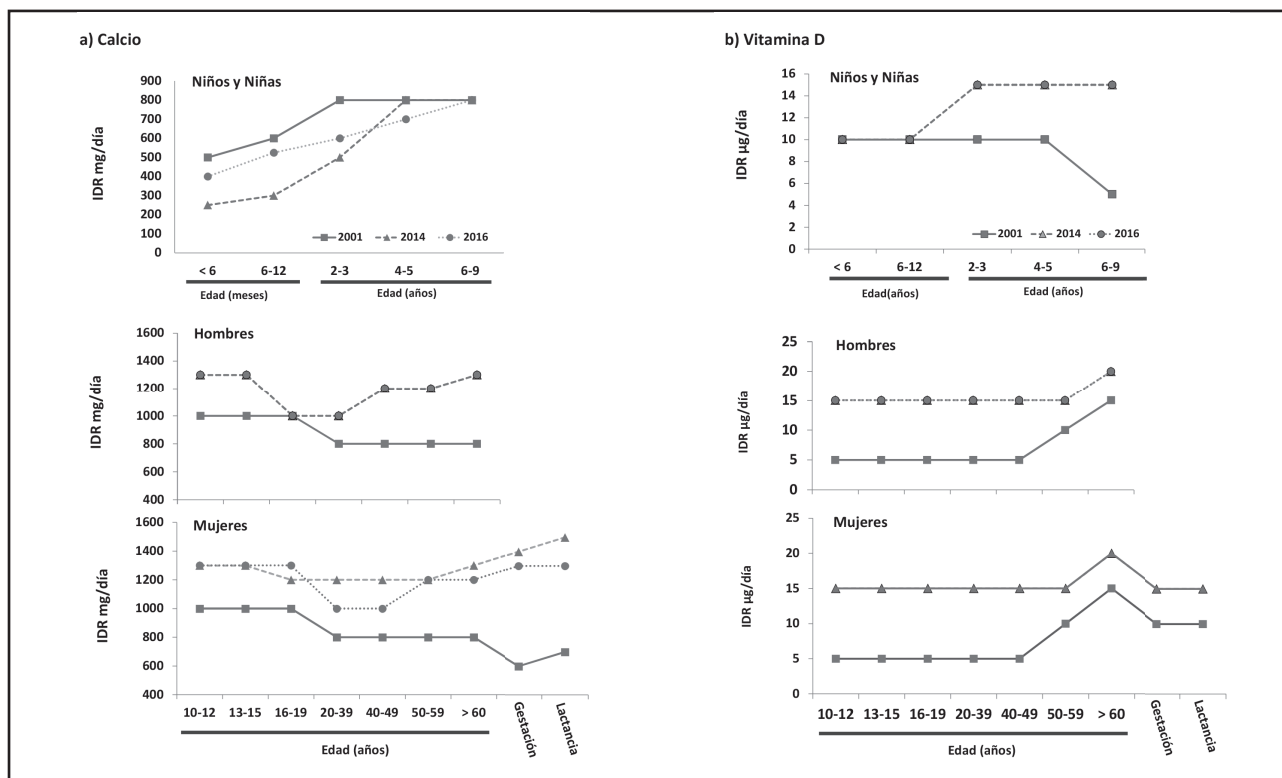


Figura 1.

Comparativa IDR de calcio y vitamina D en etapas de la vida.

ganismo (32). Un litro de leche suministra 120 mg de magnesio, lo que corresponde al 29% de la IDR para este mineral, cuyo equilibrio es dinámico entre la fase acuosa y micelar (33); de 3 a 4 mg de zinc, que está en su mayoría presente en la fase micelar asociado con la caseína; así como 30 mg de selenio, que representa alrededor del 67% de la IDR para este oligoelemento (33,34). Por otro lado, otros componentes de la leche, como las proteínas, los lípidos y los hidratos de carbono, como la lactosa, los oligosacáridos libres y los glucósidos o glicoconjugados enlazados, son capaces de modificar la microbiota intestinal, lo que facilita una utilización más eficiente de los alimentos (35). Karav y cols. (36) han mostrado un efecto específico de los oligosacáridos liberados de las glicoproteínas de la leche y de la fracción de caseína y suero sobre el crecimiento bacteriano. Además, algunos trabajos han demostrado que las bacterias intestinales expresan numerosas enzimas, hasta ahora desconocidas, que posiblemente estén relacionadas con la mejor utilización de los nutrientes de los alimentos (36).

IMPORTANCIA DEL CONSUMO DE CALCIO Y VITAMINA D DE LA LECHE EN EL DESARROLLO ÓSEO

Las recomendaciones de cualquier nutriente se establecen siempre de acuerdo a la edad y a las necesidades especí-

ficas de cada individuo. En este sentido, garantizar las necesidades del organismo dependerá no solo de la cantidad sino, además, de la calidad del nutriente que se ingiere. Los momentos clave donde hay mayor necesidad de calcio son los primeros años de vida, la pubertad y la vejez. La leche materna es sin duda el alimento completo e ideal para los primeros seis meses de vida y, a partir de este momento, junto con la alimentación complementaria, sigue siendo la principal fuente de proteína biodisponible hasta los dos años de vida; por tanto, la lactancia materna es la más recomendable durante este periodo. De no continuar con la leche materna, a partir del primer año de vida se puede incorporar la leche de vaca en la dieta del niño. Durante la pubertad se produce un crecimiento intenso y se inicia la densificación de los huesos, que permitirá, al llegar a la vida adulta, la tolerancia en el caso de las mujeres a las pérdidas características del embarazo, la lactancia y el climaterio. Alcanzar el desarrollo superior de masa ósea es fundamental, ya que se ha estimado que un aumento del 10% de dicha masa ósea óptima podría disminuir el riesgo de fracturas osteoporóticas durante la edad adulta en un 50% (37,38). Es importante hacer hincapié en que si la ingesta de calcio disminuye, el organismo utiliza el calcio óseo para mantener las concentraciones plasmáticas necesarias para su correcto funcionamiento, lo que disminuye la densidad mineral ósea y debilita los huesos, que serán más susceptibles a sufrir fracturas.

En 2016, la Fundación Nacional de Osteoporosis de Estados Unidos realizó una revisión sistemática sobre los predictores de la masa ósea máxima (39). Dicha revisión muestra fuerte evidencia sobre la relación entre la ingesta total de calcio y la masa ósea, y destaca la relación entre esta y la ingesta de lácteos como principal fuente de calcio. Dentro de los ensayos clínicos revisados, el que mostró el mayor beneficio de los lácteos fue un estudio realizado en niñas chinas que consumieron una media de 455 mg de calcio/día (40). Además, varios estudios han demostrado que un aumento en la ingesta de calcio durante la infancia, adolescencia y juventud se relaciona con una mayor ganancia de masa ósea (41,42).

La densidad de masa ósea se correlaciona positivamente con la ingesta de proteína de la leche, que es más beneficiosa para la masa ósea del cuello femoral que la proteína de carne roja o de alimentos procesados (43). Por otro lado, se ha demostrado que en niños y adolescentes, que normalmente tienen un ritmo acelerado de recambio óseo para satisfacer las necesidades del crecimiento esquelético, un alto consumo de leche suprime la secreción de hormona paratiroidea (PTH) y disminuye los niveles de marcadores de resorción ósea, a la vez que mejora el crecimiento óseo; en este caso, una alta ingesta de carne no comparte estos efectos (44). Todas estas evidencias demuestran que el consumo de productos lácteos juega un papel primordial en el correcto desarrollo óseo del individuo y ayuda a prevenir deficiencias en la vida adulta que no tienen otras alternativas para ser solucionadas (45).

En cuanto a la población adulta, aunque la masa ósea se ha formado en un 90% a los 18 años, no se alcanza el máximo hasta los 25-30 años, por lo que tener una ingesta adecuada de calcio durante esta etapa sigue siendo importante para obtener una salud ósea óptima, sobre todo en las mujeres que están en edad fértil (46). En mujeres posmenopáusicas sanas, en las que la densidad de masa ósea se correlaciona positivamente con la ingesta de leche durante la infancia y la adolescencia, la suplementación con leche también reduce los niveles de marcadores de recambio óseo (47). Finalmente, una dieta rica en leche baja en grasa también se ha asociado con la preservación de la masa ósea en personas mayores (48). El efecto de la leche o cualquier otra fuente de calcio en la ralentización del recambio óseo es particularmente marcado en las poblaciones en las que la ingesta de calcio en la dieta es baja, como por ejemplo en las personas mayores que residen en los países asiáticos (49-52). Para este tipo de poblaciones, es importante considerar la utilización de productos enriquecidos, que aportan una mayor cantidad de calcio y, por lo tanto, permiten una ingesta más adecuada sin modificar la dieta de forma significativa.

En 2014, una revisión sistemática concluyó que la suplementación con vitamina D y calcio puede prevenir las fracturas en hombres mayores y mujeres posmenopáusicas, tanto las de cadera como las fracturas nuevas no vertebrales. Sin embargo, estos autores encontraron una mayor incidencia de síntomas gastrointestinales y enfermedad renal asociados a la suplementación con vitamina D y calcio, pero no una mayor mortalidad en los sujetos suplementados (53).

EFFECTO DE LA LECHE Y DE LOS PRODUCTOS LÁCTEOS SOBRE EL CRECIMIENTO EN LA INFANCIA

Como se ha descrito previamente, los componentes de la leche, como las vitaminas, los minerales y los compuestos bioactivos, juegan un papel importante en el crecimiento, más allá de los macronutrientes que nos aportan. Las investigaciones recientes ratifican que el consumo de los productos lácteos, y en particular de las proteínas de la leche, ejerce efectos positivos en el crecimiento lineal no solo en los primeros años de vida, sino también en niños mayores, tanto sanos como durante la recuperación de una situación de malnutrición (54).

Estos estudios inciden en la importancia de vigilar el consumo de leche y productos lácteos en la infancia. En 2009, un estudio prospectivo de cohortes de niñas premenárquicas observó que, tras ocho años de seguimiento, las niñas que bebían más de 750 ml de leche al día (tres vasos) desde los diez años hasta la edad adulta tuvieron un aumento neto en la altura adulta de 2,3 cm más que las niñas que bebían menos de 250 ml de leche al día (un vaso) (55). En 2012, un metaanálisis que revisó 12 estudios clínicos aleatorizados realizados en niños de 3-13 años de distintas razas y culturas encontró un efecto positivo de la ingesta de productos lácteos en el crecimiento lineal (0,4 cm/año por ración diaria de 245 ml de leche) (56). Este trabajo concluyó que la leche *per se* podría tener un efecto mayor sobre el crecimiento que otros productos lácteos. Además, otros factores, como tener una menor estatura que la correspondiente a la edad y ser adolescente, también aumentaron el efecto de la leche en la ganancia de talla. Así pues, tanto los estudios observacionales como los experimentales han evidenciado que los productos lácteos afectan positivamente al crecimiento lineal. Este efecto se ha atribuido a la presencia no solo de calcio, sino también de otros minerales, como el zinc o los péptidos bioactivos, que se encuentran tanto asociados a la caseína como en el suero, y al factor de crecimiento similar a la insulina (IGF), que está presente exclusivamente en la leche y sus derivados (32).

BIODISPONIBILIDAD DEL CALCIO EN LA LECHE Y OTROS ALIMENTOS

La concentración del calcio en los alimentos tiene un amplio rango de valores. La principal fuente de calcio en la dieta es la leche y sus derivados y, en segundo lugar, las verduras de hoja verde, frutas y legumbres. La leche líquida contiene una media de 124 mg/100 g, los quesos contienen más de 1 g de calcio por 100 g de alimento y la mantequilla es el alimento derivado de la leche que presenta un contenido menor de calcio (15 mg/100 g) (32). Las verduras de hoja verde son una fuente importante de calcio, que aportan 400 mg/día junto con otros nutrimentos esenciales para el adecuado funcionamiento del organismo. Existen diferentes hierbas aromáticas con alto contenido de calcio, tales como la albahaca, el tomillo y el eneldo, así como especias como la canela; sin embargo, estas se consumen en pocas cantidades

y contribuyen poco a satisfacer las IDR. Además, existen alimentos de origen vegetal, como los frutos secos (almendras, avellanas) y algunas verduras (col rizada y espinacas, entre otras) y leguminosas (alubias) con un alto aporte de calcio, que también son consumidas en pequeñas raciones, por lo que por sí solas no pueden satisfacer las IDR de calcio (57). Asimismo, no debemos olvidar que el agua y los complementos alimenticios también pueden aportar pequeñas cantidades de calcio. Finalmente, en el mercado podemos encontrar algunos alimentos fortificados o enriquecidos con calcio, como la leche y los cereales, cuyo objetivo es lograr un mayor aporte de calcio en la dieta sin modificarla sustancialmente, y sin incrementar la ingesta de otros macronutrientes ni la ingesta calórica.

Por otro lado, para cubrir las recomendaciones de calcio, no solo se requiere de alimentos que contengan este mineral, sino que, además, el calcio esté biodisponible, es decir, que pueda ser absorbido en el intestino y, por lo tanto, ser utilizado para las funciones fisiológicas. La absorción intestinal del calcio dietético puede oscilar entre el 20% y el 75%, dependiendo de la cantidad, de la forma química en la que se encuentre, de la matriz del alimento y de la presencia de otros componentes en el alimento como la lactosa y ciertos aminoácidos que facilitan su absorción. Además, la edad del individuo también afecta esta biodisponibilidad (58). Otros agentes que favorecen la absorción de calcio son: la vitamina D (59), algunas hormonas como los estrógenos y la hormona de crecimiento, así como la actividad física regular, la cual debe tenerse en cuenta al establecer las IDR de este mineral (60). Dentro de los factores que limitan la absorción de calcio se pueden mencionar la deficiencia de vitamina D, la presencia de oxalatos, fitatos, fosfatos y grasas no absorbidas, entre otros componentes que forman sales insolubles en la luz intestinal, una inadecuada relación calcio/fósforo en la dieta (la correcta en el adulto es de entre 2/1 y 1/1), el exceso de sodio y el consumo de café mayor a 90 mg/día (sobre todo en adolescentes) y de otras bebidas con elevado contenido de bases xántricas, que provocan hipercalciuria y aumentan la eliminación fecal de calcio (32,58,59).

La leche es una excelente fuente de calcio no solo por la cantidad contenida, sino también porque su composición en nutrientes favorece su absorción, ya que algunos generan sinergia con el calcio favoreciendo su absorción. Entre ellos, la lactosa de la leche facilita la absorción intestinal del calcio, y la vitamina D, también presente en este alimento, es necesaria para su absorción intestinal por transporte activo (32,35,36). Los caseína-fosfopéptidos formados por digestión proteolítica de la caseína láctea aumentan la absorción intestinal de calcio al formar complejos solubles. Considerando estos factores de composición, se concluye que los lácteos constituyen una excelente fuente de calcio, con mejor biodisponibilidad que el resto de los alimentos (58,59). Otros datos ponen de manifiesto las diferencias entre el valor de distintos alimentos vegetales como fuentes de calcio; es decir, mientras que algunos frutos secos son capaces de proporcionar calcio con buena biodisponibilidad, otros alimentos vegetales no son buenas fuentes por la presencia de oxalatos que forman oxalatos cálcicos poco solubles y, en consecuencia, poco absorbibles (61).

La dieta también ofrece otros alimentos que contienen calcio en distintas cantidades y con distinta biodisponibilidad. La tabla I resume los alimentos que contienen más cantidad de calcio y su fracción absorbible, así como las raciones (los gramos y las calorías contenidas) de dichos alimentos que necesitaríamos ingerir para conseguir el mismo aporte de calcio que nos facilita una ración de leche. Por ejemplo, en una dieta sin consumo de productos lácteos en la que se quisiera cubrir la IDR (1000 mg/día) con frutos secos se requerirían aproximadamente 412 g de almendras tostadas, las cuales nos aportarían 2.430 kcal, que además de ser suficientes para cubrir la IDR de energía total en un adulto, que oscila entre 2.400 y 3.000 kcal/día, nos aportarían 218 g de grasa, lo que supera el 30% de lo recomendado en una dieta equilibrada. Esto generaría un desequilibrio energético que podría aumentar el riesgo de padecer sobrepeso y obesidad (60). Se precisaría un gasto energético adicional de actividad física intensa de cuatro horas para lograr eliminar ese exceso de energía consumida.

