

1 **Association between nutritional status and muscle strength in pediatric cancer**
2 **patients**

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27 **ABSTRACT:**

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29 Background: As in adults, pediatric cancer provides a catabolic state, leading to weight loss
30 and depletion of lean mass, which is accompanied by loss of muscle strength. Low muscle
31 strength is more sensitive to poor prognostic and treatment-related outcomes. Aim: To
32 evaluate the association between nutritional status and muscle strength in pediatric cancer
33 patients hospitalized at the Cancer Hospital I. Methods: A cross-sectional study was carried
34 out with patients aged 6 to 19 years with cancer hospitalized in the period from February
35 2019 to November 2019. In the first 48 hours of hospitalization, anthropometric and handgrip
36 strength (HGS) assessments were performed. Patients in severe condition, palliative care,
37 hospitalized for bone marrow transplantation, in contact and / or respiratory isolation and
38 unable to perform anthropometry were excluded. The statistical analysis for the data
39 correlation was performed using Pearson's coefficient, and association by χ^2 test. The HGS
40 values were distributed in quartiles. P-value ≤ 0.05 was considered significant. Results: The
41 majority of the population had an adequate BMI (45.60%).and the mean HGS was 17.1 kg
42 (SD \pm 8.93). There was a strong correlation between HGS and mid-arm muscle
43 circumference (MAMC) and weight. The lowest HGS percentile also showed a statistically
44 significant association with below adequate MAMC. Conclusions: These results show that
45 the use of HGS is feasible in clinical practice to determine low muscle strength and as a
46 prognostic factor for treatment.

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48 Keywords: Neoplasms, children, adolescent, muscle weakness, nutritional status.

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55 1 – INTRODUCTION:

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57 Individuals with cancer usually experience weight loss and lean mass depletion (1),
58 which is an independent risk factor for increased morbidity and mortality, length of hospital
59 stay, risk of treatment toxicity, and worsening quality of life (2,3). Malnutrition is a common
60 complication in pediatric cancer patients (4). Lean mass depletion is accompanied by loss of
61 muscle strength, more appropriately called dinapenia (5).

62 Among the types of cancer that affect the pediatric age group, leukemia is the most
63 common type of cancer in most populations (6–8). According to the estimates of the National
64 Cancer Institute José Alencar Gomes da Silva (9) for each year of the 2020-2022 triennium,
65 in Brazil, there will be 4,310 new cases of cancer in male children and adolescents, and
66 4,150 in female.

67 More recently, dinapenia in children has been studied (10–13), which can be
68 measured by handgrip strength. It has been considered a predictor of nutritional status
69 (14,15), but there is no defined cutoff point for the pediatric population.

70 According to the European consensus on sarcopenia in older people (16), muscle
71 strength reflects muscle functionality and is the first parameter evaluated for diagnosis, which
72 must be confirmed with other methods to measure muscle mass, but it is highly likely that the
73 individual is sarcopenic when presenting muscle strength reduction. Although there is
74 growing research interest in childhood sarcopenia, there is no consensus until the present
75 moment (17). Thus, this study aims to evaluate the association between nutritional status
76 and muscle strength in pediatric cancer patients hospitalized.

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78 2- METHODS:

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80 2.1 – Study population and design:

81 A quantitative, observational, descriptive and cross-sectional study was carried out
82 with pediatric cancer patients admitted to the pediatric ward of the National Cancer Institute

83 José Alencar da Silva (INCA), from February 2019 to November 2019. Children and
84 adolescents from 6 to 19 years, with confirmed oncological diagnosis of solid and / or
85 hematological tumors were included. The exclusion criteria were: patients admitted to the
86 pediatric ICU in a severe clinical condition; patients admitted for bone marrow
87 transplantation; palliative care patients; patients unable to perform anthropometric
88 assessment, either due to the presence of edema, an amputated limb or the impossibility of
89 walking; and patients in contact and / or respiratory isolation.

90 The sample was stratified by age group: 6 to 9 years, 10 to 14 years and 15 to 19
91 years. Participants underwent nutritional assessment within the first 48 hours of
92 hospitalization. In nutritional assessment, handgrip strength (HGS) measurements were
93 performed to assess muscle function, and anthropometric measurements were taken to
94 diagnose nutritional status.

