

# Associations between dietary patterns and metabolic syndrome in adolescents

Guadalupe Ramírez-López, DSc,<sup>(1)</sup> Mario Flores-Aldana, PhD,<sup>(2)</sup> Jorge Salmerón, DSc.<sup>(3,4)</sup>

Ramírez-López G, Flores-Aldana M, Salmerón J.  
Associations between dietary patterns  
and metabolic syndrome in adolescents.  
*Salud Publica Mex.* 2019;61:619-628.

<https://doi.org/10.21149/9541>

Ramírez-López G, Flores-Aldana M, Salmerón J.  
Asociación entre patrones de alimentación y  
síndrome metabólico en adolescentes.  
*Salud Publica Mex.* 2019;61:619-628.

<https://doi.org/10.21149/9541>

## Abstract

**Objective.** Evaluate association of dietary patterns with metabolic syndrome (MetS) and metabolic markers. **Materials and methods.** 654 adolescents from Guadalajara, Jalisco, participated in a cross-sectional study. Diet was evaluated using a food frequency questionnaire; 24 food groups were integrated, and dietary patterns were derived using cluster analysis. MetS was defined according to International Diabetes Federation (IDF), Cook and colleagues, Ford and colleagues, and de Ferranti and colleagues criteria. **Results.** Dietary patterns identified were: “DP1”, “DP2”, and “DP3”. Among males, “DP3” was associated with MetS (Cook and collaborators) (OR, 12.14; 95%CI, 1.66-89.05), hypertriglyceridemia (OR, 3.89; 95%CI, 1.01-15.07), and insulin resistance (OR, 6.66; 95%CI, 1.12-39.70). “DP2” was associated with abdominal obesity (OR, 5.11; 95%CI, 1.57-16.66). **Conclusions.** “DP3” entertained a greater risk of MetS, hypertriglyceridemia, and insulin resistance, while “DP2” possessed a greater risk of abdominal obesity among adolescent males.

Keywords: metabolic syndrome; dietary patterns; fast foods; sugar-sweetened beverages; adolescents

## Resumen

**Objetivo.** Evaluar la asociación de patrones dietarios (PD) con síndrome metabólico (SM) y marcadores metabólicos. **Material y métodos.** Estudio transversal con 654 adolescentes. Dieta evaluada con el cuestionario “frecuencia de consumos de alimentos”; se identificaron 24 grupos de alimentos, para obtener PD mediante análisis de conglomerados. SM se definió según los criterios: Federación de Diabetes Internacional (IDF), Cook y colaboradores, Ford y colaboradores y Ferranti y colaboradores. **Resultados.** Se identificaron tres PD: “PD1”, “PD2” y “PD3”. En hombres, “PD3” se asoció con SM (Cook y colaboradores) (RM, 12.14; IC95%, 1.66-89.05), hipertrigliceridemia (RM, 3.89; IC95%, 1.01-15.07) y resistencia a insulina (RM, 6.66; IC95%, 1.12-39.70). El patrón “PD2” se asoció con obesidad abdominal (RM, 5.11; IC95%, 1.57-16.66). **Conclusiones.** El patrón “PD3” aumenta el riesgo de SM, hipertrigliceridemia y resistencia a insulina y el “PD2” el riesgo de obesidad abdominal en adolescentes hombres.

Palabras clave: síndrome metabólico; patrones dietarios; comida rápida; bebidas endulzadas; adolescentes

(1) Unidad de Investigación Epidemiológica y en Servicios de Salud del Adolescente, Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social. Tonalá, Jalisco, México.

(2) Centro de Investigación en Nutrición y Salud, Instituto Nacional de Salud Pública. Cuernavaca, Morelos, México.

(3) Centro de Investigación en Políticas, Población y Salud, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. Ciudad de México, México.

(4) Centro de Investigación en Salud Poblacional, Instituto Nacional de Salud Pública. Cuernavaca, Morelos, México.

Received on: March 7, 2018 • Accepted on: April 30, 2019

Corresponding author: Guadalupe Ramírez-López. Av. Tonalá 121. 45400 Tonalá, Jalisco, México.

E-mail: maria.ramirezlo@imss.gob.mx

The prevalence of metabolic syndrome (MetS) in Mexican adolescents is higher (6.5-19.2%)<sup>1,2</sup> than in other ethnic groups (4.5%).<sup>3</sup> Diet and physical activity play a role in the development of MetS.<sup>4</sup>

Dietary patterns (DP) are defined as “nutritional variables grouped according to some nutritional criteria, in which variables are reduced into a smaller number of variables through statistical manipulation”.<sup>5</sup> DP have the advantage of evaluating the potential synergistic effects of foods and nutrients and of reducing epidemiological limitations in comparison with single-food or nutrient approaches. Dietary guidelines might be focused on a food-based approach and not only on a nutrient-based approach that is unclear and favors the consumption of industrialized products designed to meet individual nutrient goals rather than achieving a healthy diet.<sup>6</sup>

In adults, DP predict obesity, MetS, and other chronic diseases; nevertheless, some inconsistencies exist.<sup>5,7,8</sup> In adolescents, some reports suggest that a “Western” or “obesogenic” DP is positively associated with overweight.<sup>9</sup> Others failed to detect such association<sup>10</sup> or with MetS.<sup>11</sup> Moreover, an inverse association between the “fast food and sweet” DP and obesity was reported.<sup>12</sup> More studies are needed in adolescents because they have unique nutritional needs and cultural particularities and the still existing inconsistencies require further evaluation. We evaluated the association of DP with MetS and metabolic markers (insulin resistance [IR] and lipids) in adolescents.

## Materials and methods

We conducted a cross-sectional study in public high schools in Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico. Adolescents who were willing to participate were included in the study ( $n=681$ ). Participation rate was 89.3%. Participants with incomplete data ( $n=9$ ), or with implausible total energy intake ( $<800$  kcal/day or  $>6000$  kcal/day) ( $n=18$ ) were excluded from analysis. Finally, 654 participants were included. Previous studies including some of these participants have been reported.<sup>13</sup> The Institutional Review Board of the Mexican Institute of Social Security approved the protocol. Written informed consent was obtained from all the participants and their parents.