Considerando la biodisponibilidad del calcio en cada alimento podemos evidenciar la relevancia de la calidad y cantidad de este elemento. La biodisponibilidad del calcio está determinada por la relación ácido oxálico/calcio, siendo esta especialmente desfavorable en alimentos como el ruibarbo, las espinacas, las patatas y el té. Por ejemplo, las hojas verdes de espinaca contienen calcio menos biodisponible, ya que la presencia de ácido oxálico disminuye su absorción hasta un 5-10% (60,61). Si quisiéramos cubrir la recomendación de calcio (1.000 mg/día) solo con este tipo de alimento, un adulto tendría que ingerir aproximadamente 7 kg de espinacas en un día. Por otro lado, las leguminosas, los cereales y las oleaginosas contienen calcio junto con ácido fítico, que es un éter hexafosfórico del ciclohexanol que forma sales al interactuar con diversos metales. Si el metal es divalente, como el calcio, da lugar a sales insolubles que lo secuestran (un gramo de ácido fítico secuestra un gramo de calcio), lo que provoca la pérdida de calcio por las heces. Por estos motivos, resulta realmente difícil alcanzar una ingesta suficiente de calcio a partir de una dieta vegetariana de tipo occidental (61), a no ser que sea diseñada de manera muy específica y se utilicen alimentos enriquecidos o suplementos alimenticios. Por tanto, lo más adecuado es ingerir una dieta equilibrada en la que se incluya la leche, y que contribuya a las IDR tanto de micronutrientes como de macronutrientes requeridos por el organismo. Para el caso de los grupos de población en los que la ingesta de productos lácteos o de alimentos en general es baja, se recomienda la ingesta de productos enriquecidos para evitar carencias, entre los cuales el más adecuado para el caso del calcio es la leche enriquecida, por sus beneficios sobre la biodisponibilidad de este mineral. De hecho, en una revisión sistemática y metaanálisis reciente, en la que se incluyen 20 estudios con 37.124 participantes, se demuestra un aumento de fracturas en veganos y pérdida de densidad ósea en vegetarianos en comparación con omnívoros (62). Este estudio pone de manifiesto la dificultad que entraña alcanzar una absorción de calcio apropiada, sin manifestaciones negativas funcionales, en base a alimentos vegetales ricos en calcio.

Tabla I. Fuentes dietéticas de calcio, proporción absorbible por ración de alimento y raciones equivalentes que aportan la cantidad de calcio absorbido de una ración de leche

Alimento	Ración (g)	Contenido de Ca (mg)	mg de Ca absorbible estimado (% absorbible)	Gramos de alimento que aportan la cantidad de calcio absorbible de una ración de leche (ración equivalente)	kcal por ración equivalente
<i>Leche de vaca</i>					
Entera	250	312,5*	96,3 (32,1%)	250 g (1 ración)	162,5
Entera enriquecida	250	400*	128,4 (32,1%)	187,5 g (0,78 raciones)	162,5
Semidesnatada	250	312,5*	96,3 (32,1%)	250 g (1 ración)	87,75
Semidesnatada enriquecida	250	400*	128,4 (32,1%)	187,5 g (0,78 raciones)	87,75
Desnatada	250	312,5*	96,3 (32,1%)	250 g (1 ración)	66,3
Desnatada enriquecida	250	400*	128,4 (32,1%)	187,5 g (0,78 raciones)	66,3
Queso <i>cheddar</i>	42	303	97,2 (32,1%)	42 g (1 ración)	170
Yogur natural desnatado	240	336	96,3 (32,1%)	240 g (1 ración)	110,4
Tofu con calcio	126	258	80,0 (31,0%)	151 g (1,2 raciones)	179,7
Almendras tostadas	85	206	43,0 (21,0%)	196 g (2,3 raciones)	1156,4
Col rizada	85	61	30,1 (49,3%)	272 g (3,2 raciones)	92,5
Alubia blanca	110	113	24,7 (21,8%)	429 g (3,9 raciones)	1166,8
Brócoli	71	35	21,5 (61,3%)	320 g (4,5 raciones)	83,2
Sésamo	59	89	19,0 (21,0%)	312,7 g (5,3 raciones)	1757,3
Pan integral	28	20	17,0 (82,0%)	162,4 g (5,8 raciones)	407,6
Alubia pinta	86	44	11,9 (26,7%)	696,6 g (8,1 raciones)	330,2
Alubia roja	172	40	9,9 (24,4%)	1668,4 g (9,7 raciones)	660,5
Boniato	164	44	9,8 (22,2%)	1607,2 g (9,8 raciones)	1623,2
Cereal de salvado de trigo	28	20	8 (38,0%)	358,4 g (12,8 raciones)	956,9
Espinacas	85	115	5,9 (5,1%)	1385,5 g (16,3 raciones)	304,8

*Los valores están expresados en mg/250 ml de producto, que equivale a una taza de leche (una porción). Fuente: tabla de composición de alimentos. Ortega y cols., 2014.

COMPOSICIÓN DE BEBIDAS SUSTITUTIVAS DE LECHE

De forma paralela a la disminución del consumo actual de leche, han surgido otras bebidas vegetales, mal llamadas “leches vegetales”, como sustitutivos de la leche animal, que no son capaces de igualarla en cuanto a composición nutricional, pero que la población ha asumido como tal y ha optado por consumir en lugar de la leche de origen animal. A no ser que sean preparados enriquecidos, estos productos contienen menos cantidad de calcio, pero, además, hay que tener en cuenta que este se encuentra en una forma menos biodisponible que el presente en la leche de origen animal. De hecho, el consumo de este tipo de productos ha dado lugar a la disminución de la ingesta de calcio y vitamina D y, como consecuencia, al aumento de enfermedades hormonales ocasionadas por la deficiencia de estos micronutrientes (63).

En el caso de estas bebidas vegetales, la gran mayoría del calcio es añadido y no está asociado a proteínas, por lo que su biodisponibilidad es muy inferior. Por otro lado, estas bebidas no siempre están enriquecidas con vitamina D, que facilitaría la absorción del calcio, algo que sí es habitual en la leche, sobre todo en la desnatada y semidesnatada, que normalmente están enriquecidas con esta

vitamina a una concentración que oscila entre 0,75 y 1,5 µg/100 ml. Además, tampoco contienen lactosa, otro de los componentes de la leche que favorece la biodisponibilidad del calcio (63). Finalmente, como se ha mencionado anteriormente, algunos vegetales, como las leguminosas, pueden contener fitatos, que disminuyen la biodisponibilidad del calcio y que estarán presentes en esas bebidas vegetales, por lo que no pueden ser equiparables a la leche como fuente dietética de calcio (64).

LECHES ENRIQUECIDAS CON CALCIO

Los alimentos enriquecidos son productos en los cuales se modifica la composición mediante la adición de un nutriente o componente no contenido inicialmente en el alimento, o contenido en cantidades menores (65). Concretamente, la leche es un excelente vehículo de nutrientes que permite ser enriquecida fácilmente gracias a sus propiedades físico-químicas (66). Como se ha mencionado previamente, es difícil alcanzar las IDR de calcio y vitamina D únicamente con fuentes dietéticas habituales (10,17) y este déficit es especialmente preocupante en determinados grupos de población en los que

las recomendaciones son más altas (67-69). En este sentido, una de las propuestas de la industria alimentaria ha sido el enriquecimiento de los alimentos en estos micronutrientes como posible solución a la hora de aportar más calcio en la dieta. De acuerdo a la información procedente del Panel de Consumo Alimentario del Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca, Alimentación y Medio Ambiente (Mapama) (7) y la valoración nutricional que conjuntamente realiza la Fundación Española de Nutrición (FEN) (11) con respecto a la disponibilidad y el consumo de alimentos en la población española, los productos lácteos son los que representan el mayor porcentaje de alimentos enriquecidos en calcio y vitamina D tanto en el mercado español como en el mercado internacional. La tabla II incluye la cantidad de calcio y vitamina D aportada por las principales leches enriquecidas del mercado español. La tabla III compara la contribución (%) a la ingesta diaria de calcio por ración de leche de vaca semidesnatada y de leche semidesnatada enriquecida a las IDR de calcio por edades y según autores. De hecho, estos productos proporcionan un efecto beneficioso para la salud, intentando mantener una dieta equilibrada, saludable y preventiva y adaptándose a las necesidades de la sociedad actual, por lo que podrían ser consideradas como un alimento funcional (65-70). En la actualidad, en la mayoría de los casos, el calcio adicionado a las leches enriquecidas es de origen lácteo, lo que se conoce como “calcio natural”, que facilita una absorción más adecuada de este mineral y, por tanto, un mayor efecto sobre la salud. A pesar de que todas estas leches están enriquecidas con calcio y vitamina D, se aprecian grandes variaciones en las cantidades que llevan añadidas (Tabla II). Además, es inte-

resante indicar que no todas las formas de enriquecer la leche permiten la misma biodisponibilidad de este mineral.

Hasta la fecha, se han realizado diversos estudios para evaluar el efecto del enriquecimiento de calcio y vitamina D en diferentes grupos poblacionales. En primer lugar, se evaluó la absorción del calcio de una leche control (semidesnatada) comparándola con distintas leches enriquecidas con calcio en adultos. Este estudio comparó una leche enriquecida con calcio procedente de sólidos lácteos y fosfato tricálcico, una leche enriquecida con calcio procedente de leche concentrada, una leche semidesnatada a la que se le añadieron fructooligosacáridos y una leche semidesnatada a la que se le añadieron fosfopéptidos de caseína. Los resultados mostraron una mayor absorción de calcio en la leche enriquecida con fosfato tricálcico en comparación con el grupo control, mientras que la adición de fructooligosacáridos y caseína-fosfopéptidos no influyó significativamente en la absorción de este mineral (70).

En 2016, Whiting y cols. revisaron los resultados de los 15 estudios realizados hasta ese momento para evaluar el impacto del consumo de alimentos fortificados y sus posibles efectos beneficiosos sobre la salud ósea (71). La mayoría de los estudios utilizan como alimentos fortificados leche o derivados lácteos, que se consideran la mejor vía de administración de calcio. Estos autores encontraron evidencias que demuestran que la fortificación con calcio y vitamina D mejora sustancialmente el recambio óseo, aumentando la densidad y la fuerza de los huesos en adultos mayores y en mujeres posmenopáusicas, mientras que el efecto no resultaba significativo en adultos menores de 50 años. Además, el enriquecimiento con otros nutrientes no provocaba

Tabla II. Aporte de calcio y vitamina D por ración de 250 ml de las distintas leches semidesnatadas y desnatadas enriquecidas con calcio más consumidas en España

Marca	Leche semidesnatada enriquecida		Leche desnatada enriquecida	
	Calcio (mg/250 ml)	Vitamina D (µg/250 ml)	Calcio (mg/250 ml)	Vitamina D (µg/250 ml)
Asturiana	400	2,5	400	2,5
Auchan (Alcampo)	400	nd	400	nd
Buen Pastor	400	nd	400	nd
Carrefour	400	1,87	400	1,87
Covap	400	1,87	400	1,87
DÍA	400	1,87	275	2
El Corte Inglés	400	2	275	2
Gaza	400	1,87	300	nd
Hacendado	400	1,87	275	1,87
Kaiku	400	1,87	275	1,87
Leyma	375	nd	nd	nd
Milbona (Lidl)	375	1,87	400	1,87
Milsani (Aldi)	300	nd	nd	nd
Pascual	400	2	400	2
Puleva	450	3,75	450	3,75

nd: no declarado.

Tabla III. Contribución (%) a la ingesta diaria de calcio por vaso de leche de vaca semidesnatada (250 ml, 312,5 mg de calcio) y por vaso de leche semidesnatada enriquecida (250 ml, 400 mg de calcio) a las IDR de calcio por edades

IDR (Moreiras y cols., 2016)			IDR (EFSA, 2016)		
Edad	Leche clásica	Leche enriquecida	Edad	Leche clásica	Leche enriquecida
Niños y niñas					
0-6 meses	78,1%	100%			
7-12 meses	59,5%	76,19%	7-11 meses	69,4%	88,8%
2-3	52%	66,6%	1-3	39,06%	50%
4-5	64%	57,14%	4-10	39,06%	50%
6-9	39%	50%			
Hombres					
10-12	24,03%	30,76%			
13-15	24,03%	30,76%			
16-19	24,03%	30,76%	18-24 años	31,25%	40%
20-39	31,25%	40%	≥ 25 años	32,8%	42,10%
40-49	31,25%	40%			
50-59	31,25%	40%			
60 y más	31,25%	40%			
Mujeres					
10-12	24,03%	30,76%			
13-15	24,03%	30,76%			
16-19	24,03%	30,76%	18-24 años*	31,25%	40%
20-39	31,25%	40%	≥ 25 años*	32,8%	42,10%
40-49	31,25%	40%			
50-59	26,04%	33,33%			
≥ 60	26,04%	33,33%			
Embarazo (2.ª mitad)	26,04%	30,76%	Embarazo	31,25%	40%
Lactancia	26,04%	30,76%	Lactancia	31,25%	40%

*Incluye embarazo y lactancia; se asume una síntesis cutánea mínima de vitamina D. Fuente: adaptado de EFSA, 2012 (17); EFSA, 2015 (18); EFSA, 2016 (19).

los mismos efectos beneficiosos. Estos efectos pueden interpretarse como beneficiosos para la prevención de osteoporosis y fracturas ocasionadas por el aumento de la fragilidad durante el envejecimiento. Sin embargo, dada la disparidad en cuanto a los diseños experimentales, se necesitan más estudios para examinar los efectos de la adición de calcio y vitamina D para la salud ósea (71).

Posteriormente, el estudio EFICALCIO ha evaluado el efecto del consumo diario de 500 ml de leche enriquecida en calcio y vitamina D con o sin fructooligosacáridos durante un año y su efecto sobre las concentraciones plasmáticas de vitamina D, parámetros óseos y riesgo metabólico y cardiovascular en mujeres posmenopáusicas sanas. Este estudio ha concluido que la intervención nutricional con dos vasos de leche enriquecida con 1.800 mg/l

de calcio y 1.200 UI/l de vitamina D₃ mejora las concentraciones plasmáticas de vitamina D e induce cambios favorables en la masa ósea, en el perfil lipídico y en la homeostasis de la glucosa (72).

Por lo tanto, las investigaciones realizadas hasta la fecha demuestran los beneficios de la suplementación con leche enriquecida en grupos de población vulnerables, como las personas mayores y mujeres posmenopáusicas, ya que, como se ha mencionado anteriormente, la deficiencia de calcio puede traer consigo diversas consecuencias para la salud. Sin embargo, es necesario realizar más estudios en este campo que incluyan a otros grupos poblacionales y otras patologías asociadas a la deficiencia de calcio para demostrar la importancia de incorporar productos lácteos enriquecidos en calcio y vitamina D en personas con bajas ingestas de estos alimentos.

ALTERACIONES OCASIONADAS POR LA INGESTA DE LECHE. MITOS Y REALIDADES

A pesar del gran volumen y calidad de estudios científicos que avalan los beneficios para la salud del consumo de leche y derivados lácteos, la fuerte controversia que existe actualmente sobre los efectos negativos del consumo de leche de vaca está basada en que cada vez más personas afirman que el cuerpo humano no está diseñado para manejar una dieta con un alto contenido de calcio, que no hay una adaptación fisiológica para el consumo de leche de vaca y que, además, somos los únicos mamíferos que continuamos consumiendo leche después del destete. Estos argumentos pierden todo su valor al considerar que la dieta actual está compuesta por alimentos que, en su mayoría, los antepasados prehistóricos desconocían y que, además, ningún otro animal aprendió a domesticar y ordeñar a las vacas. La incorporación de la leche de vaca en la dieta humana ha permitido, junto con otros factores, como el desarrollo de medicamentos, mejorar la calidad y la esperanza de vida. No existe evidencia científica que valide la eliminación de un alimento ampliamente consumido como es la leche de vaca, principalmente en los grupos vulnerables como los niños, adolescentes, personas mayores y mujeres en climaterio.

Recientemente, se han publicado dos estudios que comparan la ingesta de nutrientes en personas vegetarianas y no vegetarianas (73,74), aunque los resultados no son del todo coincidentes. La Investigación Europea sobre el Cáncer y la Nutrición (Estudio EPIC) examinó la ingesta de 33 883 individuos carnívoros, 10 110 individuos que comían pescado, 18 840 vegetarianos y 2596 veganos en el Reino Unido. Este estudio concluye que los individuos veganos tuvieron la ingesta más alta de vitamina C y magnesio y la ingesta más baja de vitamina B₁₂, vitamina D, calcio y zinc (73). El segundo estudio comparó la ingesta de nutrientes de diferentes grupos de adultos de Estados Unidos y Canadá e incluyó 33 634 carnívoros, 21 799 lactoovovegetarianos y 5694 veganos. El estudio concluyó que la ingesta de nutrientes no solo está definida por el patrón alimentario, sino también por el lugar de origen y varía mucho entre distintos grupos de población. Se observa que los lactoovovegetarianos no tienen déficit de vitamina D; sin embargo, los veganos tuvieron una ingesta significativamente menor de vitamina D (74). Estos factores pueden influir en la absorción del calcio. De hecho, a pesar de que los factores dietéticos y la concienciación de muchos vegetarianos a llevar un estilo de vida activo puede promover la salud ósea, hay evidencia de que el vegetarianismo está asociado con varios factores que pueden tener un impacto perjudicial sobre la salud ósea, es decir, un índice de masa corporal menor (75) y una ingesta potencialmente baja de vitamina B₁₂ (76), calcio (73,75) y vitamina D (77-79). Por tanto, es importante considerar las posibles deficiencias que podrían ocasionar este tipo de dietas en la población y las posibles complicaciones de la salud asociadas.

