¹**Title page: Associations of age and body mass index with**

²**hydration and density of fat-free mass from 4 to 22 years**

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- 10 **Running title**: Hydration and density of the fat-free mass
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20 **Abstract**

21 **Background:** Most body composition techniques assume constant properties of Fat Free Mass (FFM) 22 (hydration and density) regardless of nutritional status, which may lead to biased values. **Aim**: To evaluate 23 the interactive associations of age and Body Mass Index (BMI) with hydration and density of FFM. **Methods**: 24 Data from subjects aged between 4 and 22 years old from several studies conducted in London, UK were 25 assessed. Hydration (H_{FFM}) and density (D_{FFM}) of FFM obtained from 4 component model in 936 and 905 26 individuals, respectively, were assessed. BMI was converted in z-scores, and categorised into five groups 27 using z-score cut-offs (thin, normal weight, overweight, obese and severely obese). Linear regression models 28 for H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} were developed using age, sex and BMI group as predictors. **Results**: Nearly 30% of the 29 variability in H_{FFM} was explained by models including age and BMI groups, showing increasing H_{FFM} values in 30 heavier BMI groups. On the other hand, ~40% of variability of the D_{FFM} was explained by age, sex and BMI 31 groups, with D_{FFM} values decreasing in association with higher BMI groups. **Conclusion**: Nutritional status 32 should be considered when assessing body composition using two-component methods, and reference data 33 for H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} is needed to higher BMI groups to avoid bias. Further research is needed to explain intra-34 individual variability of FFM properties.

36 **Introduction**

37 Body composition is useful to assess as it is related to diverse health and disease conditions, either as cause 38 or consequence (1). For instance, lean mass is associated with bone deposition and, in turn, is the main 39 tissue consuming glucose and determining energy expenditure (2,3). On the other hand, an increased fat 40 mass (FM) early in life is associated to insulin resistance, adulthood obesity and cardiovascular risk (4–6) and 41 a reduced lean mass deposition in childhood could predict osteoporosis in the adult age but also morbidity 42 and mortality.

43 Although Body Mass Index (BMI) is considered as the accepted clinical standard to assess weight in relation 44 to height, and is widely used to diagnose both under-nutrition and overweight or obesity, BMI does not have 45 a constant association with body composition across age, gender and ethnicity (7), and therefore can be 46 misleading. Assessing body composition in nutrition-related diseases is useful for monitoring clinical progress 47 and response to treatment, and to inform more specific individual management of the disease (1).

48 Given the fact we cannot use the gold standard technique, which is cadaver dissection (8), several 49 techniques for assessing body composition *in vivo* have been developed and improved over the years to 50 measure different components of the human body.

51 Body composition in children is usually assessed using 2-component (2C) methods, which partition body 52 weight into its major components FM and fat-free mass (FFM, used here synonymously with lean mass). For 53 example, hydrometry measures total body water (TBW) and converts this to FFM by taking into account 54 hydration of FFM (H_{FFM}), while densitometry measures total body density and calculates FFM and FM using 55 Archimedes principle, in combination with values for the density of fat and the density of FFM (D_{FFM}). 56 However, these techniques lose accuracy in many human conditions, such as disease, or hormone cycle in 57 women, due to the effect on variability in H_{FFM} under these situations. Second, nutritional status may also 58 influence FFM properties. Such variability may therefore challenge techniques for measuring TBW like

59 isotopic dilution or bioelectrical impedance, or densitometric techniques such as air-displacement 60 plethysmography.

61 Many studies have shown differences in FFM properties between children and adults, due to chemical 62 maturation of the FFM. Differences between adults and children in FFM properties are due to the fact that 63 children have higher levels of water and lower levels of mineral and proteins (9,10). In addition, other factors 64 can be involved in FFM properties such as nutritional status, but more data is needed to understand this 65 issue (11,12).

66 We previously analysed associations of BMI SDS with hydration in small samples of children aged 7-14 years 67 (12,13) (n=50 and n=107 respectively). The aim of this study is to evaluate associations of age and BMI with 68 both H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} over a wider age-range (4-22 years), drawing on a substantially larger sample size. 69 Understanding how FFM properties differ not only by age but also by BMI may help to assess body 70 composition in those with higher levels of BMI, in whom body composition assessment is clinically 71 important.