Questionnaires and anthropometric measurements were performed by nutritionists. After five minutes of rest, two systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) readings were taken with a digital sphygmomanometer (Omron HEM-751; Vernon Hills, IL, USA).

A venipuncture blood sample was collected after a 12-h fast. Serum samples were centrifuged and stored

at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until analysis. Glucose levels were determined with the hexokinase method in an automated system (Synchron CX4; Beckman Coulter, Inc., Brea, CA, USA) and insulin with an immunometric method utilizing an Immulite 2000 analyzer (Diagnostic Products Co., Los Angeles CA, USA). IR was estimated with  $\text{HOMA-IR} = \text{fasting insulin } (\mu\text{U/ml}) \times \text{fasting glucose } (\text{mmol/l}) / 22.5$ . Total cholesterol and triglycerides were estimated by conventional enzymatic procedures. High-density lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C) and low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol (LDL-C) were determined directly by immunochemical methods utilizing an ILab 300 Plus analyzer (Instrumentation Laboratory, Ltd., Birchwood, Warrington, UK).

## Assessment of exposure variables

Diet was assessed using a semi-quantitative food-frequency questionnaire (FFQ).<sup>14</sup> The questionnaire included 116 food items with eight options of frequency consumption (ranging from never to four or more times per day) in the previous year. For each food item, a commonly used portion was used. Food or beverage intake was computed multiplying food frequency consumption by the specific portion size of each food item. Food and beverages were converted into total daily energy, macro and micronutrient intake with the Evaluation System of Nutritional Habits and Nutrient Intake.<sup>15</sup>

In order to identify the DP, foods were first integrated into 24 mutually exclusive food groups; the criteria for integrating a food group was based on macronutrient composition, as well as on other components (dietary fiber, sucrose content, culinary aspects, or traditional foods). The food groups employed are listed in table I. DP were derived using cluster analysis, which allows reducing data into patterns according to individual differences in mean intakes.<sup>5</sup> Energy percent values were obtained for each food group as follows: percentage of energy intake for a food group =  $\sum (\text{energy intake of each food in a food group} \times 100 / \text{daily total energy intake})$ .<sup>7</sup> The percentage of energy intake value for each food group was standardized (z-scores) for their entry into cluster analysis. We used a k-means method, which partitions subjects into clusters that maximize the Euclidian distance among clusters. We selected a three-cluster solution based on its size, ease of dietary interpretation, and according to our knowledge of the Mexican diet.

The following items concerning eating habits were included at the last part of the FFQ: How often did you have breakfast on average last year? ( $<1$  a week, 1-2 times a week, 3-4 times a week, 5-6 times a week, daily). Do you eat while watching TV? (yes/no). How

**Table I**  
**FOOD GROUPS USED IN DIETARY PATTERN ANALYSIS. GUADALAJARA, JALISCO, 2003**

<i>Food group</i>	<i>Food items</i>
Fast food	Hamburger, hot dog, pizza, sandwich, <i>torta</i>
Mexican food	Hot maize beverage ( <i>atole</i> ), <i>quesadilla</i> , <i>pozole</i> , <i>tacos</i> , <i>tamal</i> , <i>tostada</i>
Whole-fat dairy product	Whole-fat cheese, whole-fat milk, whole-fat yoghurt
Meat	Beef, ham, lamb, liver, pork, sausage, shrimp
Sweetened beverages	Soda, sweetened beverages, sweetened juice
Sweet baked goods	Cake, cookie, french toast, hot cake, pastry
<i>Tortilla</i>	Maize <i>tortilla</i>
Fruits	Apple, banana, grapes, guava, jicama, lime, mandarine, mango, melon, orange, orange juice, papaya, peach, pear, pineapple, plum, prickly pear, strawberry, watermelon
Legumes and seeds	Beans, chickpea, lentils, peanuts
Refined grains	Breakfast cereal, pasta, potato, rice, wheat tortilla, white bread
Milk beverages	<i>Biónico</i> , milkshake
Sweets with fat	Chocolate bar, powder chocolate, ice cream
Snacks	Chips, potato chips
Sweets	Candy, <i>cajeta</i> , jam, jelly
Vegetables	Beetroot, broccoli, carrot, cauliflower, chilli, courgette, cucumber, lettuce, <i>nopal</i> , onion, pea, spinach, string bean, tomato, zucchini
Wholegrains	Corn, high-fibre ready-to-eat cereal, oat, wholemeal bread, wholemeal <i>tortilla</i>
Egg	Eggs
Fish	Canned tuna, sardine, other fish
Butter	Bacon, butter, cream, cream cheese, margarine
Poultry	Chicken
Low-fat dairy product	Low-fat cheese, low-fat milk
Alcohol	Beer, wine, spirits
Avocado	Avocado
Low-energy soda	Diet soda

often did you eat away from home last year? (<1 a week, 1-3 times a week, 4-6 times a week, daily). During the last year, did you take vitamins? (yes/no). Where did you more frequently eat hamburgers, hot dogs, pizza? (home, fast-food restaurant, school, another place). When you eat chicken, do you remove its skin? (yes/no). When you eat meat, do you remove its fat? (yes/no). How many teaspoons of sugar do you add to your drinks to sweeten them?