La composición de la leche es muy compleja y contiene moléculas inmunes activas, oligosacáridos, metabolitos y vitaminas, así como una microbiota asociada. Algunos estudios sugieren que la modulación de la composición de la leche tiene potencial para prevenir enfermedades alérgicas, aunque pueda ser causa del desarrollo de las mismas (80). Una de estas es la intolerancia a la lactosa, originada por la falta de producción de la enzima lactasa secretada

por el intestino delgado, y se traduce en una insuficiente capacidad para digerir la lactosa (81). La lactosa es el principal carbohidrato en la leche humana de los mamíferos y requiere de su hidrólisis enzimática por lactasa antes que pueda ser absorbida como D-glucosa y D-galactosa. En muchas poblaciones donde la dieta no incluye lácteos, los niveles de lactasa disminuyen después del destete. La intolerancia a la lactosa afecta al 70% de la población mundial (81), pero la prevalencia varía mucho dependiendo de cada población concreta. En las zonas geográficas en las que tradicionalmente la ingesta de leche es mayor, predominan los genotipos de la lactasa que facilitan su digestión, mientras que en las zonas donde la leche no forma parte de la dieta de manera habitual, predominan las variantes génicas que codifican una enzima poco eficaz y predisponen a la intolerancia (82). Este problema provoca una serie de síntomas gastrointestinales como dolor abdominal y diarrea, entre otros, que también son característicos en otras patologías, lo que puede llegar a confundir y a que no se identifique correctamente. Esta confusión ha dado lugar a que muchas personas "mal informadas" se auto-diagnostiquen y dejen de consumir leche o consuman leche sin lactosa sin un motivo adecuado. Recientemente, se ha puesto de manifiesto que algunas intolerancias no se deben ni al gluten ni a la lactosa, sino a otras moléculas como fructanos (83). Otro problema añadido es que los sujetos sin intolerancia que dejan de consumir leche podrían desarrollar este problema al no persistir el estímulo y disminuir la expresión de los genes codificadores de la enzima (82). Además, se ha demostrado que sujetos con intolerancia podrían consumir hasta 100 ml de leche sin desarrollar síntomas de la enfermedad (81). En este tipo de personas las leches enriquecidas son importantes, ya que podrían aportarles más cantidad de calcio y vitamina D y contribuir a su buen estado de salud ósea. De hecho, la ingesta de 100 ml de estas leches les aportaría 160 mg de calcio (o con más, en algunos casos), sin llegar a ocasionarles ninguna sintomatología. Asimismo, hay que mencionar que actualmente existen en el mercado lácteos sin lactosa enriquecidos en calcio para aquellos que presenten intolerancia total.

Un tema de constante discusión en la actualidad es la creencia de que el consumo de leche aumenta el riesgo de sufrir cáncer. En este sentido, los investigadores de la American Cancer Society realizaron un análisis de los datos obtenidos en una cohorte y observaron que una mayor ingesta de calcio, vitamina D y productos lácteos se asociaba con una menor incidencia de cáncer colorrectal (15). Es de destacar que los pacientes en el cuartil más alto de la ingesta total de calcio en este análisis tenían más probabilidades de tener un índice de masa corporal normal, ser más activos físicamente, consumir menos calorías y comer más frutas y verduras, alimentos ricos en folato, granos integrales y menos carne roja y procesada. Este estudio concluye que no debemos dejar de considerar siempre la dieta equilibrada y completa como aquella que incluye productos lácteos, como se ha venido recomendando (15).

CONCLUSIONES

1. El consumo de leche está disminuyendo de forma progresiva motivado por diversas causas.

2. Como consecuencia del bajo consumo de leche, un alto porcentaje de la población española no alcanza las actuales recomendaciones de ingesta de calcio ni de vitamina D.
3. Es necesario insistir en los riesgos asociados a corto y medio plazo que la baja ingesta de calcio y vitamina D tiene para la salud.
4. La leche y los productos lácteos contienen cantidades de calcio biodisponible adecuadas para satisfacer las IDR de este mineral. No existe otro alimento que proporcione estas cantidades.
5. Las bebidas vegetales no deben consumirse como sustitutos de la leche, ya que no son comparables nutricionalmente y, por tanto, no son fuentes de elección de calcio ni vitamina D, y no pueden satisfacer las necesidades nutricionales de estos micronutrientes.
6. Las leches enriquecidas con calcio y vitamina D son alimentos de elección para determinados grupos de población que no llegan a consumir las cantidades necesarias para satisfacer las IDR de estos micronutrientes sin necesidad de modificar su patrón dietético.

Así pues, la leche y sus derivados son alimentos insustituibles dentro de una dieta equilibrada, ya que nos aportan micronutrientes, como el calcio y la vitamina D, que no están presentes en otros alimentos en las cantidades y con la biodisponibilidad necesarias para poder satisfacer los requerimientos nutricionales que nos debe aportar una dieta equilibrada. Los productos lácteos enriquecidos permiten aumentar la ingesta de estos micronutrientes con una alta biodisponibilidad, sin necesidad de modificar la dieta, lo que resulta beneficioso para el mantenimiento de la salud.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Artículo Especial

Declaración de Cartagena. Declaración Internacional sobre el Derecho al Cuidado Nutricional y la Lucha contra la Malnutrición

Cartagena Declaration. The International Declaration on the Right to Nutritional Care and the Fight against Malnutrition

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Resumen

Frente a la necesidad de promover el derecho al cuidado nutricional, de luchar contra la malnutrición y de avanzar en temas de educación e investigación en nutrición clínica, las sociedades que constituyen la FELANPE firmaron la Declaración Internacional sobre el Derecho al Cuidado Nutricional y la Lucha contra la Malnutrición, "Declaración de Cartagena", el 3 de mayo del presente año en la ciudad de Cartagena, en el marco del 33º Congreso de la Asociación Colombiana de Nutrición Clínica.

La Declaración proporciona un marco coherente de 13 principios, los cuales podrán servir de guía a las sociedades afiliadas a la FELANPE en el desarrollo de los planes de acción. Además, servirá como un instrumento para que promuevan, a través de los gobiernos, la formulación de políticas y legislaciones en el campo de la nutrición clínica. Consideramos que el marco general de principios propuesto por la Declaración puede contribuir a crear conciencia acerca de la magnitud de este problema y a forjar redes de cooperación entre los países de la región. Aunque esta Declaración no tiene un efecto jurídico vinculante (obligatorio), tiene una fuerza moral innegable y puede proporcionar orientación práctica a los estados. Un plan de implementación permitirá desarrollar la caja de herramientas necesaria para transformar los principios en acciones.

Palabras clave:

Malnutrición. Cuidado nutricional. Derecho a la alimentación. Derecho a la salud.

Abstract

The need to promote the right to nutritional care, to fight against malnutrition and to advance in education and research in clinical nutrition has led all the FELANPE's societies to sign on May 3rd, during the 33rd Congress of the Colombian Clinical Nutrition Association (ACNC) in the city of Cartagena, the International Declaration on the Right to Nutritional Care and the Fight against Malnutrition, "Declaration of Cartagena". The Declaration provides a coherent framework of 13 principles which can serve as a guide for societies, schools and associations affiliated to FELANPE in the development of action plans. In addition, it will serve as an instrument to promote, through governments, the formulation of policies and legislation in the field of clinical nutrition.

We believe that the general framework of principles proposed by the Declaration can contribute to raise awareness about the magnitude of this problem and to promote cooperation networks among Latin-American countries. Although this Declaration does not have a binding legal effect, it has an undeniable moral strength and it can provide practical guidance to States. An implementation program will allow developing a toolkit to transform principles into actions.

Key words:

Malnutrition. Right to health. Right to food. Right to nutritional care.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El pasado 3 de mayo de 2019, en la ciudad de Cartagena, Colombia, las 16 sociedades Iberoamericanas de la Federación Latinoamericana de Terapia Nutricional, Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo (FELANPE), tras firmar la Declaración de Cartagena, se comprometieron a defender el derecho al cuidado nutricional y a luchar contra la malnutrición. Se trata de un instrumento no vinculante (que no obliga) con una fuerza moral innegable, el cual compromete a las partes a aunar esfuerzos en esta lucha común (1). La Declaración de Cartagena tiene como antecedente la Declaración de Cancún de 2008, que hace referencia por primera vez al derecho a la nutrición en el hospital en Latinoamérica (2). Además, se fundamenta en los instrumentos internacionales de derechos humanos y de bioética (la Declaración Universal de Derechos Humanos, el Pacto Internacional de Derechos Económicos, Sociales y Culturales, Declaración de Bioética y Derechos Humanos de la UNESCO), los cuales proporcionan una base sólida para sus objetivos.

La Declaración de Cartagena busca, a través de 13 principios, proporcionar un marco de referencia para promover el desarrollo del cuidado nutricional en el ámbito clínico que permita que todas las personas enfermas reciban terapia nutricional en condiciones de dignidad. Servirá también como un instrumento para que las sociedades miembros de la FELANPE y todas las instituciones que trabajan por el cuidado nutricional promuevan, a través de los gobiernos, la formulación de políticas y legislaciones en el campo de la nutrición clínica. Se pretende que el marco general de principios ayude a crear conciencia acerca de la magnitud de este problema y a forjar redes de cooperación.

Al firmar la Declaración de Cartagena, las sociedades de FELANPE se comprometieron a elevar el cuidado nutricional al rango de un derecho humano emergente estrechamente relacionado con el derecho a la alimentación y el derecho a la salud. Reconocer el cuidado nutricional como derecho humano se justifica en el hecho de que el derecho a la alimentación no puede entenderse ni aplicarse de la misma manera en el contexto clínico, razón por la cual este derecho es violado con frecuencia (3). Respetar el derecho al cuidado nutricional puede contribuir al disfrute de otros derechos humanos como el derecho a la salud, el derecho a la alimentación y el derecho a la vida. En consecuencia, violar el derecho al cuidado nutricional puede perturbar el disfrute de esos otros derechos. Además, el derecho al cuidado nutricional busca proteger especialmente a los pacientes con riesgo nutricional o en estado de desnutrición. Este grupo debe considerarse como un "grupo vulnerable" debido al impacto biológico, psicológico, económico y social de la desnutrición y al hecho de que la desnutrición relacionada con la enfermedad es una condición con frecuencia ignorada.

Reconocer que todas las personas tienen derecho a recibir cuidado nutricional es un gran avance en la nutrición clínica. El enfoque basado en los derechos humanos en este campo debería ayudar a identificar las principales prioridades y objetivos para luchar contra la desnutrición e implementar una atención nutricional óptima para todos. De acuerdo con este enfoque, se ha definido un plan de ejecución que deberá desarrollarse en los próximos años.

Así, lanzamos un llamado global para unirnos en la lucha contra la malnutrición y el respeto del derecho al cuidado nutricional. Esto implica reconocer el decimotercer principio de la Declaración: "La FELANPE insta a los estados y al Consejo de Derechos Humanos de las Naciones Unidas a reconocer la presente Declaración y por lo tanto, el derecho al cuidado nutricional como un derecho humano, y a que se garantice a todas las personas, especialmente a los enfermos con o en riesgo de desnutrición, acceso al cuidado nutricional y en particular a la terapia nutricional óptima y oportuna, con el fin de, entre otros, reducir las elevadas tasas de desnutrición hospitalaria y de morbilidad asociadas" (1).

DECLARACIÓN DE CARTAGENA

DECLARACIÓN INTERNACIONAL SOBRE EL DERECHO AL CUIDADO NUTRICIONAL Y LA LUCHA CONTRA LA MALNUTRICIÓN

Aprobada el 3 de mayo de 2019 en el marco del 33º Congreso Colombiano de Metabolismo y Nutrición Clínica, IV Congreso Regional Andino-Región Centro de la Federación Latinoamericana de Terapia Nutricional, Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo, FELANPE, durante su asamblea extraordinaria.

La Asamblea,

Reconociendo que las sociedades, colegios y asociaciones afiliadas a la FELANPE han unido esfuerzos desde su creación para promover la investigación, la educación y la formación de profesionales en Nutrición Clínica, y colaborar, si fuese requerido, con los poderes públicos en la evaluación y solución de los problemas relativos a la nutrición clínica;

Retomando la Declaración Internacional de Cancún, 2008, sobre el derecho a la nutrición en los hospitales, donde por primera vez los presidentes de las sociedades, colegios y asociaciones de la FELANPE declararon su voluntad de elevar al nivel de derecho humano básico la nutrición en los hospitales;

Invocando el artículo 25 de la Declaración Universal de Derechos Humanos de 10 de diciembre de 1948, donde se establece que "toda persona tiene derecho a un nivel de vida adecuado que le asegure, así como a su familia, la salud y el bienestar, y en especial la alimentación [...]", y el artículo 11 del Pacto Internacional de Derechos Económicos, Sociales y Culturales (PIDESC), en la cual se estipula que los estados partes "reconocen el derecho de toda persona a un nivel de vida adecuado para sí y su familia, incluso alimentación [adecuada]" y se afirma la existencia del "derecho fundamental de toda persona a estar protegida contra el hambre";

Citando el artículo 12 del Pacto Internacional de Derechos Económicos, Sociales y Culturales, en particular la observación general nº 14 sobre el derecho al disfrute del más alto nivel posible de salud y se reconoce que "el derecho a la salud abarca

amplia gama de factores socioeconómicos que promueven las condiciones merced a las cuales las personas pueden llevar una vida sana, y hace ese derecho extensivo a los factores determinantes básicos de la salud, como la alimentación y la nutrición”;

Reconociendo que el cuidado nutricional es un derecho humano emergente relacionado con el derecho a la salud y el derecho a la alimentación;

Considerando que el derecho a la alimentación debe ser respetado en todos los ámbitos, incluso en el clínico, y que la persona enferma debe ser alimentada en condiciones de dignidad y tiene el derecho fundamental a no padecer hambre;

Teniendo en cuenta que el derecho a la alimentación con frecuencia es irrespetado en el ámbito clínico, lo que tiene como consecuencia un número inaceptable de personas con malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad;

Reconociendo que la malnutrición de los pacientes hospitalizados se asocia a estancias hospitalarias prolongadas, menor calidad de vida, mayor comorbilidad y costos innecesarios en salud;

Destacando que los adelantos de la ciencia y la tecnología permiten hoy alimentar en forma natural o artificial a cualquier persona enferma y luchar en forma activa contra la malnutrición;

Convencidos de que una adecuada terapia nutricional puede corregir la malnutrición, mejorar el pronóstico de las enfermedades y la calidad de vida, disminuir las comorbilidades, la mortalidad y los costos en salud;

Conscientes de la necesidad de buscar, mediante la aplicación de las ciencias básicas, clínicas y de salud pública, soluciones nutricionales cada vez más eficaces;

Conocedores de que la terapia nutricional puede tener efectos secundarios y escasa efectividad en algunos pacientes, como aquellos en estado hipercatabólico, o cuando no es administrada de manera oportuna y adecuada;

Convencidos de la necesidad de hacer un llamado a los investigadores, a entidades académicas y a la industria farmacéutica sobre la importancia de promover la investigación en nutrición clínica bajo un nuevo paradigma que considere la terapia nutricional más allá de la administración de micro- y macronutrientes;

Conscientes de la necesidad de hacer un llamado a los poderes públicos y a diversas instancias nacionales e internacionales sobre la importancia del cuidado nutricional y la lucha contra la malnutrición;

Teniendo presente que los avances científicos y tecnológicos que han permitido el desarrollo de la terapia nutricional artificial plantean dilemas y problemas éticos, los cuales se deberían abordar desde la perspectiva de la bioética, y respetando los principios establecidos en la Declaración de Bioética y Derechos Humanos de la UNESCO promulgada el 19 de octubre de 2005;

Proclama,

I. Ámbito

La Declaración trata sobre el derecho al cuidado nutricional, independiente del nivel de atención en salud, y sobre la lucha contra

las diversas clases de malnutrición, en particular la asociada a la enfermedad, por lo tanto, se limita al campo de la nutrición clínica. La nutrición clínica es una disciplina y una ciencia, interdisciplinaria y aplicada, preocupada por la malnutrición. El objetivo es aplicar los principios de la terapia nutricional (con alimentos naturales de administración ordinaria y nutrientes artificiales administrados por medio de suplementos, nutrición enteral y parenteral) en el marco del cuidado nutricional con el fin de garantizar el estado nutricional y modular otras funciones biológicas para influir de manera positiva en el tratamiento, la calidad de vida y el desenlace de los pacientes.

La presente declaración va dirigida a las sociedades, colegios y asociaciones afiliadas a la FELANPE y a toda organización o institución que defienda el derecho a la alimentación, el derecho a la salud y promueva la lucha contra la malnutrición. Debe considerarse como un documento marco cuyos principios constituyen el fundamento para promover el desarrollo del cuidado nutricional en el ámbito clínico, y concientizar los poderes públicos, las instancias académicas y la industria farmacéutica.