72 **Methods**

73 *Subjects*

74 Body composition data from a total of 1014 healthy subjects aged 4 to 22 years old were available from 75 different data bases from the Childhood Nutritional Research Centre (UCL Institute of Child Health) (10,14– 76 18). The main samples were a reference dataset of healthy children and adolescents aged 5-22 years (18), 77 some of whom were followed at 2 year intervals for up to 10 years, and obese children participating in 78 weight-loss trials (14,16), however other smaller studies were also incorporated (10,17). Ethical approval 79 was provided by UCL Institute of Child Health, Cambridge Health Authority and the MRC Dunn Nutrition Unit. 80 Written informed consent was obtained from those aged 18+ years and from parents of minors, and verbal 81 assent from all participants.

82 The total sample is effectively a mixed-longitudinal dataset, with 533 contributing 1 measure, 31 83 contributing 2 measures, 53 contributing 3 measures, 50 contributing 4 measures and 12 contributing 5 84 measures. The average time between successive measurements was 2 years. However, all data-points were 85 treated as independent in the analyses. Inclusion criteria for the original studies were either (a) to be healthy 86 with no condition known to affect normal growth and development (high BMI was not excluded), or (b) 87 children and adolescents recruited from obesity weight loss clinics (17 % of sample). Pooling these data 88 provided a representation of the general population including substantial numbers of overweight and obese 89 individuals. Distribution of the sample is represented in Supplementary figure 1.

90 *Anthropometry*

91 Height (HT) and weight (WT) measures were obtained in duplicate using standard operating procedures, and 92 the average value was used in all analyses. Weight was measured wearing minimum clothing and to the 93 nearest 0.01 kg. Height was assessed using a wall-mounted stadiometer to the nearest 0.1 cm. Body Mass 94 Index (BMI kg/m²) was calculated as weight (kg) divided by height squared (m²). These values were 95 converted into standard deviation score (SDS) using current UK 1990 reference data (19) to assess 96 representativity of the sample compared to the UK population. Categories of BMI were defined as follows: 97 1= Thinness (<-1 BMI SDS), 2 = Normal (-0.999 to 1 BMI SDS), 3 = Overweight (1.001 to 2 BMI SDS), 4 = Obese 98 (2.001 to 3 BMI SDS), 5 = Severe Obese (> 3 BMI SDS).

99 *Body Volume*

100 Underwater weighing

101 Body volume of 30 children was measured by weighing the subject underwater. Lung volume was 102 simultaneously measured by helium dilution. Measurements were obtained in duplicate in 24 children and 103 the mean value was used when appropriate in our analyses (10).

104 Air-displacement plethysmography

105 For all other participants, body volume was measured by BODPOD instrumentation (Cosmed Inc., Concord, 106 CA, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions and recommendations and as described previously (20). 107 Subjects wore a tight-fitting swimsuit and a swimming cap. The test consisted in two measures of body 108 volume. If these measures differed by >150mL, a third measure was undertaken. Then, the mean of the 109 measures, or the mean of the two closest measures when three performances were needed, were used in 110 subsequent analysis. Lung volume was predicted as previously described (17).

111 *Bone Mineral Content*

112 Bone mineral content (BMC) was determined by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. A subsample of 30 113 children were assessed by using a Hologic QDR 1000W whole body scanner (Hologic Inc, Waltham, MA) and 114 CHILDREN'S WHOLE BODY software (version 5.61; Vertec Scientific Ltd, Reading, United Kingdom) (10). BMC 115 for all other participants was determined by a Lunar Prodigy scanner (GE Medical Systems, Madison, WI, 116 USA) with Encore 2002 software (15). Both protocols have been previously described.