### Assessment of covariates

Smoking was defined as at least one cigarette/day during the past month.<sup>16</sup> Pubertal development was defined according to Tanner stages.<sup>17</sup> Overweight and

obesity were defined according to International Obesity Task Force criteria and body fat percentage, with the Slaughter equation.<sup>18</sup> Physical activity was evaluated with a Questionnaire on Physical Activity and Inactivity in Mexican Children.<sup>19</sup>

### Assessment of outcome variables

MetS was defined according to International Diabetes Federation (IDF) criteria. For adolescents aged 10-15 years, abdominal obesity (AO) (waist circumference [WC]  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age and sex), and two or more of the following: glucose  $\geq 100$  mg/dl; triglycerides  $\geq 150$  mg/dl; HDL-C  $< 40$  mg/dl, and SBP  $> 130$  mmHg or DBP  $> 85$  mmHg. For adolescents aged  $\geq 16$  years, AO

(WC  $\geq 90$  cm [males] and  $\geq 80$  cm [females]), and two or more of the following: glucose  $\geq 100$  mg/dl; triglycerides  $\geq 150$  mg/dl; HDL-C  $< 40$  mg/dl (males) or  $< 50$  mg/dl (females), and SBP  $> 130$  mmHg or DBP  $> 85$  mmHg.<sup>20</sup>

Other MetS definitions for adolescents were used; these include three or more of the following criteria. Cook and collaborators definition: WC  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age and sex; glucose  $\geq 110$  mg/dl; triglycerides  $\geq 110$  mg/dl; HDL-C  $\geq 40$  mg/dl, and SBP or DBP,  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age, sex, and height.<sup>21</sup> De Ferranti and collaborators definition: WC  $> 75^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age and sex; glucose  $\geq 110$  mg/dl; triglycerides  $\geq 100$  mg/dl; HDL-C  $< 45$  mg/dl (15-19 years, males) and  $< 50$  mg/dl (everyone else), and SBP or DBP  $> 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age, sex, and height.<sup>22</sup> Ford and collaborators definition: WC  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age and sex; glucose  $\geq 100$  mg/dl; triglycerides  $\geq 110$  mg/dl; HDL-C  $\leq 40$  mg/dl, and SBP or DBP,  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for age, sex and height.<sup>23</sup>

Metabolic markers. High total cholesterol was defined as  $\geq 200$  mg/dl, high LDL-C as  $\geq 130$  mg/dl,<sup>24</sup> high insulin as  $\geq 15.05$   $\mu\text{U}/\text{ml}$ , and HOMA-IR as  $\geq 3.43$ .<sup>25</sup>

### Statistical analysis

Descriptive analysis included means (SD), medians (25<sup>th</sup> percentile, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile) and percentages. Student's *t* test to evaluate mean differences, Kruskal-Wallis to evaluate median differences and Dunn's test for multiple comparisons. Chi-squared test or Fisher exact test to evaluate differences in percentages. The associations of DP with MetS and with metabolic markers were evaluated using crude and multivariate logistic regression analyses. First, interactions of DP with covariates were evaluated using logistic regression models. If an effect modifier was identified, multiple logistic regressions were run after stratifying by the specific effect modifier. Adjustments were performed by sexual development, smoking, body fat, total physical activity, and energy consumption. Statistical analyses were realized with STATA v9.2 (Stata Corp., TX, USA) and SigmaSTAT 4.0 (Systat Software Inc., CA, USA). A *p* value of  $< 0.05$  was considered as statistically significant.

## Results

Mean age of the participants was  $15.8 \pm 1.0$  years, 51.7% were women, 28.8% were overweight or obese. MetS prevalence according to different definitions was: 5.1% (IDF); 7.2% (Cook and collaborators); 8.1% (Ford and collaborators), and 16.4% (Ferranti and collaborators).

Three DP were identified (table II): 1) "DP1", characterized by lower energy intake and lower consumption

of cholesterol; 2) "DP2", characterized by higher intake of protein, cholesterol, saturated fats, sodium, dietary fiber, vitamins, and minerals, and 3) "DP3", characterized by higher energy, carbohydrate, sucrose, fructose, and alcohol intake and lower protein intake (table III). Regarding food composition, the "DP1" was characterized by *tortilla*, the "DP2" by whole fat dairy products, meat, refined grains, fruits, and milk beverages, and the "DP3", by Mexican food, sweetened beverages, sweet baked goods, sweets with fat, snacks, sweets, and alcohol. It is noteworthy that the energy intake of unhealthy foods (fast foods, sweetened beverages, sweet baked goods, sweets with fat, snacks, sweets, and alcohol) was high in the three DP, being highest in the "DP3" (49.3%), then the "DP1" (40.2%), and finally, the "DP2" (36.9%). Contrariwise, the energy intake of healthy foods (legumes and nuts, fruits, vegetables, wholegrains, *tortilla*, eggs, fish, poultry, low-fat dairy products, and avocado) was low in the three DP: 17.1% in the "DP3", 21.2% in the "DP1", and finally, 20.1% in the "DP2".

Adolescents consuming mainly the "DP3" were older, mainly female, smokers and physically active ( $p < 0.05$  for all, data not shown).

Unhealthy eating habits were different according to DP; more than one half of adolescents who skipped breakfast were in the "DP1" or in the "DP3". Moreover, lunch away-from-home, fast food consumption away-from-home, eating chicken skin and adding  $\geq 3$  teaspoons of sugar to beverages was higher in the "DP3" ( $p < 0.05$  for all) (table IV). The remaining eating habits did not differ among dietary groups.

Finally, interactions between sex and DP were found ( $p < 0.05$ ); therefore, multiple logistic regression analyses were performed after stratifying by sex. Among males, the "DP3" was associated with MetS (Cook and colleagues OR, 12.14; 95% CI, 1.66-89.05; de Ferranti and colleagues OR, 5.10; 95% CI, 1.20-21.72, and Ford and colleagues OR, 9.29; 95% CI, 1.44-59.73), high triglycerides (OR, 3.89; 95% CI, 1.01-15.07), and HOMA-IR (OR, 6.66; 95% CI, 1.12-39.70). Also, the "DP2" was associated with AO (OR, 5.11; 95% CI, 1.57-16.66). Females showed no statistically significant association (table V).

## Discussion

Our results suggest that DP are associated in different ways with obesity and MetS, and the "DP3" has the greatest risk of MetS, hypertriglyceridemia, and IR, while the "DP2" exhibits a greater risk of AO among adolescent males, but not among females.