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96 **2.2 – Nutritional Assessment:**

97 Anthropometry were performed: body weight measurements on a digital scale
98 calibrated with a scale of 0.1 kg with participants wearing light clothes and without shoes;
99 height, measured by vertical wall stadiometer; mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC),
100 measured by a flexible, inelastic measuring tape, at the midpoint of the distance between the
101 acromion and the olecranon; tricipital skinfold (TSF), performed at the same midpoint of the
102 MUAC, but in the posterior part of the arm, parallel to the horizontal axis, to assess the
103 adipose reserve through the adipometer; and mid-arm muscle circumference (MAMC),
104 obtained indirectly by measuring the TSF and MUAC using the following calculation: MAMC
105 (cm) = MUAC (cm) - TSF (mm) x π / 10 (where $\pi = 3,14$). MUAC and TSF measurements
106 were obtained in one arm, in three measurements and the value used was the average of
107 these values. HGS was measured using the Jamar hydraulic hand dynamometer (Sammons
108 Preston TM, Canada). The test was applied with the patient seated, with the shoulder
109 abducted and neutrally rotated, elbow flexed at 90° and forearm and wrist in neutral position.
110 Three measurements were taken in each hand alternately (total of six measurements), with a

111 one-minute pause between them, except in case of venous access or catheter in one of the
112 arms. In this case, three measurements were made on the same hand. The patient was
113 asked to exercise as much force as possible and the highest value obtained was considered.

114 For the diagnosis of nutritional status, the Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated by
115 the body weight divided by the height squared. The Z-score calculation of the anthropometric
116 ratios "weight for age", "height for age" and "BMI for age" was performed using the WHO
117 AnthroPlus software (version 3.2.2, January 2011) and the classification was performed by
118 the growth curves of the World Health Organization (18). The classifications of MUAC, TSF
119 and MAMC were based on the reference tables of FRISANCHO (1981, 1990).

120 All equipment for assessing the patients' nutritional status were available at the
121 institution. Information regarding diagnosis and treatment was obtained from medical
122 records.

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124 **2.3 – Statistical Analysis:**

125 Continuous variables were expressed as mean and standard deviation (SD) and
126 categorical variables were presented by percentage frequency distribution. The Chi-square
127 test was used to analyze categorical variables and ANOVA with Bonferrini post-hoc test or
128 Student's t-test for continuous variables. Pearson's correlation was used to assess the
129 correlation between muscle strength and nutritional status. Pearson's coefficients were
130 classified as: from 0.1 to 0.39 indicates a weak correlation, from 0.40 to 0.69 indicates a
131 moderate correlation and above 0.70 indicates a strong correlation (19).

132 The values of HGS were classified in quartiles and the distribution of patients in the
133 percentiles <25 , ≥ 25 and <50 , ≥ 50 and <75 , and ≥ 75 was performed. From this
134 distribution, the chi-square test was performed between HGS percentiles and anthropometric
135 parameters.

136 The results were considered statistically significant when p-value \leq 0.05, and 95%
137 confidence intervals. The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program, version
138 22, was used to analyze the data.

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140 **2.4 – Ethical considerations:**

141 The study in question is linked to a larger study called "Construction and validation of
142 a nutritional assessment instrument for pediatric cancer patients". The project has been
143 submitted to the Ethics Committee and approved under CAAE No. 73737317.2.3001.5274.

144 Those responsible for patients aged 6 to 17 years signed the Informed Consent. The
145 18 and 19-year-old patients signed the Informed Consent for adolescent patient together with
146 the parents or responsible for them. The Assent term was signed by patients aged 7 to 17
147 years.

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149 **3- RESULTS:**

150 The sample consisted of 63 patients, 52.40% male and 47.60% female. Table 1
151 shows the general characteristics and the main diagnoses of all patients, stratified by age
152 group.