II. Objetivos

1. Promover el respeto de la dignidad humana y proteger el derecho al cuidado nutricional y el derecho a la alimentación en el ámbito clínico, velando por el respeto de la vida de los seres humanos y las libertades fundamentales, de conformidad con el derecho internacional relativo a los derechos humanos y la bioética.
2. Proporcionar marco de referencia cuyos principios constituyen el fundamento para promover el desarrollo del cuidado nutricional en el ámbito clínico que permita que las personas enfermas reciban terapia nutricional en condiciones de dignidad.
3. Fomentar la concientización sobre la magnitud del problema de la malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad y la necesidad de desarrollar un modelo de atención nutricional en las instituciones de salud.
4. Impulsar el desarrollo de la investigación y la educación en nutrición clínica bajo un nuevo paradigma.

III. Principios

1. La alimentación en condiciones de dignidad de la persona enferma

Se debe entender el derecho a la alimentación como un derecho humano internacional que permite a todos los seres humanos alimentarse en condiciones de dignidad. Se reconoce que este derecho engloba dos normas distintas: la primera, el derecho a la alimentación adecuada; la segunda, que toda persona esté protegida contra el hambre. En el ámbito clínico, el cumplimiento de este derecho implica el respeto a estas dos normas y se concretiza cuando la persona enferma recibe el cuidado nutricional completo y adecuado por parte de los profesionales sanitarios implicados en su atención clínica y,

específicamente, con la intervención del grupo interdisciplinario de profesionales especialistas en nutrición clínica. Se reconoce el derecho al cuidado nutricional como un derecho humano emergente que se relaciona con el derecho a la salud y el derecho a la alimentación.

Se destaca que la persona enferma debe ser alimentada en condiciones de dignidad, lo que implica reconocer durante el proceso de cuidado nutricional el valor intrínseco de cada ser humano, así como el respeto a la integridad y la diversidad de valores morales, sociales y culturales. El derecho al cuidado nutricional en el ámbito clínico comprende los aspectos cuantitativos, cualitativos y de aceptabilidad cultural.

Por lo tanto, las personas enfermas, sin distinción alguna, deberían disfrutar de la misma calidad de terapia nutricional en condiciones de dignidad y de abordaje completo de la malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad. Se considera que el derecho al cuidado nutricional se ejerce cuando todo hombre, mujer o niño, después del diagnóstico oportuno, recibe nutrición adecuada (dietoterapia, terapia nutricional oral, enteral o parenteral) teniendo en cuenta sus dimensiones (biológicas, simbólicas, afectivas y culturales) y no padece de hambre. Son elementos esenciales la seguridad, la oportunidad, la eficiencia, la eficacia, la efectividad del cuidado nutricional y el respeto de los principios bioéticos. Esto se considera el mínimo que debe garantizarse, independiente del nivel de atención en salud.

Se debe tener en cuenta que la terapia nutricional es un tratamiento médico, las personas enfermas tienen el derecho y la autonomía para rechazarlo y el personal de salud, la obligación de aceptar esta decisión y no realizar acciones fútiles.

El derecho al cuidado nutricional no debe limitarse ni restringirse a las fuentes calóricas, proteicas y otros elementos nutritivos concretos, sino garantizar los mecanismos físicos, humanos y económicos para que sea posible acceder a la terapia nutricional.

2. El cuidado nutricional es un proceso

El cuidado nutricional forma parte de la atención integral del paciente y, por lo tanto, debe ser un componente inherente a su cuidado. Se concibe como un proceso continuo que consta de diversas etapas, las cuales se pueden resumir en: a) detectar; b) nutrir; y c) vigilar.

Detectar

La identificación del riesgo nutricional realizado por medio del tamizaje es la primera etapa, lo cual conlleva, en la próxima etapa, si el paciente está en riesgo, la realización del diagnóstico completo del estado nutricional, permitiendo establecer la indicación médica de terapia nutricional y realizar el plan nutricional. El tamizaje debe ser sistemático para las personas enfermas en cualquier nivel de atención en salud. Todo paciente con riesgo nutricional deberá beneficiarse del diagnóstico nutricional completo.

El diagnóstico nutricional permite identificar las alteraciones nutricionales, las cuales pueden ser: a) malnutrición (sinónimo de desnutrición); b) sobrepeso y obesidad; y c) anomalías de mi-

cronutrientes. La malnutrición o desnutrición se define como la condición que resulta de la falta de ingesta, de la absorción nutricional, de pérdidas de nutrientes incrementadas que conlleva alteración de la composición corporal (disminución de la masa libre de grasa) y de la masa celular corporal, lo que produce la disminución de las funciones mentales y físicas y, al deterioro del resultado clínico. La desnutrición puede ser el resultado del ayuno/inanición, la enfermedad o la edad avanzada (i.e., > 70 años). Cada una se puede presentar de manera aislada o de manera combinada.

La malnutrición se puede presentar como: a) malnutrición sin enfermedad; b) malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad con inflamación (aguda o crónica); y c) malnutrición asociada a la enfermedad sin inflamación.

Se hace hincapié en que los criterios diagnósticos de malnutrición establecidos por consenso deberían ser evaluados en el contexto latinoamericano, teniendo en cuenta las características fenotípicas de la población y la situación socioeconómica, entre otras. La detección del riesgo nutricional debe ser prioridad en todos los niveles de atención en salud.

Nutrir

El plan nutricional incluye la terapia nutricional (o terapia médica nutricional), es decir, con alimentos naturales de administración ordinaria y con nutrientes artificiales administrados por medio de suplementos, nutrición enteral y parenteral. Se considera que la terapia nutricional es una intervención médica, que requiere una indicación médica-nutricional, que tiene el objetivo de tratamiento específico y necesita el consentimiento informado del paciente. Como toda terapia, la nutrición también tiene efectos secundarios, riesgos y beneficios. Se tienen en cuenta las dimensiones biológicas (cuantitativa y cualitativa), simbólica, afectiva y cultural asociadas a la alimentación, incluso si se trata de terapia nutricional artificial.

Vigilar

La terapia nutricional se debe monitorear y documentar. El monitoreo busca verificar que se cumplan las distintas dimensiones de la terapia nutricional y prevenir los efectos secundarios. La documentación sirve para seguir y evaluar la continuidad de la terapia de cada paciente y garantizar la calidad.

Las tres etapas buscan la seguridad, oportunidad, eficiencia, eficacia y efectividad del cuidado nutricional.

En las instituciones de salud se deberá promover el desarrollo del modelo de atención nutricional basado en detectar, nutrir, vigilar.

3. El empoderamiento de los pacientes como acción necesaria para mejorar el cuidado nutricional

El empoderamiento se define como un proceso y un resultado. El primero se basa en que, al aumentar la educación, se mejora

la capacidad de pensar de forma crítica y de actuar de manera autónoma, mientras que el segundo (resultado) se logra mediante el sentido de autoeficacia, el resultado del proceso.

El empoderamiento se realiza por medio de la educación y la educación implica libertad. En el cuidado nutricional, empoderar a los pacientes es ofrecerles la oportunidad de ser parte del proceso y tratamiento nutricional; en consecuencia, no solo se busca obtener una voz, sino también compartir conocimientos y responsabilidades con ellos y con la familia.

El empoderamiento busca aumentar la libertad y autonomía del paciente (la capacidad de tomar decisiones informadas) sobre el papel de la malnutrición y la terapia nutricional en las diferentes fases de tratamiento.

El acto de empoderar a los pacientes y sus familias en la lucha contra la malnutrición implica darles la capacidad para pensar de manera crítica sobre este síndrome y sus respectivas consecuencias negativas, permitiéndoles al mismo tiempo tomar decisiones autónomas e informadas, como exigir atención nutricional y cumplir el tratamiento nutricional sugerido.

4. El enfoque interdisciplinario del cuidado nutricional

El cuidado nutricional debe ser realizado por equipos interdisciplinarios e incluir, como mínimo, profesionales de nutrición, enfermería, medicina y farmacia, y fomentar la integración de fonoaudiología, terapia ocupacional, fisioterapia, rehabilitación, trabajo social y psicología, entre otras disciplinas que puedan incrementar la eficacia de la terapia nutricional. Este enfoque implica la integración equitativa de las diversas disciplinas relacionadas con la actividad nutricional. La evidencia científica muestra las ventajas de este enfoque en términos de costo-efectividad, seguridad, eficiencia y eficacia.

Se deberá promocionar la creación de los equipos interdisciplinarios de terapia nutricional y la acreditación de los equipos que están en funcionamiento a través de la medición de sus resultados.

5. Principios y valores éticos en el cuidado nutricional

Es importante resaltar que la terapia nutricional (nutrición oral, enteral y parenteral) se considera un gran avance científico y tecnológico que ha permitido alimentar a cualquier persona enferma y mejorar los desenlaces clínicos, la calidad de vida e impactar en los costos de la salud. Se reconoce que con estos adelantos surgen cuestiones bioéticas que pueden tener repercusiones en los individuos, las familias y los grupos o comunidades. Dichas cuestiones deberían analizarse en el marco de los principios establecidos en la DUBDH de la UNESCO, en especial los principios universales de igualdad, justicia y equidad, no discriminación y no estigmatización, no maleficencia, autonomía, beneficencia y el respeto de la vulnerabilidad humana y la integridad personal. El

respeto de la diversidad cultural y del pluralismo es fundamental en la realización del cuidado nutricional y en el debate de los cuestionamientos éticos.

Se reconoce que los pacientes en riesgo o en estado de malnutrición son un grupo considerado vulnerable desde el punto de vista ético. La vulnerabilidad es una dimensión ineludible de los seres humanos y la configuración de las relaciones sociales. Considerar la vulnerabilidad del paciente desnutrido implica reconocer que los individuos pueden carecer en algún momento de la capacidad y los medios para alimentarse por sí mismos y, por lo tanto, es preciso que esta necesidad la atiendan profesionales en nutrición clínica. La malnutrición implica deterioro físico, psicológico y social (con el riesgo de perder la vida y la posibilidad de perder la autonomía).

Se deberían promover el profesionalismo, la honestidad, la integridad y la transparencia en la adopción de decisiones, en particular en las declaraciones de todos los conflictos de interés y el aprovechamiento compartido de conocimientos de acuerdo con lo establecido en el artículo 18 de la DUBDH.

6. La integración de la atención en salud basada en el valor (aspectos económicos)

Se deberían integrar los aspectos económicos en el ejercicio, la evaluación y la investigación en nutrición clínica. Se propone integrar la atención en salud basada en el valor del cuidado nutricional. Bajo este enfoque, se busca reorientar los servicios de salud para que logren mejorar la satisfacción de las necesidades en salud de las personas, en particular del cuidado nutricional, mientras mantienen una relación óptima con los costos y los resultados. Generar valor implica un énfasis en lograr resultados en salud tanto para los pacientes como para las organizaciones y la sociedad, manteniendo una relación óptima con los costos. En este contexto, el valor en salud está definido por una relación eficiente entre los resultados y los costos y sus beneficiarios: el paciente, la sociedad y el financiador del servicio de salud.

La persona enferma tiene el derecho a recibir atención nutricional segura y de calidad, con personal cualificado y procurando costo-efectividad, con base en la evidencia científica. Se deberían asignar recursos según las políticas públicas enfocadas en la promoción, prevención e intervención nutricional que resulten en mejorar la calidad de vida de los pacientes. Para esto es fundamental que se implementen programas de calidad que integren elementos de la economía de la salud: costo-minimización, costo-eficacia, costo-beneficio, costo-efectividad y costo-utilidad.

7. La investigación en nutrición clínica es un pilar para el cumplimiento del derecho al cuidado nutricional y la lucha contra la malnutrición

Se debería impulsar el desarrollo de la investigación en nutrición clínica bajo un nuevo paradigma, el cual consiste en una visión de

la nutrición clínica que considere que la persona enferma necesita, más allá de comida y nutrientes, el abordaje del metabolismo en el contexto particular de la enfermedad y el mejor conocimiento de su estado metabólico y nutricional. Para ello, es necesario desarrollar la investigación para entender los mecanismos biológicos-moleculares asociados a los estados metabólicos de las personas enfermas.

Se deberá exigir a las autoridades, a las organizaciones de salud (aseguradoras, hospitales) y a las compañías farmacéuticas y de alimentos mayor inversión y apoyo a la investigación en nutrición clínica.

Se deberían crear, promover y apoyar, al nivel que corresponda, grupos de investigación interdisciplinarios con el propósito de:

1. Investigar sobre los problemas de nutrición clínica relevantes bajo los estándares científicos de calidad, la medicina basada en la evidencia y respetando los principios de la bioética.
2. Desarrollar líneas de investigación pertinentes en el contexto regional (latinoamericano).
3. Evaluar los adelantos de la ciencia y la tecnología que surgen en el campo de la nutrición clínica.
4. Apoyar la formulación de recomendaciones, guías y consensos de prácticas clínicas basados en la evidencia científica.
5. Fomentar el debate, la educación y la sensibilización del público sobre la nutrición clínica y el problema de la malnutrición, así como la participación al respecto del derecho a la alimentación en este ámbito.

Se reconoce que los intereses y el bienestar de la persona deberían tener prioridad con respecto al interés exclusivo de la ciencia o la sociedad (industria farmacéutica, empresas, etc.).

8. La educación en nutrición clínica es un eje fundamental para el cumplimiento del derecho al cuidado nutricional y la lucha contra la malnutrición

Se deberá crear, promover y apoyar, al nivel que corresponda, y bajo el nuevo paradigma, la educación en nutrición clínica:

1. En el pregrado: fomentar la enseñanza de la nutrición clínica en las carreras de la salud (Medicina, Nutrición, Enfermería, Farmacia, etc.).
2. En el posgrado de Medicina y otras carreras de la salud: reconocer la nutrición clínica como especialidad clínica y no como subespecialidad o formación complementaria.
3. Las instancias correspondientes: acreditar la formación especializada y fomentar la educación continuada en el campo de la nutrición clínica.

9. Fortalecimiento de las redes de nutrición clínica

Se deberán crear, promover y apoyar, al nivel que corresponda, actividades, programas y proyectos con el propósito de:

1. Promover en las instituciones de salud públicas y privadas el desarrollo del modelo de cuidado nutricional basado en detectar, nutrir, vigilar.

2. Fortalecer programas de educación en nutrición clínica.
3. Desarrollar y fortalecer líneas de investigación en nutrición clínica.
4. Impulsar la solidaridad y la cooperación en el desarrollo de programas para promover el cuidado nutricional y la lucha contra la malnutrición.

10. Creación de una cultura institucional que valore el cuidado nutricional

Se deberán crear, promover y apoyar, al nivel que corresponda, actividades, programas y proyectos con el propósito de:

1. Sensibilizar a los médicos y otros profesionales de la salud sobre la importancia de la nutrición clínica.
2. Sensibilizar a la sociedad y a las instituciones sobre la problemática de la malnutrición y el derecho al cuidado nutricional.
3. Mostrar la evidencia científica que permita avanzar en la institucionalización del modelo de cuidado nutricional basado en detectar, nutrir y vigilar.
4. Promover la participación de la comunidad, los pacientes y las instituciones en la concretización del derecho al cuidado nutricional.
5. Propender por un cuidado nutricional justo y equitativo.

11. Justicia y equidad en el cuidado nutricional

Se deberá crear, promover y apoyar una agenda en salud pública justa y con equidad con el propósito de:

1. Desarrollar los mecanismos para que toda persona enferma tenga disponibilidad y acceso de manera estable, continua y oportuna a la terapia nutricional, así como también a la correcta utilización de la terapia nutricional.
2. Promover la integración en los sistemas de salud del modelo de cuidado nutricional capaz de proveer terapia nutricional en condiciones de dignidad.
3. Promover el enfoque interdisciplinario y la creación de equipos de terapia nutricional.
4. Valorizar el reembolso y el pago de los servicios de cuidado nutricional.
5. Contribuir a alcanzar los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible de Naciones Unidas 2 y 3 (ODS 2 y 3), en particular los objetivos 2.2: "Para 2030, poner fin a todas las formas de malnutrición"; y 3.4: "Para 2030, reducir en un tercio la mortalidad prematura por enfermedades no transmisibles mediante la prevención y el tratamiento y promover la salud mental y el bienestar".

12. Principios éticos, deontológicos y de transparencia de la industria farmacéutica y nutricional (IFyN)

Se deberán promover relaciones basadas en políticas de ética y transparencia entre las sociedades, colegios y asociaciones que defienden el derecho al cuidado nutricional y la IFyN, que exijan:

1. Claridad y responsabilidad en las funciones de la IFyN para que puedan:

- Demostrar el más alto nivel de calidad de las soluciones y productos nutricionales;
- Demostrar, por medio de científicos independientes a la IFyN, que las soluciones nutricionales creadas demuestran beneficio clínico objetivo y científicamente válido;
- Tener programas de educación promovidos por la IFyN con el más alto valor científico y que estén libres de toda intención de comercialización de las soluciones nutricionales;
- Que la interacción de la IFyN con las organizaciones profesionales y regulatorias esté estrictamente enfocada en la promoción de la mejor atención al paciente y el crecimiento científico constante.

Para ello, cada sociedad, colegio y asociación deberá establecer políticas de ética, integridad y transparencia, reconociendo que la IFyN juega un papel esencial en la creación y comercialización de soluciones y fórmulas nutricionales para el paciente, y que contribuye a la educación de los clínicos en la prestación de nutrición y en la investigación nutricional.