The "DP3" was associated with MetS (defined by Cook and colleagues, de Ferranti and colleagues, and Ford and colleagues), hypertriglyceridemia, and IR in

**Table II**  
**PERCENTAGE OF ENERGY CONTRIBUTION OF FOOD GROUPS BY DIETARY PATTERNS.\* GUADALAJARA, JALISCO, 2003**

	DPI n= 497	DP2 n=103	DP3 n= 54	p value <sup>‡</sup>	p value <sup>§</sup>		
					DPI vs. DP2	DPI vs. DP3	DP2 vs. DP3
Fast food	15.5 (10.6-21.6)	15.5 (10.9-23.8)	13.7 (9.2-17.8)	0.147	-	-	-
Mexican food	9.4 (6.8-14.0)	10.0 (5.4-14.2)	11.5 (7.1-15.2)	0.234	-	-	-
Whole-fat dairy products	9.1 (5.8-13.8)	9.8 (6.0-14.7)	6.9 (4.7-9.0)	<0.001	0.430	0.003	<0.001
Meat	6.9 (5.4-9.2)	7.4 (4.9-9.5)	5.9 (4.4-7.9)	0.052	-	-	-
Sweetened beverages	8.3 (5.8-11.8)	6.0 (4.5-8.1)	13.2 (9.5-18.0)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Sweet baked goods	5.5 (3.2-8.5)	5.7 (3.3-8.3)	7.8 (4.0-9.6)	0.062	-	-	-
Tortilla	5.0 (2.2-7.3)	4.0 (1.6-5.5)	3.8 (1.4-4.6)	0.002	0.047	0.013	1.000
Fruits	4.1 (2.8-6.4)	4.4 (2.9-7.5)	3.5 (2.6-5.4)	0.081	-	-	-
Legumes and nuts	4.0 (2.5-5.9)	4.0 (2.7-6.2)	3.7 (1.7-7.3)	0.453	-	-	-
Refined grains	4.4 (2.9-6.3)	5.2 (3.6-6.7)	3.9 (2.7-5.5)	0.008	0.017	0.875	0.022
Milk beverages	2.2 (1.1-4.8)	3.8 (1.4-6.7)	1.3 (0.8-5.1)	<0.001	0.016	0.019	<0.001
Sweets with fat	2.3 (1.2-3.7)	2.3 (1.2-3.6)	3.4 (1.9-6.1)	0.005	1.000	0.005	0.008
Snacks	1.7 (1.0-3.6)	1.7 (0.7-3.0)	3.9 (2.0-6.5)	<0.001	0.140	<0.001	<0.001
Sweets	1.4 (0.7-2.7)	1.3 (0.9-2.4)	3.5 (2.5-5.5)	<0.001	1.000	<0.001	<0.001
Vegetables	1.7 (1.2-2.4)	2.0 (1.4-2.8)	1.4 (1.0-1.8)	<0.001	0.043	0.016	<0.001
Wholegrains	0.6 (0.4-1.1)	1.0 (0.5-1.7)	0.4 (0.2-0.7)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Eggs	0.8 (0.3-1.5)	0.9 (0.7-1.5)	0.7 (0.1-1.1)	0.002	0.037	0.090	0.002
Fish	0.7 (0.5-1.0)	0.6 (0.4-1.2)	0.4 (0.2-0.6)	<0.001	1.000	<0.001	<0.001
Butter	0.6 (0.4-0.9)	0.7 (0.5-1.1)	0.7 (0.4-1.0)	0.015	0.060	0.133	1.000
Poultry	0.4 (0.3-0.9)	0.7 (0.3-0.9)	0.3 (0.2-0.8)	0.002	0.193	0.018	0.001
Low-fat dairy products	0.15 (0.09-0.26)	0.14 (0.07-0.35)	0.09 (0.06-0.30)	0.050	-	-	-
Alcohol	0.12 (0.09-0.39)	0.07 (0.06-0.32)	0.28 (0.05-1.09)	<0.001	<0.001	1.000	<0.001
Avocado	0.12 (0.07-0.21)	0.27 (0.10-0.39)	0.08 (0.03-0.25)	<0.001	<0.001	0.120	<0.001
Low-energy soda	0.0004 (0.003-0.0006)	0.003 (0.002-0.003)	0.004 (0.003-0.005)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.665

Values are medians (25<sup>th</sup> percentile, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile).

\* Dietary patterns were derived using cluster analysis. DPI: lower in energy and cholesterol. DP2: higher in protein, cholesterol, saturated fat, sodium, dietary fiber, vitamins and minerals. DP3: higher in energy, carbohydrate, sucrose, fructose, alcohol and lower in protein intake.

<sup>‡</sup> Kruskal-Wallis test

<sup>§</sup> Dunn's test.

this study. Sucrose consumption was higher in the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile (11.9% of total energy). In this DP, compared with the other two, sucrose consumption exceeds the World Health Organization recommendation ( $\leq 10\%$  of total energy intake).<sup>26</sup> In the Mexican adolescents studied in Ensanut 2006, high-energy beverages (soft drinks, sweetened juices, *aguas frescas*) accounted for 12.7% of the total kcal/day,<sup>27</sup> a figure lower than in our findings (13.2%) in the "DP3". In Mexican adolescents studied in the Health Workers Cohort Study, a Western DP (characterized by soft drinks, snacks, and corn tor-

tillas) was found to be associated with IR.<sup>28</sup> Some studies in adult populations suggest that unfavorable diets (rich in sugar-sweetened beverages, fried potatoes, and red and processed meats) are associated with glucose and insulin;<sup>29</sup> the consumption of fructose-sweetened beverages decreases insulin sensitivity and increases postprandial hypertriglyceridemia.<sup>30</sup> In addition, one or two servings/day of sugar-sweetened beverages increase the risk for diabetes and MetS.<sup>31</sup> We do not know the mechanism of the relationship between the "DP3" with IR and with triglycerides; however, fructose