117 *Total Body Water*

118 Deuterium Dilution (D2O)

119 TBW was determined by isotopic dilution using deuterium-labelled water. Dosing was equivalent to 0.05 120 g/Kg of body weight (99.99% D2O). Doses were given as water, or made up as fruit squash or juice. Saliva 121 samples were taken before dosing and either 4 (for normal body fatness) to 6 hours (for obese subjects) 122 post-dose by using a cotton wool swab. Subjects were instructed to not eat or drink during the 30 minutes 123 period before taking a saliva sample. Isotopic enrichment of saliva samples was analysed by two different 124 protocols. Most samples were analysed by Iso-Analytical Ltd (Sandbach, UK) using an equilibration method 125 (14). Deuterium dilution space was assumed to overestimate TBW by a factor of 1.044 and correction was 126 made for fluid intake during the equilibrium period to derive actual body water (15).

127 *Four-component model*

128 The 4-component (4C) model is based on the fact that the body is mainly composed of fat, water, mineral 129 and protein. Assuming constant densities for all 4 components, FM and FFM can be calculated by the 130 following equation:

131
$$
FM [kg] = (2.747 \times BV) - (0.710 \times TBW) + (1.460 \times BMC) - (2.050 \times WT)
$$
 (21)

132 where BV= body volume in litres (from ADP), TBW= total body water volume in litres (from deuterium 133 dilution), BMC = bone mineral content in kg from DXA and WT = body weight in kg.

134 FFM is obtained by difference of FM from WT. This model has been considered the most accurate *in vivo*

- 135 approach for assessing fat and fat-free masses.
- 136 *Hydration and density of FFM*
- 137 As previously described (10), H_{FFM} (%) was calculated as:

$$
H_{FFM}[\%] = \frac{TBW}{FFM} x 100
$$

138 Protein mass (PM) was calculated in kg as follows:

Protein mass $[kg] = WT - (TBWm + FM + TMM)$

139 D_{FFM} was then calculated as follows:

140
$$
D_{FFM}[kg/L] = \frac{TBWm + PM + TMM}{TBWv + PV + TMV} x 100 (21)
$$

141 Where TBWm = Total body water mass in kg, and TBWv = Total body water volume in L, calculated by 142 dividing TBWm by the density of water at body temperature; Protein volume (PV) was then calculated by 143 dividing PM by the density of protein; TMM = total mineral mass in kg and was calculated by multiplying 144 BMC by a constant of 1.2741 (22), and TMV = total mineral volume calculated by dividing TMM by the 145 density of mineral.

146 **Statistics**

147 All data were analysed by using IBM SPSS version 24 for Windows. A t-test for independent samples was 148 applied to assess anthropometry and body composition differences between males and females. A 1-sample 149 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess normality of H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} . Equality of variance between 150 groups was assessed using Levene's test.

151 A one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Bonferroni correction (alpha 0.05) was performed to assess any differences 152 for hydration and density among the nutritional status groups.

153 A univariate general linear model with post-hoc Bonferroni correction (alpha 0.05) was conducted to assess

154 the interactive associations of BMI SDS groups and age with H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} .

155 Linear regression analyses were performed to investigate the associations of age, sex and BMI with H $_{FFM}$ and 156 D_{FFM}. The regression model was constructed using the independent variables age, sex (1 = male, 2 = females) 157 and BMI SDS groups, included both as a continue variable and as dummy variables for each nutritional 158 status. The normal BMI group was chosen as the reference group. Identified outliers (n=1) for H_{FFM} (<68%) 159 and (n= 4) D_{FFM} (<1.068 kg/L) values were considered implausible and were removed from the analyses. We 160 additionally fitted age-BMI group interaction terms, to test whether the association of age with H_{FFM} and 161 D $_{FFM}$ varied by BMI-group.

162 **RESULTS**

163 After screening for implausible values for H_{FFM} and D_{FFM}, and accounting for missing data which prevented 164 full calculation of the 4C model for H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} (n=77 and n=105 respectively), a total of 936 data points 165 for H_{FFM} and 905 for D_{FFM} were analysed. Both these outcomes were normally distributed.

166 Table 1 shows a description of the characteristics of the sample stratified by gender and age. Females 167 presented greater FM (Δ = 5.91 kg, 95%CI 4.48, 7.34; p < 0.001) and lower FFM than males (Δ = -2.57 kg, 168 95%CI -4.20, -0.94; p = 0.002 respectively).