13. Llamado a la acción internacional

La FELANPE hace un llamado a las sociedades y organizaciones internacionales para unirse en la lucha contra la malnutrición y el respeto del derecho al cuidado nutricional. Los principios establecidos en el presente documento servirán de fundamento para acciones comunes.

La FELANPE insta a los estados y al Consejo de Derechos Humanos de las Naciones Unidas a reconocer la presente Declaración y, por lo tanto, el *derecho al cuidado nutricional* como un derecho humano, y a que se garantice a todas las personas, especialmente a los enfermos con o en riesgo de desnutrición, acceso al cuidado nutricional y, en particular, a la terapia nutricional óptima y oportuna, con el fin de, entre otros, reducir las elevadas tasas de desnutrición hospitalaria y de morbilidad asociadas.

En la ciudad de Cartagena, a los 3 días del mes de mayo de 2019,

Firmaron los presidentes o representantes de las sociedades, asociaciones y colegios miembros de la FELANPE. Como testigos, los presidentes o representantes de ASPEN, ESPEN, ESPEGHAN, LASPEGHAN y SLAN.

Firman:

Dra. Dolores Rodríguez-Ventimilla, Federación Latinoamericana de Terapia Nutricional, Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo - FELANPE 2019-2020; Dra. Ana Ferreira FELANPE 2021-2022; Dra. M^a Virginia Desantadina, Asociación Argentina de Nutrición Enteral y Parenteral (AANEP); Dr. Dan Waitzberg, Sociedad Brasileña de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral (BRASPEN); Lic. Janett K. Rodríguez, Asociación Boliviana de Nutrición Clínica y Terapia Nutricional; Dra. Paula Sánchez, Asociación Costarricense de Nutrición Enteral y Parenteral (ACONEP); Dr. Charles Bermúdez, Asociación Colombiana de Nutrición Clínica (ACNC); Dr. Lázaro Alfonso Novo, Sociedad Cubana de Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo (SCNCM); Dra. Karin Papaprieto, Asociación Chilena de Nutrición Clínica, Obesidad y Metabolismo (ACHINUMET); Dra. Mery Guerrero, Asociación Ecuatoriana de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral (ASENPE); Dr. Miguel León-Sanz, Sociedad Española de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral (SENPE); Dr. Juan Carlos Hernández, Colegio Mexicano de Nutrición Clínica y Terapia Nutricional (CMNCTN); Dra. Rosa Larreategui, Asociación Panameña de Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo (APNCM); Dra. María Cristina Jiménez, Sociedad Paraguaya de Nutrición (SPN); Mg. Luisa Angélica Guerrero, Asociación Peruana de Terapia Nutricional (ASPETEN); Dra. Anayaret Jáquez, Sociedad Dominicana de Nutrición Enteral y Parenteral (SODONEP); Lic. Mabel Pellejero, Sociedad Uruguaya de Nutrición (SUNUT); y Dr. José Guillermo Gutiérrez, Asociación Salvadoreña de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral (ASANPEN).

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Artículo Especial

Alexandre Frias i Roig: puericultor, médico y divulgador. Luchador incansable en favor de la lactancia materna y de la infancia

Alexandre Frias i Roig: childcare pediatrician, medical doctor and scientific disseminator. Tireless fighter in favor of breastfeeding and childhood

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Resumen

Alexandre Frias nació en Reus, ciudad donde desarrolló la mayor parte de su actividad profesional. Médico y puericultor, trabajó incansablemente con el fin de mejorar la salud infantil. Creó el primer Instituto de Puericultura Integral de España en 1919, que se mantuvo en funcionamiento hasta su muerte. Las actividades del instituto se iniciaron con un consultorio para niños lactantes, servicio de lactario y un laboratorio de análisis, y se ampliaron posteriormente con servicios de puericultura prenatal, refectorio para embarazadas y mujeres, un consultorio de pediatría con servicio de vacunación y, como complemento, un servicio de asistencia domiciliar de comadrona y un médico tocólogo. Convencido de que la lactancia materna y la higiene eran fundamentales para la prevención de enfermedades, realizó una ingente labor educativa entre madres, médicos, gobernantes y sociedad en general.

Precursor de numerosas iniciativas con fines curativos y preventivos, instauró la educación sanitaria para madres y profesionales, las colonias escolares, la inspección médica-escolar, el servicio a domicilio de básculas para control de peso e incubadoras para niños prematuros e incluso un modelo de vestido higiénico para recién nacidos.

Realizó numerosas publicaciones en forma de libros, como el titulado *"Lo que deben saber las madres"*, opúsculos y artículos de prensa. Fundó y dirigió la revista *Puericultura*, editada en Reus y distribuida a todo el país, que se publicó hasta 1936.

Su incesante actividad en pro de la lucha contra la mortalidad infantil redujo drásticamente las muertes en Reus e influyó en la mejora sanitaria y demográfica de toda España.

Palabras clave:

Higienismo. Alexandre Frias. Puericultura. Lactancia materna. Divulgación. Educación. Mortalidad infantil. Prevención.

Abstract

Alexandre Frias was born in Reus, the city where he developed most of his professional activity. Medical doctor and childcare pediatrician, he worked tirelessly in order to improve children's health. He created the first Instituto de Puericultura Integral (Integral Institute of Childcare) in Spain in 1919, which remained in operation until his death. The Institute's activities began with a clinic for breastfeeding children, breastfeeding service and a biochemical analysis laboratory, later expanding with prenatal childcare services, a refectory for pregnant women and general women, a pediatric office with a vaccination service and, as a complement, a home health care service and medical obstetrics. Convinced that breastfeeding and hygiene were fundamental for the prevention of diseases, he carried out an enormous educational work among mothers, doctors, governors and society in general.

Forerunner of numerous initiatives for curative and preventive purposes, he established health education for mothers and professionals, school colonies, medical-school inspection, home delivery of scales for weight control and incubators for premature children and even a hygienic dress model for newborns.

He made numerous publications as books form, such as the one entitled *"Lo que deben saber las madres"*, booklets and newspapers articles. He founded and directed the scientific journal *Puericultura (child care)*, published in Reus and distributed throughout the country until 1936.

Its incessant activity in favor of the fight against infant mortality drastically reduced infant/children mortality in Reus and influenced the health and demographic improvement of all of Spain.

Key words:

Hygienism. Alexandre Frias. Children nursery. Breastfeeding. Outreach. Education. Infant mortality. Prevention.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Se cumplen 100 años de la inauguración en la ciudad de Reus del Instituto de Puericultura, al que se llamó "Gota de la Llet", nombre que todavía conserva. El instituto fue el fruto de la colaboración entre un médico de espíritu avanzado y un gran mecenas de la ciudad. Reus y el trabajo del Dr. Alexandre Frias i Roig se convirtieron en un referente en la prevención y la vigilancia de la salud de los niños. Luchador infatigable en favor de la lactancia materna y autor de multitud de campañas y publicaciones dirigidas a elevar el nivel de la cultura sanitaria, fundamentó su trabajo en la importancia de la higiene y de la correcta alimentación infantil.

CONTEXTO HISTÓRICO

A principios del siglo XX, la malnutrición, las enfermedades infecciosas y unas normas higiénicas deficientes provocaban en España y en Europa una alta mortalidad infantil. Se estima que, en España, en 1901 la proporción era de 186 menores de un año por mil nacidos vivos (1), en Cataluña pasaba de 132 y en Tarragona era de 123 (2). Esta alta mortalidad infantil suponía un coste emotivo devastador para las familias y, muchas veces, se forzaba un sentimiento de desafecto hacia los neonatos ante la probabilidad de que estos no llegaran a la adultez. Tampoco podemos obviar el impacto demográfico y social que se este hecho provocaba.

La aristocracia y la burguesía de finales de siglo XIX establecieron entre sus rígidas normas sociales la idea de que el amamantamiento no era apropiado ni estaba bien visto. Muchos neonatos eran entregados a nodrizas y amas de cría que se ocupaban de la lactancia y de la cría de los pequeños (3). Las clases más desfavorecidas, con poca instrucción y escasos recursos económicos, también tuvieron difícil compaginar la lactancia con las largas horas de trabajo fabril de las madres, que complicaban el cuidado y, sobre todo, la alimentación de sus hijos (4) y las hacían recurrir a la lactancia artificial o la leche de otro mamífero. En general, se utilizaba leche de vaca no por su superioridad nutricional, sino por ser el ganado más abundante y de fácil ordeño. El sustituto láctico, a pesar de los avances en los conocimientos científicos, requería modificaciones para humanizarla. Así, se alteraba, se trataba y se quitaban o agregaban diferentes ingredientes (5) que podían suponer un riesgo debido a las condiciones higiénicas de uso (6).

Hasta finales del siglo XIX el niño era considerado como un adulto en miniatura. Para algunos médicos la enfermedad de los niños no difería de la de los adultos, solo la particularidad del organismo infantil le daba unas características especiales (7). Con el movimiento de la Ilustración, filósofos y pensadores como Jean Jacques Rousseau (8) abogaron en favor de los niños, reclamando una atención y un fomento del vínculo amoroso y considerándolos seres independientes y vulnerables en proceso de maduración y objeto de atención. Es el momento del inicio de la enseñanza académica de la pediatría (9). A partir de la publicación del tratado de Rilliet y Barthez en 1843, "*Traité clinique et pratiques des maladies des infants*" (10), se considera que la pediatría adquirió plena dignidad científica (11).

La alimentación infantil y el amamantamiento durante el siglo XVIII habían sido ya fruto de estudio (12). En España, en 1786 Jaime Bonells publicó el texto "*Perjuicios que acarrear... las madres que rehúsan criar a sus hijos*", donde trató, entre otros problemas, el de la lactancia (9).

La pediatría se fundamentó en torno a tres puntales, el estudio de la clínica, la dietética y la prevención de las enfermedades (11). La higiene, la medicina preventiva y la alimentación se convirtieron en objeto de estudio de pediatras y médicos, considerando la enfermedad como un fenómeno social que abarcaba todos los aspectos de la vida humana (13).

Una de las primeras actuaciones con el fin de mejorar el estado de salud de los niños en Europa fue la creación de las Gotas de Leche o "*Gouttes de Lait*". En España, se estima que es a partir de 1902 en Barcelona, de 1904 en Madrid y con la fundación en Barbastro del primer Instituto Nipiológico, de las primeras edades de los niños, a cargo del Dr. Martínez Vargas (14), cuando tiene lugar el inicio de estas instituciones (15).

En 1919 se inauguró en Reus el Instituto de Puericultura "La Gota de Llet", impulsado y promovido por el Dr. Alexandre Frías i Roig, con un servicio de atención integral para niños y madres (16), particularidad que lo hizo único en su momento en toda España.

ALEXANDRE FRIAS I ROIG, MÉDICO DE NIÑOS

Alexandre Frias i Roig nació en Reus (Tarragona) en 1878. Se licenció en Medicina en la Universidad de Barcelona y pasó a ejercer como médico de adultos en la ciudad costera de la Ametlla de Mar (16). Allí tomó conciencia de los problemas de higiene entre la población (17) y de los problemas de supervivencia de los niños en los primeros años de vida.

En 1909 se estableció en su ciudad natal. Reus, que en esos momentos era importante económica y socialmente, hasta el punto de ser la segunda ciudad de Cataluña en demografía. Ingresó en el Colegio de Médicos y abrió un consultorio en el que trataba las "*Malalties de la dona i el nen*", enfermedades de la mujer y el niño (18).

Influido por el higienismo, emprendió una campaña de profilaxis con el fin de paliar el grave problema sanitario que la falta de higiene y la incultura ocasionaban: "*El elevado número de defunciones entre la población infantil es debido principalmente a la miseria y la ignorancia de las madres*" (16). Las tasas de mortalidad infantil eran paralelas a la incidencia de la alimentación a biberón (5). En la figura 1 se puede observar la idea del Dr. Frias sobre la mortalidad infantil según la alimentación del lactante (19).

En el año 1913, el Dr. Frias realizó un viaje de orientación profesional por Europa en el que visitó en Ginebra una "Gota de Leche" (1), nombre que se daba a las instituciones creadas para paliar los problemas de desnutrición y reducir la alta mortalidad infantil (20). Se entrevistó con diferentes especialistas en pediatría y puericultura. De esta experiencia surgió la idea de crear un Instituto de Puericultura en Reus a semejanza de los que había conocido. A partir de ese momento, su actividad en pro de la lucha contra la mortalidad infantil se tornó incesante. Él mismo definía este periodo de su vida como de "vida activa" (1). Estaba

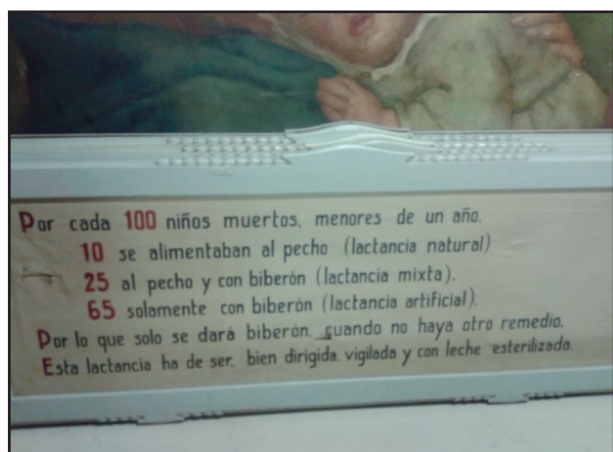


Figura 1.

Tablero-cartel original del Instituto de Puericultura de Reus sobre la importancia de la lactancia materna.

convencido de que los problemas digestivos derivados de una alimentación inadecuada, junto con la falta de esquemas higiénicos elementales, facilitaban el contagio e influían en la alta mortalidad (1). Elevar el nivel de la cultura popular en el orden sanitario, enseñar a las madres un mínimo de puericultura, desterrar los malos usos y promover la lactancia materna se convirtió en el eje de su actividad profesional y de su vida (16).

Con el fin de implicar a toda la ciudadanía en su proyecto, Ayuntamiento incluido, publicó artículos en la prensa local y realizó conferencias. La primera de ellas, con el título *"Impresiones de un viajero por Europa"*, la impartió en la entidad cultural reusense del Centro de Lectura, donde además de exponer su propósito y el plan de actuación para mejorar el estado de la sanidad local, sobre todo infantil y materna, contactó y convenció al mecenas Sr. Evarist Fràbregues i Pàmies: *"Era el inicio de uno de los más grandes mecenazgos culturales sanitarios y benéficos que se ha producido nunca en la ciudad de Reus"* (18).

Dirigido a las madres, publicó en 1914 un folletín en el que se recogía una serie de consejos para la crianza de los hijos exponiendo las falsas creencias y supercherías: *"Consejos a las madres para bien criar a sus hijos"* (21). Con el fin de llegar a todos los hogares, este folleto se entregaba gratuitamente en el Registro Civil de Reus al ir a inscribir a los recién nacidos. El mismo año publicó la primera Cartilla de Higiene Infantil.

Con la ayuda de los poderes públicos, Ayuntamiento y Diputación, logró que se constituyera la Associació Reusense de la Caritat, con el objetivo de proteger a los niños de los más desfavorecidos. Entre sus múltiples actividades destacaba, por curiosa, la del Ropero, taller de confección que se especializó en confeccionar ropa para niños, mujeres embarazadas y lactantes, ya que el mismo Dr. Frías opinaba que: *"El vestido del recién nacido no debe comprimir el cuerpo; ha de ser suficientemente holgado, ha de abrigar lo necesario... ser fácil de cambiar y de telas finas y lavables. Ni el modelo de vestido clásico a la española, ni a la inglesa es adecuado"* (22).

El 5 de enero de 1919 se inauguró el Instituto de Puericultura de Reus, conocido en la ciudad como Gota de Llet, el primero en España que ofrecía servicios de atención a la salud infantil de forma integral. Hasta ese momento los hospitales se limitaban a la atención curativa y las Gotas de Leche que ya funcionaban proporcionaban leche, vigilaban el estado de salud del niño y aconsejaban a las madres. El Instituto de Reus tenía un proyecto mucho más ambicioso (23). En la figura 2 se observa la fachada del Instituto de Puericultura de Reus.

El edificio estaba iluminado con grandes ventanales que daban al exterior de la calle y contaba con una sala de espera con bancos de roble, jarrones con plantas, una escupidera y, al fondo, un mostrador de mármol para la entrega de la leche y los biberones. De las paredes de baldosas blancas hasta media altura colgaban carteles que con grandes letras daban consejos a las madres:

- *El biberón siempre es malo.*
- *La madre tiene el legítimo derecho de criar con su leche a sus hijos.*
- *La mujer que cría no conviene que beba vino ni licores.*
- *La leche de la madre es el mejor alimento para los niños.*



Figura 2.

Fachada del Instituto de Puericultura, Reus. Revista Puericultura 1926, nº 61. Biblioteca Xavier Amorós de Reus.