**Table III**  
**ENERGY AND NUTRIENTS DAILY INTAKE ACCORDING TO DIETARY PATTERNS. GUADALAJARA, JALISCO, 2003**

	DP1 n= 497	DP2 n= 103	DP3 n= 54	p value*	p value <sup>‡</sup>		
					DP1 vs. DP2	DP1 vs. DP3	DP2 vs. DP3
Energy, kcal	2337 (1900-2811)	3827 (3348-4306)	3995 (3609-4313)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	1.000
Carbohydrate, % of total energy	53.9 (51.2-57.1)	52.2 (49.5-55.3)	56.7 (53.8-59.3)	<0.001	0.003	<0.001	<0.001
Protein, % of total energy	13.9 (13.0-14.8)	14.3 (13.4-15.0)	12.1 (11.0-13.0)	<0.001	0.037	<0.001	<0.001
Fats, % of total energy	30.6 (28.0-32.9)	31.3 (28.6-34.1)	30.3 (27.6-32.6)	0.192	-	-	-
Saturated fat, % of total energy	10.9 (9.8-12.1)	11.6 (10.6-12.7)	10.1 (9.0-11.1)	<0.001	0.019	<0.001	0.022
Polyunsaturated fat, % of total energy	5.3 (4.6-6.0)	5.4 (4.8-6.1)	5.3 (4.8-6.0)	0.640	-	-	-
Monounsaturated fat, % of total energy	13.2 (12.0-14.7)	14.4 (12.5-15.9)	13.0 (11.9-15.1)	0.017	0.014	0.184	1.000
Cholesterol, mg	254 (192-324)	443 (383-522)	343 (278-426)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Sucrose, % of energy	7.3 (5.9-8.8)	7.4 (6.3-8.2)	9.7 (7.8-11.9)	<0.001	1.000	<0.001	<0.001
Fructose, % of energy	3.9 (2.9-4.9)	3.4 (2.7-4.2)	4.9 (3.2-6.7)	<0.001	0.002	0.007	<0.001
Dietary fiber, g	17.5 (13.8-20.7)	27.5 (24.0-32.3)	23.6 (19.5-26.5)	<0.001	0.003	<0.001	<0.001
Dietary fiber $\geq 14$ g/1 000 kcal, <sup>§</sup> %	20.7	26.2	16.7	0.320	-	-	-
Calcium, mg	973 (745-1292)	1738 (1416-1974)	1368 (1117-1549)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.003
Iron, mg	13.5 (11.3-16.6)	22.9 (20.3-27.0)	21.0 (18.5-23.1)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.703
Heme iron, mg	0.6 (0.5-0.8)	1.0 (0.7-1.3)	0.9 (0.6-1.3)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.647
Magnesium, mg	329 (264-395)	548 (472-607)	497 (426-584)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.419
Selenium, mg	0.9 (0.5-1.3)	1.4 (0.8-2.2)	1.4 (0.8-2.0)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	1.000
Zinc, mg	10.4 (8.4-12.6)	17.7 (15.4-20.4)	15.0 (13.8-17.0)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.370
Sodium, mg	2737 (2162-3520)	4751 (4033-6055)	3965 (3586-4702)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.246
Retinol, mg	867 (621-1188)	1624 (1296-1937)	1214 (886-1577)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Thiamin, mg	1.9 (1.5-2.3)	3.2 (2.8-3.8)	2.7 (2.5-3.2)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.157
Riboflavin, mg	2.0 (1.5-2.5)	3.6 (3.1-4.0)	2.8 (2.5-3.2)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.002
Niacin, mg	18.0 (14.7-21.7)	30.0 (26.5-34.9)	27.2 (24.5-30.7)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.631
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> , mg	1.6 (1.3-1.9)	2.7 (2.4-3.1)	2.3 (2.0-2.6)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.049
Vitamin B <sub>12</sub> , mg	4.3 (3.2-5.5)	7.2 (5.9-9.0)	5.7 (4.4-7.5)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.008
Folate, mg	300 (236-379)	509 (447-604)	412 (343-504)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.004
Vitamin C, mg	140 (95-191)	242 (197-312)	201 (159-278)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.070
Vitamin D, IU	218 (149-319)	413 (302-534)	281 (188-354)	<0.001	<0.001	0.012	<0.001
Alcohol, g	0.2 (0.2-0.9)	0.2 (0.2-0.9)	0.9 (0.2-1.8)	<0.001	1.000	<0.001	0.004

Values are medians (25<sup>th</sup> percentile, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile).

\* Kruskal-Wallis test

‡ Dunn's test

§ Chi square test

might play a key role in hepatic IR through activation of the carbohydrate-responsive element-binding protein which prevents insulin from suppressing glucose production and stimulates *de novo* lipogenesis.<sup>32</sup>

Furthermore, in our study, only 21.3% of adolescents consumed the dietary fiber recommendation of at least 14 g /1 000 kcal<sup>33</sup> and no differences were found between dietary patterns ("DP1" = 20.7%, "DP2" = 26.2%

and "DP3" = 16.7%;  $p = 0.320$ ). These results are similar to a study in Mexican adolescents in which almost 80% did not consume the recommended dietary fiber.<sup>28</sup>

Fast food accounted for highest energy consumption in the three DP in our study (13.7-15.5%). This reached 16.8% in males from "DP2", which may explain, in part, the association of this DP with AO. Similar to our study, fast food energy intake in adolescents of the

**Table IV**  
**EATING HABITS BY DIETARY PATTERN. GUADALAJARA, JALISCO, 2003**

	DP1 n= 495	DP2 n= 103	DP3 n= 54	p*
Daily breakfast consumption (yes)	55.7	72.8	55.6	0.005
Eat while watching TV (yes)	69.0	71.0	77.8	0.410
Lunch away-from-home $\geq$ 1/week (yes)	45.1	42.7	63.0	0.032
Supplements intake last year (yes)	39.8	48.0	42.6	0.300
Fast food intake away-from-home (yes)	58.3	64.4	75.5	0.037
Eat chicken skin (yes)	20.7	30.7	33.3	0.020
Eat fat meat (yes)	18.4	22.6	18.9	0.620
Sugar added to beverages (no. teaspoons):				
0	1.2	1.0	0	0.024
1	13.6	11.7	9.3	
2	55.8	48.5	37	
$\geq$ 3	29.4	38.8	53.7	

Values are percentages.