169 The BMI SDS distribution of the sample by age and gender is shown in Figure 1, showing wide variability at all 170 ages. Supplementary Table1 provides mean and SD of age, and the ratio of males to females, for each BMI 171 category.

172 Hydration of FFM values are illustrated in Figure 2, which shows how hydration of FFM varies in association 173 with nutritional status and age. Heavier groups (obese and severely obese) showed clearly higher hydration 174 levels of FFM at all ages. Furthermore, hydration decreases with age in all BMI groups, but with different 175 patterns. While the decrease is marked in lower BMI groups, heavier groups showed a weaker decrease, 176 trending to a plateau. Beyond these patterns, wide variability range of hydration values can be found within 177 each BMI group. Variance in H_{FFM} did not differ between the groups.

178 Density of FFM shows patterns with age and BMI that are broadly inverse to those for hydration of FFM 179 (Figure 3), though with a stronger overall age-association (the higher the hydration level, the lower the 180 density). Lower BMI groups presented higher levels of density for FFM while higher BMI-groups showed 181 lower levels of D_{FFM} . Moreover, density of FFM increases with age for all nutritional status groups but this 182 increase is more obvious in lower BMI groups. In addition, differences in density among lighter and heavier 183 BMI groups seem to be more striking with increasing age. Variance in D_{FFM} did not differ between the groups.

184 All BMI groups showed differences (p<0.001) in hydration of FFM except the two highest ones, with 185 differences not statistically significant between obese and severely obese (p=0.121). On the other hand, no 186 significant differences were found for density among thin, normal and overweight nutritional groups 187 (P>0.05) but highly significant differences appeared between these three groups and the two heaviest ones 188 (p<0.001). In addition, a highly significant statistical difference was observed between obese and severely 189 obese groups (p<0.001). Also, BMI group showed a significant interaction with age for both H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} 190 (p=0.007 and p=0.014 respectively), confirming the fact that not only age but also nutritional status is 191 influencing H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} levels and their trends.

192 Prediction of hydration and density of FFM in growing ages by nutritional status is given in Table 2. While age 193 and BMI SDS explain between 30% and 40% of the variability in both hydration and density, sex was only 194 significant in models for density. These models also showed "dose-response" associations of hydration and 195 density with age and BMI SDS group and their interaction, taking the "Normal" group as the reference.

196

197 **Discussion**

198 This work reports evidence on variability in FFM properties in association to BMI shown by the gold standard 199 method to assess body composition in vivo, the 4-component model. The relevance of this study is that 2- 200 component model-based techniques rely on constant properties of the FFM. Our study has shown that 201 hydration and density of FFM vary not only with age, as previously reported (23), but also with nutritional 202 status. The study benefits from a large sample size, and wide ranges of age and BMI.

203 Previous work has reported poor accuracy of predictive techniques such as bioelectrical impedance for 204 measuring body composition in obese patients. Among the underlying reasons for such bias may be 205 differences in body proportions or anatomical distribution of tissue masses, or differences in FFM properties, 206 none of which may be addressed by the manufacturers' equations (16,23,24).

207 In 1999, Wang *et al.* (25) suggested that adiposity might influence hydration of FFM in adult mammals but 208 few studies have addressed this question since then and the issue remains poorly understood.

209 A previous study lead by Battistini (26) proposed that increasing hydration in obese can be related to an 210 expanded extracellular water space. Other studies supported this hypothesis also in adults (27,28). However, 211 the fact that after weight-loss treatments, both nutritional and surgical options, over-hydration persisted 212 comparing to never-obese people, suggests there might be other mechanisms involved in over-hydration in 213 obese people (29).

214 Haroun *et al.* showed significant differences in the composition of FFM between non-obese and obese in a 215 sample of 50 children. They found out that water and mineral content were higher in obese children and,

216 thus, the proportion of protein was reduced. Consequently, obese children had lower values for density of 217 FFM and higher hydration (12).

218 Our study goes further, by revealing interactions of BMI status with age, i.e. values change with age 219 differently depending on BMI. For H_{FFM} we showed that the combination of age and BMI group explained 220 \sim 30% of variability. Thus, H_{FFM} models showed as expected decreasing values with age, but also interactions 221 between BMI and age, with BMI increments associated with obesity greater at older ages. Also, age-BMI 222 interactions were stronger for overweight and obese subjects. On the other hand, D_{FFM} models showed 223 differences not only by age and BMI group, demonstrating a strong association of age and BMI in higher BMI 224 groups, but also by gender, where females showed increased values of D_{FFM} .