El consultorio contaba con calefacción eléctrica y los elementos necesarios para el registro del crecimiento y desarrollo infantil, armarios con instrumental médico y biblioteca. El edificio tenía también una cámara de baño y duchas, laboratorio fotográfico, laboratorio de análisis y el lactario, departamento destinado a la manipulación de la leche y sus derivados, estufa esterilizadora, otra para fermentación del yogur y kéfir, cámara frigorífica, filtro Pasteur, etc. En otros pisos se situaban el Ropero (donde se confeccionaba la ropa infantil), la sala de juntas, el refectorio y la cocina (24).

El personal técnico lo integraban tres doctores en Medicina, entre ellos un tocoginecólogo, dos comadronas y un practicante (25).

Como actividades complementarias, el instituto colaboraba asiduamente con el servicio municipal de inspección médica-escolar, tanto en el ámbito higiénico como en el educativo, la vigilancia de las guarderías y los cursos de puericultura, y cooperaba con las colonias escolares del Ayuntamiento de Reus (1).

Su financiación corría a cargo de la fundación Vidriola de l'Infant (1) como sociedad protectora, con el fin de asegurar su economía sin necesitar la tutela de los organismos oficiales en general, escasamente interesados en el proyecto.

A través del instituto se publicó en 1921 la revista *Puericultura*, “la primera y única en España”, editada en Reus y dirigida por el Dr. Frias (1). Era de periodicidad mensual y se publicó hasta 1936. Editada principalmente en castellano, también incluyó artículos en catalán durante el periodo de la Mancomunitat de Cataluña y de la II República. La figura 3 corresponde a una portada de la revista.

Estas frases del Dr. Frias nos indican la finalidad y la idea que él tenía sobre lo que debía ser la revista *Puericultura*:

- “... siendo una tarea de intercambio y divulgación científica [...] no queremos establecer exclusivismos de idioma que podrían privarnos de valiosas colaboraciones y reducirían el círculo de influencia” (26).
- “Educar, instruir, ilustrar, hacer cultura, ese es el camino” (27).

Con un vocabulario conciso y llano, apto para todos los públicos, en la revista se publicaban comentarios, artículos y estudios de reconocidos pediatras y puericultores españoles, así como traducciones de artículos médicos internacionales. Se daban a conocer ponencias presentadas en congresos médicos relacionados con la infancia. Otros artículos hacían referencia a estudios psicológicos y pedagógicos donde se debatía la manera de tratar a niños rebeldes o difíciles, los juguetes más recomendables e incluso, en épocas de mayor libertad moral, como el tiempo de la II República, temas relativos al aborto, cuestionando su punibilidad (28). Contaba también con un apartado dedicado al Instituto de Puericultura y sus actividades, titulado *Noticiari de l'Institut*, donde se explicaban la contabilidad, los proyectos y los nuevos servicios que progresivamente se iban poniendo en funcionamiento (29). En la figura 4 se lee una reproducción del apartado, escrito siempre en catalán.

La revista formaba parte de la convicción y el afán del Dr. Frias de divulgar los conocimientos de puericultura por todos los ámbitos de la nación (1). Iba dirigida a los profesionales de la medicina pero también a las madres, a los maestros y a la gente relacionada con la infancia, sin olvidar a los políticos y, en general, a toda la sociedad en tanto que cuidadora (30) y educadora de los niños. Su fin era divulgar enseñanzas y prácticas de puericultura.



Figura 3.

Portada de la revista *Puericultura*, año 1930. Biblioteca Xavier Amorós de Reus.

Intentaba unificar criterios respecto a temas tan variados como la alimentación inadecuada, la lactancia materna, mixta y artificial (31), nodrizas y lactancia mercenaria (32), problemas digestivos del niño, esterilización de las leches, composición de la leche, vacunaciones (33), enfermedades infecciosas (34), etc.

Los médicos rurales, por su aislamiento, encontraban en la revista un modo de actualizarse, por lo que de modo especial se publicaban artículos dirigidos a ellos: “*Medios prácticos para intensificar la puericultura en el medio rural*” (35).

El éxito del proyecto se vio reconocido al ganar el Gran Premio en el 2º Congreso Nacional de Medicina de Sevilla.

Como parte de la actividad del Instituto de Puericultura, en 1928 se publicó la primera edición de un pequeño libro titulado “*Lo que deben saber las madres*”, escrito por el Dr. Frias. En la figura 5 podemos ver la imagen de la portada del libro. Se componía de 145 consejos de puericultura. Con pocas páginas y con un len-

NOTICIARI DE L'INSTITUT		
MOVIMENT DE SERVEIS I AUXILIS PRESTATS DURANT EL MES DE DESEMBRE DE 1928		
Nens ingressats		11
» vigilats, lactància materna	174	
» » » mixta	57	
» » » artificial	14	
» » » mercenària	19	
Total de nens vigilats	264	
Biberons servits gratuïtament	2257	
» remunerats	668	
Pesades de nens	203	
Llet de vaca suministrada (litres)	535'414	
» » » gratuïtament (litres)	337'655	
» » » consumida retribuïda (litres)	197'759	
Racions a lactans (esmorzars i berenars)	145	
Anàlisis de llet de vaca	62	
Anàlisis d'orina d'embarassades (albúmina)	18	
Visites i reconeixements de dones embarassades	10	
» a nens malalts	20	
Inyeccions tòniques a lactants	4	
Parts assistits a domicili	1	
Botelles tònic (xarops) (sumministrats gratuïtament)	8	
Polvos secants, (paquets)	37	
Llimonades làctiques	3	
Solucions citractades	5	
Altres medicaments	4	
Farina (pots)	8	
Vacunacions	6	

MOVIMENT DE SERVEIS I AUXILIS PRESTATS DURANT L'ANY 1928		
Nens ingressats	157	
Biberons servits gratuïtament	27904	
» » remunerats	7168	
Pesades de nens	2480	

Figura 4.

Noticario del Instituto de Puericultura. Revista Puericultura 1928. Biblioteca Xavier Amorós de Reus.



Figura 5.

Portada del libro de Alexandre Frias "Lo que deben saber las madres". Reus, 1945.

guaje sencillo, conciso y dirigido a las madres, se ofrecían recomendaciones de salud, higiene, alimentación y la forma de vestido apropiado para el recién nacido. Especialmente importante para el doctor era el apartado dedicado a la lactancia. Abogando siempre por la lactancia materna, se explicaba también la lactancia mixta, mercenaria y artificial: "*Tus hijos tienen legítimo derecho a tu leche*" (22), aclarando que el biberón había de ser el último recurso (22). En el libro también aparecían recetas de papillas y sopas para los primeros años del niño. Además, contaba al final del libro con un apéndice sobre el desarrollo del niño y tablas de crecimiento, peso y talla durante el primero y segundo año, así como sus necesidades calorimétricas (22). Se puede ver un ejemplo de las tablas en la figura 6. Estos manuales se llegaron a difundir por toda España.

La actividad en pro de la infancia se vio ampliada con la inauguración de la Sala de Maternidad del Hospital Municipal de Reus (36). Consiguió implantar la inspección médica-escolar (37) y la Educa-

ción Física en las escuelas y estableció un servicio domiciliario (primero en España) de incubadoras para niños débiles y prematuros (1).

Una actividad a reseñar fue la cooperación del Instituto de Puericultura con la organización de las colonias escolares durante el verano, mayoritariamente en la costa, en el pueblo vecino de Salou. Se escogía a los niños y niñas de las escuelas que por su estado de salud y situación económica más lo requerían (38) y se intentaba compensar la deficitaria alimentación, escasa, inadecuada y basada, sobre todo entre los niños de familias más desfavorecidas, en hidratos de carbono y pocas proteínas (5). El sol, el aire limpio, el ejercicio físico y los baños de mar y la alimentación eran para los pequeños un bálsamo de salud. Los menús eran toda una lección de comida saludable y dieta mediterránea (38).

Tras la Guerra Civil española (1936-39), los problemas sanitarios se agravaron y la población diezmada por la guerra se enfren-

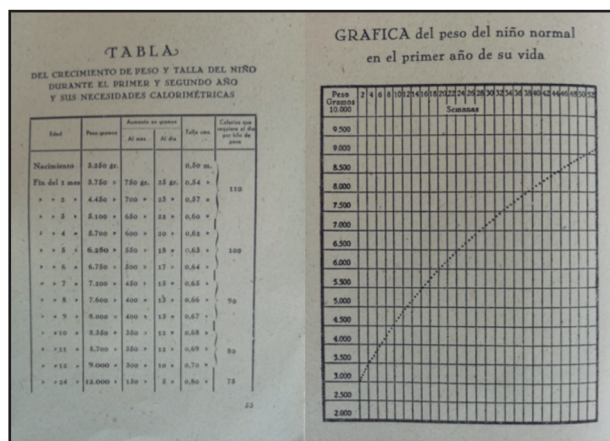


Figura 6.

Tablas de crecimiento del libro de Alexandre Frias "Lo que deben saber las madres". Reus, 1945.

taba al hambre, la malnutrición, las enfermedades infecciosas y la temida pelagra, que se cebaba principalmente en los más débiles, niños y ancianos. La situación sociopolítica implicaba dificultades añadidas en el trabajo sanitario. Solo el prestigio y las relaciones del Dr. Frias i Roig le permitieron continuar con sus proyectos (16). Consiguió que se instalara un Centro Maternal y Pediátrico de Urgencia subvencionado por el Estado en el Hospital de San Juan de Reus (39).

Reemprendió la actividad de divulgación, formación y educación de la población con consejos básicos de puericultura. Para ello, se valió de todos los medios a su alcance, entre ellos las emisiones radiofónicas que emitía Radio Reus con el nombre de "Consejos higiénicos" y "Conferencias radiofónicas de Puericultura" (16). Asimismo, colaboró con en el diario "Reus Semanario de la Ciudad", donde ofrecía consejos de higiene y buenas prácticas y una defensa a ultranza de la lactancia materna en la sección titulada "Consejos de Puericultura":

- "... Él tiene el derecho de poseer vuestro corazón, vuestro espíritu y vuestra leche... La madre que regatea y soslaya alguno de sus derechos, especialmente la leche de sus pechos, es una mala madre" (40).

Precursor, como siempre, organizó en el Instituto de Puericultura el primer "Cursillo de puericultura para hombres", recibido con escepticismo e incomprensión por parte de la sociedad reusense ya que la atención a los niños se relegaba únicamente a la mujer en tanto que madre y ama de casa.

Así fue criticado en un periódico de la provincia: "... Nadie podrá negar la utilidad de este cursillo, que será un arma más en la gran batalla contra la mortalidad infantil, pero yo, que venteo una trampa como el zorro al cebo que puede aprisionar su pata, me declaro enemigo de esta preparación cultural, cuando vaya dedicada al sexo fuerte... Después de esta claudicación vendrán otras en fatal cadena" (41).

En 1954, en el marco de unas "Conversaciones sobre temas de interés local" celebradas en Reus, el Dr. Alexandre Frias expuso, con el título "40 años de puericultura en Reus", los

resultados en una tabla (Tabla I) donde mostraba la evolución de la mortalidad infantil en Reus y España entre los años 1901 y 1952 (1).

Sin poder aseverar que el descenso de la mortalidad infantil fuera consecuencia directa del trabajo de Frias y Roig, sus esfuerzos en la educación y la divulgación de algunas normas elementales de puericultura dirigidas a las madres y su incansable actividad en pos de la mejora sanitaria significaron una mejora en la salud maternoinfantil (42).

La actividad del instituto y su modelo de trabajo suscitaban el interés de profesionales dedicados a la salud infantil y recibió la visita de influyentes pediatras y puericultores mundiales. Un ejemplo de ello es la visita del Dr. Hesselrick, jefe de Puericultura y Maternología de la Organización Mundial de la Salud, y del Dr. Hagen, jefe de los mismos servicios de la República Federal Alemana (43).

En febrero de 1963 murió el Dr. Alexandre Frias, noticia que conmocionó a toda la ciudad de Reus, y su entierro constituyó una gran manifestación de duelo.

CONCLUSIONES

A modo de conclusión, señalaremos que el trabajo del Dr. Alexandre Frias i Roig reportó a la sociedad del momento un instrumento mediante el que paliar un grave problema de salud pública y social. Fue uno de los primeros puericultores en aplicar y divulgar normas básicas de higiene y de alimentación infantil. Fundó el primer centro de Puericultura integral de España, en el que se trataron todos los aspectos relacionados con la salud infantil, además de cuidar la alimentación y la higiene. Promovió y potenció la lactancia materna como el mejor alimento que una madre puede dar a su hijo. Llevó a cabo una continua tarea de divulgación y educación, desterrando tabúes y prácticas basadas en la tradición y la ignorancia. Implicó a toda la sociedad, madres, médicos y políticos, primero de su ciudad y después de toda España.

Tabla I. Evolución de la mortalidad infantil en Reus y España entre los años 1901 y 1952

Año	Tasa de mortalidad infantil (muertes de ≤ 1 año/1.000 nacimientos)	
	Reus	España
1901	163	186
1919	88	156
1929	58	123
1939	211	135
1949	26	64
1952	13	55

Frias i Roig A. Conversaciones sobre temas de interés local: 40 años de puericultura en Reus. Rev Centre Lectura Reus 1954;109-12.

Por último, en relación a su trabajo, se produjo una drástica disminución de la mortalidad, tanto en Reus como en la provincia, que influyó en el mejoramiento demográfico de España.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Grupo de Trabajo SENPE

Manejo nutricional de la demencia avanzada: resumen de recomendaciones del Grupo de Trabajo de Ética de la SENPE

Nutritional management of advanced dementia: summary of recommendations of the SENPE Ethic Group

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La demencia (denominada actualmente trastorno neurocognitivo mayor) (1) es un proceso neurodegenerativo progresivo e irreversible que cursa con un profundo deterioro de las capacidades cognitivas, verbales y funcionales, alterando de forma importante la capacidad del paciente para desenvolverse en sus actividades cotidianas, más allá de lo que podría considerarse consecuencia de un envejecimiento normal.

La demencia se produce en el contexto de diversas enfermedades y lesiones que afectan al cerebro de forma primaria o secundaria. Los tipos más frecuentes incluyen la enfermedad de Alzheimer (EA), la demencia con cuerpos de Lewy, la demencia frontotemporal, la demencia vascular (multiinfarto) y la demencia asociada a la enfermedad de Parkinson. La mayoría de los ancianos con demencia crónica tienen EA (aproximadamente un 60-80%) y muchos de ellos tienen enfermedad cerebrovascular concomitante. Independientemente de su etiología, los problemas médicos y de comportamiento de la demencia en fases evolucionadas son similares.

La incidencia global mundial de la demencia se estima alrededor de 7,5/1.000 personas/año. La aparición de nuevos casos se mantiene más o menos estable hasta los 65-70 años (5/1.000 personas/año) y a partir de entonces el crecimiento es exponencial. La incidencia anual de demencia en España es de 10-15 casos

por 1.000 personas/año en la población mayor de 65 años (2) y su prevalencia es de un 6% de las personas mayores, por lo que se calcula que existen entre 400.000 y 600.000 casos de demencia en nuestro país (2). El progresivo envejecimiento de la población hace prever un importante incremento del número de casos.

Los principales factores de riesgo no modificables de demencia son la edad, el sexo (la EA es algo más frecuente en mujeres y la vascular, en hombres), los antecedentes familiares (un 10-30% más riesgo de EA en familiares de primer grado de afectados) y el alelo de la apolipoproteína E (APOE) (APOE 4 mayor riesgo de EA) (2).

De forma típica, la EA se presenta como un trastorno de la memoria episódica. Posteriormente, aparecen trastornos apráxicos, afásicos y agnósicos y se ven afectadas las habilidades visuoespaciales y funciones ejecutivas. Durante el curso evolutivo de la enfermedad existe un aumento progresivo de la dependencia para la realización de las actividades básicas de la vida diaria y una pérdida de la capacidad para la toma de decisiones (autonomía). Suelen existir además síntomas cognitivos y conductuales como la apatía, la depresión, la ansiedad, la irritabilidad, las ideas delirantes, la agresividad, los trastornos del sueño, etc.

El grado de progresión de la demencia puede ser valorado mediante escalas como la Global Deterioration Scale (GDS) y la Functional Assessment Staging (FAST), aunque no son las únicas (3). En la demencia grave (GDS 6 o 7), el enfermo precisa ayuda para la

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mayoría o la totalidad de las actividades cotidianas y la alteración cognitiva es manifiesta en todos los campos (2,4). Una demencia en estadio GDS-FAST 7 (Tabla I) es una enfermedad neurológica terminal y la supervivencia de un paciente concreto variará en función del grado de dependencia, las comorbilidades, la presencia de broncoaspiraciones de repetición u otros procesos infecciosos, las úlceras por presión (UPP) y el estado nutricional, pero por lo general es menor de seis meses. La muerte se produce por complicaciones cardiorrespiratorias, procesos tromboembólicos o infecciosos. En un estudio holandés reciente se concluye que el pronóstico de los pacientes con demencia es incluso peor de lo que se pensaba habitualmente. La mortalidad a un año era tres o cuatro veces superior en los pacientes que acudían a un centro de día cuando se comparaban con la población general. En los pacientes ingresados la mortalidad superaba a la de pacientes con enfermedad cardiovascular (5).