\*Chi square test or Fisher's exact test

NHANES 2011-2012 study was 16.9% and increased to 18.6% in obese.<sup>34</sup> A study in Iranian adolescents found that fast food consumption in the highest vs. the lowest quartile increased the incidence of AO.<sup>35</sup>

On the other hand, we found that sodium and sucrose intakes in the "DP3" were higher than in the "DP1". Previously, a three-times higher risk of developing MetS in the highest vs. the lowest quartile of sweet and salty snacks was found in children and adolescents.<sup>36</sup> Additionally, Mexican school-children, consuming a Western DP (high in sweetened beverages, salty snacks, cakes, and sweets) had more overweight.<sup>37</sup> Moreover, in USA adolescents, sweetened beverage consumption increased 74 g/day per each additional 1g/salt/day.<sup>38</sup> In a study in children from Mexico City, salty-food consumption was mentioned as one of the reasons for drinking soft sweetened drinks.<sup>39</sup> Unfortunately energy-dense food consumption has increased in children and adolescents; not only because these foods are inexpensive, good-tasting, and available,<sup>40</sup> but because of their ability to exert an effect on hedonic and motivational processes.<sup>41</sup>

Additionally, unhealthy eating habits (skipping breakfast, eating away-from-home, fast food consumption away-from-home, eating chicken skin, and sugar added to beverages) were higher in the "DP3" in our study. An increase in the consumption of calories in USA children and adolescents was found between 1977 and 2006: consumption away-from-home increased 255% during this period and fast foods contributed to

the largest energy intake from foods prepared away-from-home.<sup>42</sup> In Mexican children, the availability of unhealthy foods (snacks, chocolates, sweets, sugary drinks, and *antojitos*) on the way to school ranged from 22-31%, and foods and beverages eaten away-from-home contributed to obesity increase.<sup>43</sup> On the other hand, Lebanese adolescents consuming a Western DP were more likely to eat away-from-home and to skip breakfast than the traditional DP.<sup>44</sup> In our study, such behaviors were more frequent in the "DP3".

Sample size was higher in females than in males, nevertheless, only significant associations were found in males. We cannot establish a biological reason for this, but in our adolescents MetS prevalence according to Cook and colleagues, was higher in males than females (12.1 vs. 7.6%;  $p=0.090$ ), as well as according to Ford and colleagues (11.1 vs. 5.3%;  $p=0.007$ ) and de Ferranti and colleagues (19.7 vs. 14.2%;  $p=0.061$ ). Energy intake was also higher among males than females (2 795 vs. 2 464 kcal/day;  $p<0.001$ ). Others have found that, only among males, an increase in the percentage of energy from fat was associated with AO, and a Western DP was associated with a higher risk of overweight and hypertriglyceridemia.<sup>9</sup> To the contrary, among Korean prepubertal girls, a balanced DP was negatively associated with triglycerides and a Western DP was positively associated with MetS.<sup>45</sup> More studies evaluating these associations according to sex are needed.

We must be careful in the interpretation of our results, because the nature of our cross-sectional analy-

**Table V**  
**ADJUSTED ASSOCIATION BETWEEN METABOLIC SYNDROME AND DIETARY PATTERNS BY SEX.**  
**GUADALAJARA, JALISCO, 2003**

	DPI	DP2		DP3	
	Reference	OR <sub>adjusted</sub>	95%CI	OR <sub>adjusted</sub>	95%CI
Males (n= 315)					
MetS components, IDF:					
Abdominal obesity*	1.00	5.11	1.57-16.66‡	3.33	0.50-22.13
High glucose§	1.00	0.65	0.08-5.57	3.61	0.42-31.30
High triglycerides#	1.00	1.31	0.47-3.67	3.89	1.01-15.0&
Low HDL-C#	1.00	0.61	0.25-1.47	1.04	0.32-3.43
High blood pressure#	1.00	1.63	0.58-4.57	3.58	0.88-14.62
MetS definition:					
IDF#	1.00	2.94	0.72-12.02	5.99	0.42-84.87
Cook et al.§	1.00	0.81	0.16-4.16	12.14	1.66-89.0&
de Ferranti et al.°	1.00	1.22	0.47-3.18	5.10	1.20-21.7&
Ford et al.§	1.00	0.81	0.17-3.79	9.29	1.44-59.7&
Other metabolic markers:					
HOMA-IR#	1.00	1.60	0.43-5.93	6.66	1.12-39.70&
High insulin#	1.00	1.48	0.40-5.48	3.12	0.44-21.84
High total cholesterol#	1.00	0.50	0.13-1.88	0.71	0.12-4.29
High LDL-C#	1.00	0.60	0.17-2.08	0.26	0.03-2.53
Females (n= 334)					
MetS components, IDF:					
Abdominal obesity#	1.00	0.97	0.16-5.67	2.06	0.37-11.65
High glucose#	1.00	∅	∅	5.48	0.27-113
High triglycerides#	1.00	0.33	0.08-1.28	0.22	0.04-1.18
Low HDL-C#	1.00	0.90	0.36-2.24	1.50	0.58-3.92
High blood pressure#	1.00	0.53	0.11-2.47	0.23	0.02-2.13
MetS definition:					
IDF#	1.00	0.50	0.03-9.32	2.24	0.14-34.70
Cook et al.	1.00	∅	∅	∅	∅
de Ferranti et al.#	1.00	0.39	0.06-2.43	∅	∅
Ford et al.	1.00	∅	∅	∅	∅
Other metabolic markers:					
HOMA-IR#	1.00	0.27	0.06-1.21	1.52	0.46-5.05
High insulin#	1.00	0.30	0.07-1.16	1.25	0.38-4.05
High total cholesterol°	1.00	0.60	0.24-1.50	0.34	0.10-1.18
High LDL-C#	1.00	0.36	0.12-1.13	0.36	0.11-1.21

MetS: metabolic syndrome; IDF: International Diabetes Federation; HDL-C: high density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostatic model assessment index of insulin resistance; LDL-C: low density lipoprotein cholesterol.

\*Adjusted by sexual development (II-IV/V), total physical activity (h/day), energy intake (kcal/day), and smoking (one or more cigarettes/day).

‡ p<0.01.

§ Adjusted by sexual development (II-IV/V), body fat (%), total physical activity (h/day), and energy intake (kcal/day).