153 Most tumors were solid (69.80%), with Central Nervous System (CNS) tumors being
154 the most frequent in the sample (22.20%), followed by Acute Lymphoid Leukemia - ALL
155 (14.30%) and osteosarcoma (11.10%). CNS tumors were also the most frequent for the 10-
156 14 year olds and 15-19 year olds (25% and 31.60%, respectively). In the 6 to 9 year old age
157 group, the most frequent tumors were ALL (18.80%), Burkitt's Lymphoma (12.50%),
158 Osteosarcoma (12.50%) and Retinoblastoma (12.50%).

159 Among the tumors in the "other" category, there are tumors that presented 2 times or
160 less. They are: desmoid tumor of the mandible, Ewing's sarcoma, Fibrohistiocytoma,
161 Synoviosarcoma, Teratoma, Hepatocarcinoma, Pheochromocytoma and Willms tumor.

162 Among CNS tumors are: Medulloblastoma, Astrocytoma, Primitive neuroectodermal tumor
 163 (PNET), Glioma, Germinoma, Craniopharyngioma, Chordoma clivus and Ependimoma.
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Table 1: General characteristics and main diagnoses for general population and by age group.

Variables	General	6 - 9 years	10- 14 years	15 - 19 years
Sex**				
Male	52,40%	68,80%	60,70%	26,30%
Female	47,60%	31,30%	39,30%	73,70%
Age (years) – mean (SD)	13,01 (3,83)	8,03 (1,14)	12,80 (1,56)	17,50 (1,58)
Hospitalization reason				
Emergency	52,40%	37,50%	53,60%	63,20%
Elective	47,60%	62,50%	46,40%	36,80%
Tumors types				
Solids	69,80%	62,50%	71,40%	73,70%
Hematological	30,20%	37,50%	28,60%	26,30%
Diagnoses				
ALL	14,30%	18,80%	14,30%	10,50%
AML	1,60%	-	-	5,30%
Hodgkin's lymphoma	4,80%	6,30%	3,60%	5,30%
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	6,30%	-	10,70%	5,30%
Burkitt's lymphoma	3,20%	12,50%	-	-
CNS tumors	22,20%	6,30%	25,00%	31,60%
Thyroid carcinoma	3,20%	6,30%	3,60%	-
Osteosarcoma	11,10%	12,50%	10,70%	10,50%
Rhabdomyosarcoma	4,80%	6,30%	7,10%	-
Oro/nasopharynx	7,90%	-	10,70%	10,50%
Retinoblastoma	3,20%	12,50%	-	-
Others	17,50%	18,80%	14,30%	21,10%

**P-value \leq 0.05, using the Chi-square test. SD: standard deviation; ALL: Acute Lymphoid

Leukemia; AML: Acute Myeloid Leukemia; CNS: central nervous system.

165 Table 2 shows the mean and standard deviation of the parameters of nutritional
 166 assessment. The mean weight of the patients was 44.88 kg (SD \pm 19.53) and the mean HGS
 167 was 17.1 kg (SD \pm 8.93). The weight and MAMC variables showed a statistically significant
 168 difference between the three age groups.

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Table 2: Mean and standard deviation (SD) of nutritional assessment parameters for the entire sample and by age group

Nutritional Assessment		General	6 - 9 years	10- 14 years	15 - 19 years
Weight (Kg)	*# ^o	44,88 (19,53)	26,73 (5,60)	46,99 (16,74)	59,70 (18,75)
Height (cm)	* ^o	148,76 (17,65)	125,44 (7,08)	155,50 (12,09)	161,56 (6,95)
BMI (Kg/m²)	^o	19,49 (5,30)	16,84 (2,30)	19,09 (5,06)	22,75 (6,28)
MUAC (cm)	# ^o	22,45 (5,36)	18,72 (2,29)	22,14 (5,02)	26,04 (5,52)
TSF (mm)		16,57 (10,55)	13,25 (6,22)	15,33 (10,42)	21,17 (12,39)
MAMC (cm)	*# ^o	17,24 (3,18)	14,55 (1,43)	17,32 (2,73)	19,39 (3,25)
HGS (Kg)	* ^o	17,10 (8,93)	8,88 (3,65)	18,89 (9,14)	21,37 (7,34)

170 * P-value \leq 0.05 between 6-9 years and 10-14 years; # P-value \leq 0.05 between 10-14 years
 171 and 15-19 years; ^o P-value \leq 0.05 between 15-19 years and 6-9 years, using ANOVA with
 172 Bonferroni post-hoc test. BMI: body mass index; MUAC: mid-upper arm circumference; TSF:
 173 tricipital skin fold; MAMC: mid-arm muscle circumference of the arm; HGS: handgrip
 174 strength.