Por otro lado, las alteraciones neurológicas constituyen la primera indicación en los pacientes con nutrición enteral domiciliaria, aunque en los registros no es posible distinguir entre aquellos pacientes con secuelas de accidentes cerebrovasculares, enfermedades degenerativas o alteraciones cognitivas y menos aún, la gravedad de los pacientes en esta última situación. Sin embargo, la experiencia clínica muestra que el empleo de nutrición enteral por sonda o por gastrostomía es elevado en este grupo de pacientes, en especial en sujetos institucionalizados.

El objetivo de este trabajo es revisar las recomendaciones de evaluación y tratamiento nutricional en los pacientes con demencia avanzada (FAST 7) (haciendo especial hincapié en los aspectos éticos y legales, especialmente relevantes en esta enfermedad) y destacar que la colocación de una vía de acceso enteral (sonda nasogástrica o gastrostomía), aún frecuente en nuestro medio, no es el abordaje recomendado en esta situación.

CONSECUENCIAS NUTRICIONALES DE LA DEMENCIA

La demencia, como enfermedad neurológica degenerativa, tiene un impacto importante sobre el estado nutricional del paciente. El comienzo y la progresión de los problemas para alimentarse constituyen un punto de inflexión en la demencia avanzada y la decisión de iniciar soporte nutricional es una de las decisiones más frecuentes y complejas a las que se enfrentan los familiares de pacientes con demencia.

En su curso evolutivo, la mayoría de los enfermos desarrollan diferentes problemas que afectan a su estado nutricional: alteraciones del olfato y del gusto, déficit de atención, alteración de las funciones ejecutivas (compra, preparación de las comidas, etc.), disminución de la ingesta, pérdida de peso, dispraxia (pérdida

Tabla I. Escala Global Deterioration Scale (GDS) y Functional Assessment Staging (FAST) en demencia avanzada

Estadio GDS	Estadio FAST y diagnóstico clínico	Características
GDS 6. Defecto cognitivo grave	6. EA moderada-grave	Se viste incorrectamente sin asistencia o indicaciones Olvida a veces el nombre de su cónyuge o de quien depende para vivir Retiene algunos datos del pasado Desorientación temporoespacial Dificultad para contar de 10 en 10 en orden inverso o directo Recuerda su nombre y diferencia los familiares de los desconocidos Ritmo diurno frecuentemente alterado Presenta cambios de la personalidad y la afectividad (delirio, síntomas obsesivos, ansiedad, agitación o agresividad y abulia cognoscitiva)
	6a	Se viste incorrectamente sin asistencia o indicaciones
	6b	Incapaz de bañarse correctamente
	6c	Incapaz de utilizar el váter
	6d	Incontinencia urinaria
	6e	Incontinencia fecal
GDS 7. Defecto cognitivo muy grave	7. EA grave	Pérdida progresiva de todas las capacidades verbales y motoras Con frecuencia se observan signos neurológicos
	7a	Incapaz de decir más de media docena de palabras
	7b	Solo es capaz de decir una palabra inteligible
	7c	Incapacidad de deambular sin ayuda
	7d	Incapacidad para mantenerse sentado sin ayuda
	7e	Pérdida de capacidad de sonreír
	7f	Pérdida de capacidad de mantener la cabeza erguida

de la capacidad de comer por alteración de la coordinación), agnosia (pérdida de la capacidad de reconocer los objetos o para qué se usan, por ejemplo, los cubiertos), alteraciones del comportamiento, disfagia orofaríngea, rechazo a la ingesta, etc. Las dificultades con la alimentación representan la progresión natural de la enfermedad y cuando son persistentes caracterizan su fase final, con una mortalidad a los seis meses que se aproxima al 50% (7). Una demencia FAST 7 es una demencia avanzada, en fase terminal, en la que el confort del paciente es la máxima prioridad (8), al igual que en una enfermedad neoplásica en fase terminal. Por este motivo, el tratamiento nutricional en pacientes con demencia avanzada debería considerarse en el contexto de otros tratamientos paliativos administrados (9). Más que alargar la supervivencia, lo realmente importante es asegurar la calidad de vida y el bienestar del paciente.

TRATAMIENTO NUTRICIONAL EN LA DEMENCIA AVANZADA. CONSIDERACIONES PRÁCTICAS Y SITUACIONES DE CONFLICTO

Ante un paciente con demencia avanzada que presenta dificultades o ha perdido la capacidad de alimentarse por la vía oral es necesario:

- Realizar una evaluación completa e individualizada, con especial atención a la existencia de disfagia. En esta situación es recomendable una dieta de textura modificada en la que se cuiden las propiedades sensoriales de los menús (sabor, textura, etc.) para mejorar la aceptación por parte del paciente. Existen, además, preparados comerciales no financiados de alimentación básica adaptada (ABA) que pueden ser útiles. Los módulos espesantes, especialmente a base de gomas, son útiles para espesar tanto alimentos como

líquidos, fríos o calientes, alcanzando la viscosidad deseada tras unos minutos y proporcionando estabilidad. En la tabla II se reflejan algunos consejos básicos sobre administración de dieta oral a pacientes con demencia avanzada y datos de disfagia, en la tabla III se presentan alimentos de riesgo para pacientes con disfagia y en la tabla IV se ofrecen algunas recomendaciones sobre la utilización de espesantes.

- Considerar la existencia de un documento de instrucciones previas (DIP) o de voluntades anticipadas, en el que se detallen los programas de cuidados que el paciente desea durante la evolución de la enfermedad. El representante nombrado por el paciente garantizará el cumplimiento de sus deseos.
- Elaborar un plan de cuidados basado en la adecuación del esfuerzo terapéutico, sin olvidar que el objetivo principal es el bienestar del paciente, en primer lugar, y el de su familia, reflejando en todo momento el plan terapéutico y el proceso de toma de decisiones en la historia clínica del paciente (Fig. 1). En las tablas V y VI se reflejan los pasos a seguir ante un paciente con demencia avanzada en un estadio GDS-FAST < 7 o con un GDS-FAST de 7, respectivamente.

El tratamiento nutricional en un paciente de estas características genera un importante impacto emocional en las familias, que frecuentemente demandan información y apoyo. No siempre es fácil para la familia entender el planteamiento del equipo médico en esta situación, por lo que frecuentemente se presentan, en un primer momento, situaciones de discrepancia y de conflicto. El equipo médico debe tener una actitud de comprensión y disponibilidad y valorar la necesidad de ayuda de otros profesionales (psicólogos, trabajadores sociales, etc.) o la búsqueda de interlocutores apropiados (miembros de la familia más sensibilizados con el tema, etc.). Es importante tener en cuenta que la actitud tomada en un momento determinado por presión familiar se

Tabla II. Consejos básicos sobre administración de dieta oral a pacientes con demencia avanzada y datos de disfagia

- Comer en un ambiente relajado, sin distracciones y sin prisa. La duración mínima de la ingesta debería estar alrededor de los 30–40 minutos
- Presentar menús variados
- Adaptar las texturas de los alimentos sólidos
- No mezclar alimentos de distinta consistencia y evitar alimentos de riesgo
- Consumir alimentos fríos o calientes si no hay alteraciones de la sensibilidad de la boca, del gusto o del olfato
- Enriquecer la dieta con nutrientes calóricos, proteicos (leche en polvo, etc.)
- Adaptar la viscosidad de los líquidos. Utilizar espesantes, aguas gelificadas, etc.
- Comprobar que la boca está limpia y sin residuos antes de administrar la siguiente cucharada
- Utilizar utensilios de cocina adaptados y de forma adecuada (no llenarlos demasiado)
- No utilizar pajitas ni jeringas
- Mantener una posición adecuada: sentado o a 30–45° hasta media hora después de la ingesta
- Utilizar la postura más correcta posible; en general, espalda alineada y apoyada sobre el respaldo de la silla, con la cabeza ligeramente en flexión, evitando la hiperextensión. Si dificultad para controlar la postura, utilizar un sistema de posicionamiento específico
- Seguir las maniobras deglutorias indicadas por un logopeda, si procede
- Aumentar el número de tomas y de menor cantidad si fatiga muscular
- Utilizar la presentación de los fármacos más adecuada
- Mantener una higiene orodental adecuada
- No utilizar la vía oral mientras el paciente esté adormilado o agitado.

Tabla III. Alimentos de texturas difíciles o de riesgo en pacientes con disfagia

Dobles texturas	Mezclas de líquido y sólido: sopas con trozos (pasta, verduras, carne, pescado, etc.); leche con cereales o muesli; yogures con trozos
Alimentos pegajosos	Bollería, chocolate, miel, caramelos masticables, plátano, pan de molde, puré de patatas espeso, leche condensada
Alimentos resbaladizos que se dispersan por la boca. Alimentos que no forman un bolo cohesivo	Guisantes, arroz, legumbres enteras (lentejas, garbanzos), pasta, moluscos, uvas
Alimentos que desprenden agua con la masticación	Melón, sandía, naranja, mandarinas, pera de agua
Alimentos que pueden fundirse en la boca	Helados, algunas gelatinas
Alimentos fibrosos	Piña, lechuga, apio, espárragos
Frutas y vegetales con piel y/o semillas	Mandarina, uvas, tomate, guisantes, soja
Alimentos crujientes y secos o que se desmenuzan en la boca	Tostadas y biscotes, hojaldre, galletas, patatas chips, queso seco, panes que contengan semillas
Alimentos duros y secos	Frutos secos, pan de cereales
Alimentos con pieles, grumos, huesecitos, tendones y cartílagos, espinas	

Tabla IV. Recomendaciones para la utilización adecuada de los espesantes en casos de disfagia

- Los líquidos pueden ser calentados tras la incorporación del espesante, evitando la ebullición
- No se recomienda añadir más espesante a un líquido ya espesado, para evitar la formación de grumos
- Los espesantes pueden ser neutros (no alteran el sabor del alimento o líquido) o saborizados (no financiados)
- Las aguas gelificadas son una alternativa no financiada a la utilización de espesantes para la hidratación. Se diferencian claramente de las gelatinas, no recomendables en pacientes con disfagia a líquidos por perder su viscosidad tras ser introducidas en la cavidad oral y pasar a fase líquida

puede reevaluar y reconsiderar en el tiempo, tras una adecuada comunicación y relación con la familia y los cuidadores para la toma de decisiones, respetando las creencias y opiniones de las personas y su diversidad (9). Se debe tranquilizar y explicar a la familia que el paciente, en esa fase de la enfermedad, no experimenta sensación de hambre o sed, ni va a estar mejor por recibir nutrición enteral (habitualmente el paciente necesita comer menos o rechaza el alimento).

La alimentación exclusivamente de confort, que incluye aquellas medidas dietéticas que producen satisfacción y son gratificantes para el paciente, independientemente de su función nutritiva, puede ser útil como método paliativo y de mantenimiento de un vínculo entre el paciente y la familia.

En relación a los fármacos se debe informar que, si el paciente tolera algo por vía oral, se deben utilizar las presentaciones más cómodas (solución, sublingual, transmucosa, etc.) e intentar mantener esta vía siempre y cuando no genere malestar al paciente. Cuando no es posible la vía oral, es de elección la vía subcutánea para administrar la medicación necesaria para el control de síntomas e incluso los antibióticos.

Cuando así se nos solicite, se debe informar a la familia de una forma clara y comprensible sobre los siguientes puntos:

1. Qué es la nutrición enteral.
2. La ausencia de utilidad demostrada de la nutrición enteral en pacientes con demencia avanzada y sus potenciales complicaciones.

3. La ausencia en el paciente de la sensación de hambre y/o sed.
4. El concepto de alimentación/hidratación de confort.
5. La no indicación de nutrición artificial no significa el cese de los cuidados.

En la tabla VII se muestran las preguntas más comunes que realiza la familia sobre la nutrición e hidratación artificial en la demencia avanzada, con una propuesta de respuesta a las mismas.

NUTRICIÓN ENTERAL EN DEMENCIA AVANZADA. EVIDENCIA CIENTÍFICA

A pesar de los esfuerzos para mejorar la ingesta oral, en la mayoría de pacientes con demencia avanzada los problemas para alimentarse continuarán o se agravarán. Existen dos opciones principales: mantener la alimentación oral asistida (alimentación de confort, *by hand*), de la que ya se ha hablado anteriormente, o la colocación de una sonda para nutrición.

La evidencia científica no apoya el uso de nutrición enteral (NE) por sonda en pacientes con demencia avanzada que tienen dificultades para la alimentación, ya que no se ha demostrado que disminuya el número de neumonías por broncoaspiración (incluso lo puede aumentar), prevenga ni mejore la cicatrización de las úlceras por presión, ni que tampoco mejore el estado nutricional,

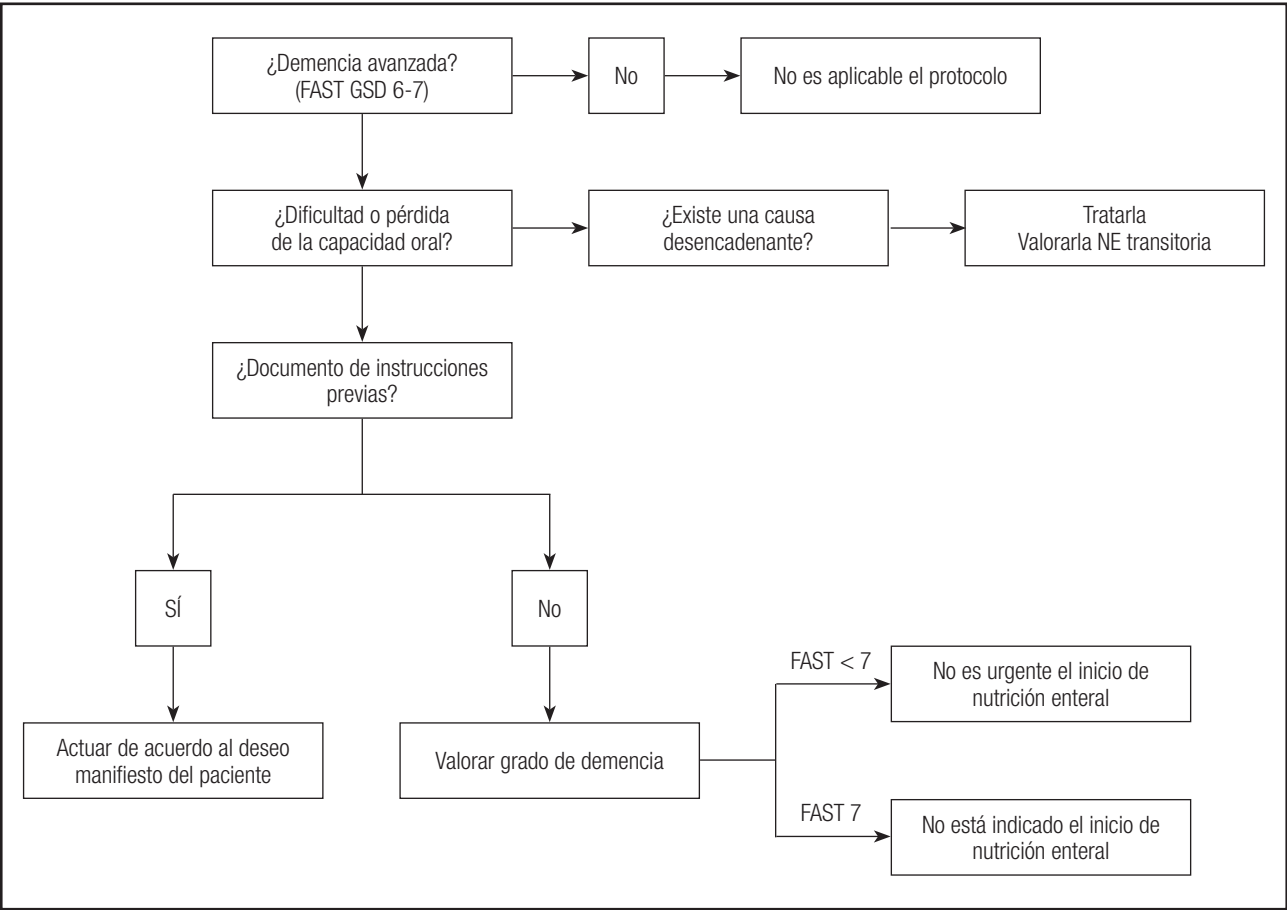


Figura 1. Algoritmo de toma de decisiones sobre la colocación de una sonda para alimentación en pacientes con demencia avanzada.