# Adjusted by sexual development (II-IV/V), body fat (%), total physical activity (h/day), energy intake (kcal/day), and smoking (one or more cigarettes/day).

& p<0.05

° Adjusted by sexual development (II-IV/V), body fat (%), total physical activity (h/day), and smoking (one or more cigarettes/day).

∅ OR was not calculated because of the small sample size for one comparison group in these cells.



sis cannot establish causal relationships. Thus, future studies are required to answer this question. The FFQ is widely used in epidemiological studies due to its advantages; however, it overestimates consumption; therefore, interpretation of results should be conducted with caution. Although food groups were formed according to their nutritional value, it is possible that complete objectivity might not been achieved. Despite such limitations, we found associations between obesity (and MetS) and DP that are similar to those of previous studies. On the other hand, the strengths of the study are that confounders were controlled with multiple logistic regressions.

In conclusion, we found that the “DP3” increased the risk of MetS, hypertriglyceridemia, and IR, and that the “DP2” increased the risk of AO in male adolescents. Moreover, unhealthy eating habits were higher among “DP3” consumers. Promotion of a healthy DP is needed in order to reduce obesity and MetS in adolescents.

## Acknowledgments

We thank students, parents, school authorities, and those who participated in data collection. This study was supported by Conacyt, grant 37951-M.

*Declaration of conflict of interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

## References

- Rodríguez-Morán M, Salazar-Vázquez B, Violante R, Guerrero-Romero F. Metabolic syndrome among children and adolescents aged 10-18 years. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(10):2516-17. <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.27.10.2516>
- Halley-Castillo E, Borges G, Talavera JO, Orozco R, Vargas-Alemán C, Huitrón-Bravo G, et al. Body mass index and the prevalence of metabolic syndrome among children and adolescents in two Mexican populations. *J Adolesc Health*. 2007;40(6):521-6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2006.12.015>
- Ford ES, Li C, Pearson WS, Mokdad AH. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome among U.S. adolescents using the definition from the International Diabetes Federation. *Diabetes Care*. 2008;31(3):587-9. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc07-1030>
- Pitsavos C, Panagiotakos D, Weinm M, Stefanadis C. Diet, exercise and the metabolic syndrome. *Rev Diabet Stud*. 2006;3(3):118-26. <https://doi.org/10.1900/RDS.2006.3.118>
- Newby PK, Tucker KL. Empirically derived eating patterns using factor or cluster analysis: a review. *Nutr Rev*. 2004;62(5):177-203. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-4887.2004.tb00040.x>
- Mozaffarian D, Ludwig DS. Dietary guidelines in the 21st century—a time for food. *JAMA*. 2010;304(6):681-2. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2010.1116>
- Flores M, Macías N, Rivera M, Lozada A, Barquera S, Rivera-Dommarco J, et al. Dietary patterns in Mexican adults are associated with risk of being overweight or obese. *J Nutr*. 2010;140(10):1869-73. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.110.121533>
- Denova-Gutiérrez E, Castañón S, Talavera JO, Flores M, Macías N, Rodríguez-Ramírez S, et al. Dietary patterns are associated with different indexes of adiposity and obesity in an urban Mexican population. *J Nutr*. 2011;141(5):921-7. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.110.132332>
- Song Y, Park MJ, Paik HY, Joung H. Secular trends in dietary patterns and obesity-related risk factors in Korean adolescents aged 10-19 years. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2010;34(1):48-56. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ijo.2009.203>
- Pérez-Rodrigo C, Gil Á, González-Gross M, Ortega RM, Serra-Majem L, Varela-Moreiras G, et al. Clustering of dietary patterns, lifestyles, and overweight among Spanish children and adolescents in the ANIBES Study. *Nutrients*. 2015;8(1):E11. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu8010011>
- Shang X, Li Y, Liu A, Zhang Q, Hu X, Du S, et al. Dietary pattern and its association with the prevalence of obesity and related cardiometabolic risk factors among Chinese children. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(8):e43183. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0043183>
- Araújo J, Teixeira J, Gaio AR, Lopes C, Ramos E. Dietary patterns among 13-y-old Portuguese adolescents. *Nutrition*. 2015;31(1):148-54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2014.06.007>
- Ramírez-López G, Morán-Villota S, Mendoza-Carrera F, Portilla-de Buen E, Valles-Sánchez V, Castro-Martínez XH, et al. Metabolic and genetic markers' associations with elevated levels of alanine aminotransferase in adolescents. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab*. 2018;31(4):407-14. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jpem-2017-0217>
- Hernández-Avila M, Romieu I, Parra S, Hernández-Avila J, Madrigal H, Willett W. Validity and reproducibility of a food frequency questionnaire to assess dietary intake of women living in Mexico City. *Salud Publica Mex*. 1998;40(2):133-40.
- Hernández-Ávila M, Resoles M, Parra S. Sistema de evaluación de hábitos nutricionales y consumo de nutrimentos (SNUT). Cuernavaca: Instituto Nacional de Salud Pública, 2000.
- Marcus SE, Giovino GA, Pierce JP, Harel Y. Measuring tobacco use among adolescents. *Public Health Rep*. 1993;108(suppl 1):20-24.
- Schlossberger NM, Turner RA, Irwin CE. Validity of self-report of pubertal maturation in early adolescents. *J Adolesc Health*. 1992;13(2):109-13.
- Slaughter MH, Lohman TG, Boileau RA, Horswill CA, Stillman RJ, Van Loan MD, et al. Skinfold equations for estimation of body fatness in children and youth. *Hum Biol*. 1988;60(5):709-23.
- Hernández B, Gortmaker SL, Laird NM, Colditz GA, Parra-Cabrera S, Peterson KE. Validez y reproducibilidad de un cuestionario de actividad e inactividad física para escolares de la ciudad de México. *Salud Publica Mex*. 2000;42(4):315-23.
- Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Kaufman F, Tajima N, Silink M, Arslanian S, et al. IDF Consensus Group. The metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents -an IDF consensus report. *Pediatr Diabetes*. 2007;8(5):299-306. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-5448.2007.00271.x>
- Cook S, Weitzman M, Auinger P, Nguyen N, Dietz WH. Prevalence of a metabolic syndrome phenotype in adolescents: findings from the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988-1994. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2003;157(8):821-27. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archpedi.157.8.821>
- De Ferranti SD, Gauvreau K, Ludwig DS, Neufeld EJ, Newburger JW, Rifai N. Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in American adolescents: findings from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *Circulation*. 2004;110(16):2494-7. <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000145117.40114.C7>
- Ford ES, Ajani UA, Mokdad AH. The metabolic syndrome and concentrations of C-reactive protein among U.S. youth. *Diabetes Care*. 2005;28(4):878-81. <https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.28.4.878>
- National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP). Highlights of the report of the Expert Panel on Blood Cholesterol Levels in Children and Adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 1992;89(3):495-501.