225 These regression models proposed can be used to predict individual H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} values, either from their 226 individual BMI SDS value, or from their BMI SDS category, as well as their age and gender. Despite this, more 227 than half of the inter-individual variability in H_{FFM} and D_{FFM} cannot be explained by our predictors. 228 Methodological error and other unknown biological properties are likely to contribute.

229 Our research therefore supports previous reports about changes in FFM properties due to age but also by 230 BMI. The current study showed that variability associated with age is amplified by BMI, due in part to the 231 fact that in higher BMI groups, changes with age are weaker.

232 The most important application of these findings is that body composition analyses in obese children could 233 be in the future performed by an individual prediction of hydration or density combined with a 2-component 234 model technique such as Body density (i.e. BodPod ®) or bioimpedance. Further research should validate the 235 applicability of the predictive equations of hydration and density combined with these 2-component based 236 techniques.

237 **Strengths and limitations**

238 A strength of this study is the large sample size with a wide range of BMI and age. A limitation is that we

239 treated mixed longitudinal data as independent data-points, thus ignoring how some individuals contribute 240 correlated values of FFM properties and BMI. However, since the average time between measurements was 241 2 years, this correlation is unlikely to introduce spurious results, and also allows us to describe age effects 242 with greater confidence. A small proportion of the sample (30 out of 1014) had mineral content assessed 243 with a different device (Hologic) than the majority of the study sample (Lunar) which may cause a small bias 244 in FFM properties (30). Likewise, differences between underwater weighing and air-displacement measures 245 can exist, although body density by underwater weighing and air-displacement plethysmography is known to 246 be highly correlated (31).

247 **Conclusions**

248 Nutritional status should be considered when assessing body composition in children, adolescents and young 249 adults by two-component techniques in order to improve accuracy. This issue is relevant not only for 250 research studies, but also for the follow-up assessments of disease and treatment.

251 Our study demonstrates that two-component techniques such as bio-electric impedance or air-displacement 252 plethysmography that use constant values for FFM properties might introduce bias especially in obese 253 subjects. Our results demonstrate that reference data for FFM properties is needed to improve accuracy of 254 body composition measurements in obese children, adolescents and young adults.

255 **Conflict of interests**

256 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

257 **Author contributions**

258 DGM performed analyses and drafted the article; JCKW and VL designed the study; JCKW, VL, MF, JW and NF 259 supported the analyses and critically review the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the 260 manuscript.

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Figure legends

- **Figure 1.** BMI SD (z-score) distribution of the sample by age and gender.
- **Figure 2.** Dispersion (A) and distribution (B) of hydration of the fat-free mass (FFM) values stratified by
- 359 nutritional status grouped by BMI SD score.
- **Figure 3.** Dispersion (A) and distribution (B) of density of the fat-free mass (FFM) values stratified by
- 361 nutritional status grouped by BMI SD score.

Table 1. Description of the sample.

The nutritional group "Normal" has been chosen as the reference group for regressions. Significance at p<0.05.

Supplementary table 1. Comparison of age and sex between BMI groups.

| BMI SDS group | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------|
| | Thinness | Normal | Overweight | Obese | Severe Obese | p-value |
| | $(n = 108)$ | $(n = 505)$ | (n = 144) | $(n = 93)$ | $(n = 86)$ | |
| Age | 14.4 (\pm 4.3) | $13.2 (\pm 4.5)$ | $13.4(\pm4.04)$ | $12.8 \ (\pm 3.8)$ | $11.7 \ (\pm 3.2)$ | < 0.001 |
| Sex (M/F) | 58/50 | 241/264 | 51/93 | 41/52 | 25/61 | < 0.001 |

Abbreviations: BMI SDS = Body Mass Index in standard deviation score (z-score);

M= Male and F= Female. Significance at p<0.05.

BMI SDS groups

Supplementary figure 1

Age (years)