Tabla V. Demencia avanzada con GDS-FAST 6. No es urgente la nutrición enteral

1. Realizar una valoración individualizada
2. Tener en cuenta las instrucciones previas, en caso de que existan
3. Organizar un plan de cuidados realizando una correcta adecuación del esfuerzo terapéutico:
– No es urgente colocar una sonda ni iniciar nutrición enteral
– Investigar problemas potencialmente reversibles y tratar (riesgo–beneficio)
– Para administrar la medicación necesaria para control de síntomas y antibióticos si precisase, si no se dispone de la vía oral, la vía subcutánea es la vía de elección
– Es posible administrar hidratación subcutánea mientras esperamos el efecto de los antibióticos y/o la recuperación de la vía oral
– Si se conserva algo de tolerancia por vía oral, mantener alimentación oral de confort y utilizar los fármacos estrictamente necesarios (en solución, sublingual, transmucoso, rectal, etc.)
– Si no se recupera la vía oral y existen dudas sobre el beneficio del tratamiento médico nutricional: valoración por equipo multidisciplinar
4. Informar a la familia y al equipo y registrar el proceso en la historia clínica
5. Soporte emocional/espiritual a la familia (psicólogo, trabajador social, etc.)
6. Si hay dudas en el proceso de toma de decisiones, consultar con otros profesionales (Comité de Ética Asistencial del centro, etc.)

la supervivencia o la calidad de vida (10-12), si bien es cierto que el nivel de la evidencia es bajo (13) y que existen también posiciones más críticas a la negativa al uso de nutrición enteral en pacientes con DA (14).

También hay que considerar las complicaciones relacionadas con la técnica de la NE: complicaciones mecánicas (en relación con el acceso enteral), gastrointestinales, metabólicas, necesidad de contención física o sedación (lo que merma

Tabla VI. Demencia avanzada con GDS-FAST 7. No está indicada la nutrición enteral

1. Realizar una valoración individualizada
2. Tener en cuenta las instrucciones previas, en caso de que existan
3. Organizar un plan de cuidados realizando una correcta adecuación del esfuerzo terapéutico:
 - No está indicado el inicio de nutrición enteral
 - Para administrar la medicación necesaria para control de síntomas y antibióticos si precisase, si no se dispone de la vía oral, la vía subcutánea es la vía de elección
 - Es posible administrar hidratación subcutánea mientras esperamos el efecto de los antibióticos y/o la recuperación de la vía oral
 - Si se conserva algo de tolerancia por vía oral, mantener alimentación oral de confort y utilizar los fármacos estrictamente necesarios (en solución, sublingual, transmucoso, rectal, etc.)
 - Si no se recupera la vía oral y existen dudas sobre el beneficio del tratamiento médico nutricional: valoración por equipo multidisciplinar
 - Evitar remitir a estos pacientes a Servicios de Urgencias (derivar a Cuidados Paliativos por parte de Atención Primaria; si no es posible, en el hospital o con servicios de hospitalización a domicilio, paliativos, etc.)
4. Informar a la familia y al equipo y registrar el proceso en la historia clínica
5. Soporte emocional/espiritual a la familia (psicólogo, trabajador social, etc.)
6. Si hay dudas en el proceso de toma de decisiones, consultar con otros profesionales (Comité de Ética Asistencial del centro, etc.)

Tabla VII. Preguntas y respuestas más comunes sobre la nutrición e hidratación artificial en la demencia avanzada

¿Qué es la nutrición e hidratación artificial?
La nutrición e hidratación artificial es la administración de nutrientes y agua por vía gastrointestinal (enteral) o por vía intravenosa (parenteral). Si se utiliza la vía gastrointestinal, se usan sondas nasogástricas (que se introducen a través de la nariz y llegan al estómago) o gastrostomías (que se introducen directamente a través de la piel al estómago)
Mi ser querido tiene demencia avanzada. ¿Sería útil la nutrición e hidratación artificial?
La nutrición artificial no puede, por sí misma, curar ni revertir la demencia y puede tener complicaciones importantes que, a veces, pueden hacer que el paciente precise hospitalización (hemorragia, infección, etc.) y que, en algunos casos, pueden condicionar la muerte No se dispone de evidencia clínica que demuestre que la nutrición e hidratación artificial aumenten la supervivencia, disminuyan las infecciones, eviten las neumonías por aspiración, eviten o mejoren la evolución de las úlceras por presión, aumenten el peso, ni mejoren el estado funcional o la calidad de vida de estos enfermos
Mi ser querido tiene demencia avanzada. ¿No se sentiría mejor si recibiese nutrición e hidratación artificial? ¿No tendrá hambre y sed si no la recibe?
La nutrición e hidratación artificial no hace que los pacientes en esta situación se sientan mejor. Por el contrario, incluso la hidratación simple con sueros en los pacientes en las etapas finales de la vida se ha asociado a una mayor incidencia de náuseas y vómitos, aumento de secreciones y problemas pulmonares, hinchazón del cuerpo, etc., lo que obliga en ocasiones a utilizar catéteres y otros tratamientos. A veces es necesario incluso atar a estos pacientes para evitar que ellos mismos se quiten los distintos tubos del cuerpo. La hidratación artificial no siempre consigue calmar la sensación de sequedad y hay estudios que indican que evitar el uso de nutrición artificial en las etapas finales de la vida se acompaña de comodidad para el paciente y de una muerte más tranquila y sosegada. Además, la mayoría de los pacientes en esta situación no perciben hambre ni sed, y cuando lo hacen, generalmente quieren saborear alimentos específicos y responden a la administración de trocitos de hielo, sorbos de líquido, a que se le humedezcan los labios, etc. Si existe disminución de la capacidad para tragar alimentos y/o líquidos, el equipo sanitario nos puede dar consejos sobre cómo actuar en esta situación para cubrir las necesidades y mantener un contacto humano con nuestro ser querido
Entonces, si no le damos de comer ni de beber, ¿eso ocasionará su fallecimiento?
No, la causa del fallecimiento será la evolución de la propia enfermedad terminal. Además, el hecho de que no se le administre nutrición artificial no significa que no se tomen las medidas necesarias para su máxima comodidad y confort

la calidad de vida del paciente y atenta incluso contra su dignidad personal), etc. En este sentido, tanto la ESPEN en 2006 (15) como el American Geriatrics Society Ethics Committee (10) contraindican la nutrición enteral por sonda en pacientes con DA. En igual sentido se posicionan las guías clínicas de ESPEN del año 2015, con un grado de evidencia alto (16). Se refuerza la importancia de explicar a la familia

que el tratamiento de las complicaciones médicas de esta fase irá dirigido al máximo confort y no a la máxima supervivencia a cualquier precio.

En cualquier caso, ante un paciente concreto, es fundamental diferenciar entre la evolución natural de la enfermedad y un agravamiento potencialmente reversible, debido a comorbilidad o a efectos adversos de fármacos. Excepcionalmente se puede

considerar la NE como una medida temporal en espera de evolución, siendo necesario reevaluar su beneficio y suspenderla en los casos en los que no se observe dicho efecto beneficioso o si genera complicaciones.

De hecho, como con cualquier tratamiento médico, la suspensión y el no inicio de un tratamiento se consideran éticamente equivalentes, por lo que suspender la NE cuando no se cumplan los objetivos es apropiado. Siempre que existan dudas, se recomienda consultar con un equipo multidisciplinar y, si fuese preciso, con un comité de ética asistencial.

CONSIDERACIONES LEGALES

La Ley 5/2015, de 26 de junio, de Derechos y Garantías de la Dignidad de las Personas Enfermas Terminales, en su artículo 10 (sobre el derecho a rechazar tratamientos), da el mismo régimen legal a procedimientos quirúrgicos, de hidratación y alimentación y de reanimación artificial o la retirada de medidas de soporte vital cuando sean extraordinarios o desproporcionados a las perspectivas de mejoría y produzcan dolor y/o sufrimiento desmesurados (17).

VOLUNTADES ANTICIPADAS, TESTAMENTO VITAL O DOCUMENTO DE INSTRUCCIONES PREVIAS (DIP)

La Ley 41/2002, de 14 de noviembre, Básica Reguladora de la Autonomía del Paciente y de Derechos y Obligaciones en Materia de Información y Documentación Clínica, en su artículo 11 hace referencia a las instrucciones previas (18).

El DIP es el documento por el cual una persona mayor de edad y con capacidad libremente manifiesta anticipadamente su voluntad, con objeto de que esta se cumpla en el momento en que llegue a situaciones en cuyas circunstancias no sea capaz de expresar o adoptar decisiones. El DIP lo puede hacer cualquier persona mayor de edad, capaz y libre, por escrito, de alguna de las tres formas siguientes:

- Ante tres testigos, de los que dos no podrán ser familiares en segundo grado ni estar vinculados por relación patrimonial con el otorgante.
- Ante notario, sin que sean necesarios los testigos.
- Ante el personal del Registro de la Comunidad Autónoma correspondiente y accesible desde cualquier centro sanitario.

La voluntad del paciente puede referirse a los cuidados y tratamientos médicos que pueda recibir en situaciones críticas e irreversibles para su vida o en el supuesto de incapacidad por enfermedades como la demencia. También sobre el destino de su cuerpo y sus órganos en caso de fallecimiento.

El otorgante del documento puede designar, además, un representante para que, llegado el caso, sirva como interlocutor con el equipo sanitario para cumplir dichas instrucciones.

Sería recomendable la elaboración de una planificación anticipada de los cuidados, resultado de la comunicación entre una

persona capaz y los profesionales sanitarios implicados en su atención, realizada precozmente en la evolución de la enfermedad, acerca de los valores, deseos y preferencias que quiere que se tengan en cuenta respecto a la atención sanitaria que recibirá, sobre todo en el momento final de su vida. En el caso de una persona a la que se le realiza el diagnóstico de demencia, la recomendación para elaborar el DIP debería acompañar prácticamente al diagnóstico, ya que en las fases iniciales el paciente puede mantener su autonomía y capacidad para tomar decisiones y debería poder expresar en libertad sus preferencias sobre tratamientos médicos, nutrición artificial, etc. (19).

Los profesionales sanitarios estamos obligados a incorporar estos documentos a la historia clínica, informarnos de su existencia a través del registro pertinente y aplicarlos siempre que no sean contrarios a la *lex artis*, al ordenamiento jurídico, o no se correspondan con el supuesto previsto por la persona en el momento de manifestarlas. Además, debemos informar al paciente de la posibilidad de emitir instrucciones previas (rnip@mscbs.es), apoyarle en su reflexión y prestarle ayuda para definir situaciones previsibles en la evolución futura de su enfermedad que le permitan concretar los límites de sus decisiones.

Es importante señalar que las instrucciones previas pueden ser modificadas en cualquier momento por la persona que las otorgó, dejando constancia por escrito. Mientras el enfermo conserve su capacidad, su voluntad (aunque esta la exprese verbalmente y no por escrito) siempre prevalecerá, incluso sobre las decisiones que anteriormente hubiese hecho constar en el DIP.

CONSIDERACIONES ÉTICAS

No todo lo técnicamente posible es éticamente admisible. En el Documento *“Los cuidados al final de la vida”*, elaborado por la Comisión Galega de Bioética (20), se reflexionaba del siguiente modo: “Ninguna de estas medidas (la hidratación y la alimentación, en situaciones de fin de vida) le proporciona al paciente beneficio alguno, ni contribuye a mejorar la calidad de vida; muy al contrario, prolongan su agonía con el consiguiente aumento de su sufrimiento y el de sus allegados”. En las guías ESPEN recientes, así como en NICE, se refleja que la instauración de sondas para nutrición en pacientes con DA es un tratamiento fútil y solo contribuye a prolongar el sufrimiento.

Aunque se proponga o se solicite, la nutrición enteral por sonda pocas veces es un procedimiento adecuado en pacientes con DA. El mantenimiento de la alimentación oral modificada y administrada de una forma cuidadosa es, en general, al menos tan seguro como la NE, permite el disfrute y la interacción social y constituye el modo de cuidado más adecuado. La decisión de colocar una sonda para nutrición solo debe ser realizada después de compartir con el paciente y sus familiares los datos sobre ventajas e inconvenientes, teniendo en cuenta los deseos, creencias y valores del paciente, previamente manifestados, y también los de sus allegados. En algunos casos se puede llegar a insertar una sonda para nutrición que pensemos que no está indicada. El buen hacer del profesional, centrado en el paciente y capaz de establecer una

relación de confianza con la familia es clave en el proceso y puede permitir la reconsideración de la decisión en el tiempo.

CONCLUSIONES

- La NE por sonda no está recomendada en términos generales en pacientes con demencia avanzada a la luz de la evidencia científica disponible, las guías de práctica clínica y la mayoría de las guías y documentos éticos.
- Los profesionales sanitarios no deberían promover el uso generalizado de la NE por sonda, considerando que es un tratamiento médico y requiere una decisión médica, unos objetivos claros y una técnica que conlleve riesgos asociados.
- Debemos considerar la existencia de voluntades anticipadas del paciente y promover la redacción de planes de cuidados desde etapas tempranas de la enfermedad.
- Si por alguna circunstancia se inicia tratamiento con nutrición artificial (presión familiar, etc.), esta actitud será siempre reevaluable en el tiempo, trabajando los pros y los contras de dicha indicación y dando un margen al entorno familiar para aceptar las recomendaciones planteadas.
- Debemos informar de manera adecuada y comprensible a la familia, cuidador o tutor legal de las decisiones tomadas por el equipo y siempre hay que dejar muy claro que el no iniciar una nutrición artificial no supone la interrupción de los cuidados a su ser querido.

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Carta al Editor

SITUACIÓN MUNDIAL DE LA ANEMIA EN GESTANTES

Sr. Editor:

La anemia está definida como una condición en la cual se observa un número deficiente de glóbulos rojos y, por consiguiente, una alteración en el transporte de oxígeno. Esto imposibilita al ser vivo cumplir sus funciones vitales (1) y son las poblaciones vulnerables los infantes (seis a 60 meses) y gestantes.

El diagnóstico de esta patología se basa en la medición de la hemoglobina (Hb), proteína que contiene el 70% del hierro corporal. Los valores del punto de corte para el diagnóstico fueron designados de manera arbitraria en 1967 por un grupo de expertos de la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) (2). Sin embargo, en el 2016 se realizaron cambios en el punto de corte para gestantes, indicando 110 g/l para el primer trimestre y 105 g/l para el segundo trimestre (3). Además, se priorizó la valoración del hemograma completo para diagnosticar anemia sobre el uso del hemoglobinómetro.

Durante la gestación hay un requerimiento de un gramo adicional de hierro (4). Este requerimiento debe ser regulado por el eje hepcidina-ferroportina, modulando la biodisponibilidad del hierro, absorción y eritropoyesis. Con el aumento de la masa celular roja, y para evitar un aumento de la viscosidad sanguínea, el volumen plasmático debe incrementarse en un 45-50%, un porcentaje mayor que el aumento de la masa roja, y con ello ocurre una hemodilución que determina que la concentración de Hb disminuya (5), de tal forma que el flujo útero-placentario no se vea afectado.

En distintas revisiones se apunta a la anemia por deficiencia de hierro como la mayor causa de anemia; sin embargo, debemos considerar que existen otros factores como la anemia inflamatoria, la cual es la segunda mayor causa de la disminución de Hb. Para el tratamiento de esta patología debe descartarse la suplementación de hierro, ya que este no sería absorbido puesto que las citoquinas proinflamatorias estimulan la vía de traducción de hepcidina, lo que genera un bloqueo de

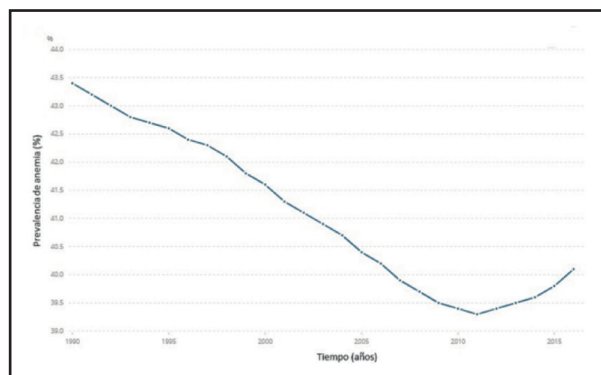


Figura 1.

Prevalencia mundial de anemia en gestantes a través del tiempo. Fuente: Banco Mundial (9).

la ferroportina y disminuye, por consiguiente, la biodisponibilidad de hierro (6).

A nivel mundial, el punto de corte para el diagnóstico de anemia gestacional ha sido un tema controversial. La mejor manera para determinar el valor óptimo es cuando se asocia con el resultado materno-perinatal. Cho y cols. (2017) (7) mencionan que los valores de anemia leve son el rango óptimo para tener resultados perinatales favorables. Por otro lado, Young y cols. (2019) (8), en un análisis sistemático, detallan que tanto los valores por debajo del punto del corte de 110 g/l como los valores mayores de 130 g/l de hemoglobina muestran resultado materno-perinatal adverso.

La OMS ha mostrado que a nivel mundial se ha establecido un patrón de la prevalencia de anemia en gestantes a lo largo de los años. Después de una reducción en la prevalencia de anemia desde 2010 se ha mostrado un estancamiento de las cifras. En la figura 1 se puede observar que la prevalencia mundial ha ido decreciendo hasta un 39,3% (2011) (9). Con esta evidencia plasmada en cifras mundiales, podemos cuestionarnos si es que las medidas públicas que se toman son las adecuadas o si estarían siendo sustentadas en evidencia científica.

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