25. García-Cuartero B, García-Lacalle C, Jiménez-Lobo C, González-Vergaz A, Calvo-Rey C, Alcázar-Villar MJ, et al. Índice HOMA y QUICKI, insulina y péptido C en niños sanos. Puntos de corte de riesgo cardiovascular. *An Pediatr*. 2007;66(5):481-90. <https://doi.org/10.1157/13102513>
26. World Health Organization. Guideline: Sugars intake for adults and children. Geneva: WHO, 2015.
27. Barquera S, Hernandez-Barrera L, Tolentino ML, Espinosa J, Ng SW, Rivera JA, et al. Energy intake from beverages is increasing among Mexican adolescents and adults. *J Nutr*. 2008;138(12):2454-61. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.108.092163>
28. Romero-Polvo A, Denova-Gutiérrez E, Rivera-Paredes B, Castañón S, Gallegos-Carrillo K, Halley-Castillo E, et al. Association between dietary patterns and insulin resistance in Mexican children and adolescents. *Ann Nutr Metab*. 2012;61(2):142-50. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000341493>
29. Nettleton JA, Hivert MF, Lemaitre RN, McKeown NM, Mozaffarian D, Tanaka T, et al. Meta-analysis investigating associations between healthy diet and fasting glucose and insulin levels and modification by loci associated with glucose homeostasis in data from 15 cohorts. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2013;15(2):103-15. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kws297>
30. Stanhope KL, Schwarz JM, Keim NL, Griffen SC, Bremer AA, Graham JL, et al. Consuming fructose-sweetened, not glucose-sweetened, beverages increases visceral adiposity and lipids and decreases insulin sensitivity in overweight/obese humans. *J Clin Invest*. 2009;119(5):1322-34. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI37385>
31. Malik VS, Popkin BM, Bray GA, Després JP, Willett WC, Hu FB. Sugar-sweetened beverages and risk of metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care*. 2010;33(11):2477-83. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc10-1079>
32. Kim MS, Krawczyk SA, Doridot L, Fowler AJ, Wang JX, Trauger SA, et al. ChREBP regulates fructose-induced glucose production independently of insulin signaling. *J Clin Invest*. 2016;126(11):4372-86. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI81993>
33. Institute of Medicine (U.S.). Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrate, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein, and amino acids. Washington DC: National Academies Press, 2005 [cited March 5, 2019]. Available from: <https://www.nap.edu/download/10490>
34. Vikraman S, Fryar CD, Ogden CL. Caloric intake from fast food among children and adolescents in the United States, 2011–2012. NCHS data brief, no 213. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics, 2015.
35. Asghari G, Yuzbashian E, Mirmiran P, Mahmoodi B, Azizi F. Fast food intake increases the incidence of metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents: Tehran Lipid and Glucose Study. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(10):e0139641. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0139641>
36. Asghari G, Yuzbashian E, Mirmiran P, Bahadoran Z, Azizi F. Prediction of metabolic syndrome by a high intake of energy-dense nutrient-poor snacks in Iranian children and adolescents. *Pediatr Res*. 2016;79(5):697-704. <https://doi.org/10.1038/pr.2015.270>
37. Rodríguez-Ramírez S, Mundo-Rosas V, García-Guerra A, Shamah-Levy T. Dietary patterns are associated with overweight and obesity in Mexican school-age children. *Arch Latinoam Nutr*. 2011;61(3):270-8.
38. Grimes CA, Wright JD, Liu K, Nowson CA, Loria CM. Dietary sodium intake is associated with total fluid and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption in US children and adolescents aged 2–18 y: NHANES 2005–2008. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2013;98(1):189-96. <https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.112.051508>
39. Théodore F, Bonvecchio A, Blanco I, Irizarry L, Nava A, Carriedo A. Significados culturalmente construidos para el consumo de bebidas azucaradas entre escolares de la Ciudad de México. *Rev Panam Salud Publica*. 2011;30(4):327-34.
40. Drewnowski A. Obesity, diets, and social inequalities. *Nutr Rev*. 2009;67(suppl 1):S36-9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-4887.2009.00157.x>
41. Berthoud HR. The neurobiology of food intake in an obesogenic environment. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2012;71(4):478-87. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0029665112000602>
42. Poti JM, Popkin BM. Trends in energy intake among US children by eating location and food source, 1977-2006. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2011;111(8):1156-64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2011.05.007>
43. Shamah-Levy T, Cuevas-Nasu L, Méndez-Gómez-Humarán I, Jiménez-Aguilar A, Mendoza-Ramírez AJ, Villalpando S. Obesity in Mexican school age children is associated with out-of-home food consumption: in the journey from home to school. *Arch Latinoam Nutr*. 2011;61(3):288-95.
44. Naja F, Hwalla N, Itani L, Karam S, Sibai AM, Nasreddine L. A Western dietary pattern is associated with overweight and obesity in a national sample of Lebanese adolescents (13-19 years): a cross-sectional study. *Br J Nutr*. 2015;114(11):1909-19. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114515003657>
45. Park SJ, Lee SM, Kim SM, Myoungsook L. Gender specific effect of major dietary patterns on the metabolic syndrome risk in Korean pre-pubertal children. *Nutr Res Pract*. 2013;7(2):139-45. <https://doi.org/10.4162/nrp.2013.7.2.139>