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176 When the genders are compared, there was a statistical difference between the HGS
 177 for male and female in the general population (p -value = 0.009). However, in the different
 178 age groups, was found statistical difference only between the two sexes in the age group of
 179 14 to 19 years (p -value = 0.002). In both sexes, the HGS increased with age, but it was only
 180 significant in the 6 to 9 year old age group compared with the other two age groups, showing
 181 a greater increase in the HGS from the school phase to the adolescent phase and a
 182 decreasing from the 10 years old. This also occurs with male patients, but in females there is
 183 only a statistical difference between the age groups of 6 to 9 years and 15 to 19 years.

184 Table 3 shows the classification of anthropometric indexes and anthropometric
 185 measures in the total population and stratified by sex and age. The majority of the population
 186 had an appropriate weight for their age (81.30%), an adequate height for their age (94.20%)
 187 and adequate BMI (45.60%). However, in the age group of 15 to 19 years, in the male
 188 population, the frequency of adequate BMI, overweight and marked thinness was similar
 189 (33.30%). Most also had adequate MUAC, TSF and MAMC (58.70%, 50.80% and 55.60%,

190 respectively). However, in the age groups 10 to 14 and 15 to 19 years old, the highest
191 frequency of MUAC was lower than that suitable for males (47.10% and 60.00%,
192 respectively), and in the age group 15 to 19 years old, also in the male population, the most
193 frequent MAMC classification was below the adequate level (60.00%). In addition, in the age
194 group of 15 to 19 years, in the female population, the frequencies of MAMC below the
195 adequate and adequate were similar (42.90%).

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Table 3: Classifications of anthropometric indexes and anthropometric measures for the entire sample and by sex and age group

		6 - 9 years			10 – 14 years		15 - 19 years			
		Geral	Masculino	Feminino	Masculino	Feminino	Masculino	Feminino	Masculino	Feminino
Z-score W/A	Low	6,30%	9,10%	-	9,10%	-	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Nutritional risk	12,50%	18,20%	-	18,20%	-	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Adequate	81,30%	72,70%	100,00%	72,70%	100,00%	NA	NA	NA	NA
Z-score H/A	Low	5,80%	-	12,50%	-	-	-	20,00%	-	11,10%
	Adequate	94,20%	100,00%	87,50%	100,00%	100,00%	100,00%	80,00%	100,00%	88,90%
Z-score BMI/A	Marked thinness	8,80%	10,30%	7,10%	-	-	13,30%	10,00%	33,30%	7,70%
	Thinness	7,00%	6,90%	7,10%	9,10%	-	6,70%	-	-	15,40%
	Nutritional risk	10,50%	17,20%	3,60%	9,10%	-	26,70%	10,00%	-	-
	Overweight	15,80%	10,30%	21,40%	27,30%	20,00%	-	10,00%	-	30,80%
	Obesity	12,30%	13,80%	10,70%	9,10%	-	13,30%	10,00%	33,30%	15,40%
	Eutrophic	45,60%	41,40%	50,00%	45,50%	80,00%	40,00%	60,00%	33,30%	30,80%
MUAC	Below adequate (< P5)	33,30%	39,40%	26,70%	18,20%	20,00%	47,10%	27,30%	60,00%	28,60%
	Above adequate (> P95)	7,90%	12,10%	3,30%	-	-	17,60%	-	20,00%	7,10%
	Adequate (P5-95)	58,70%	48,50%	70,00%	81,80%	80,00%	35,30%	72,70%	20,00%	64,30%
TSF	Below adequate (< P5)	4,80%	6,10%	3,30%	-	-	11,80%	-	-	7,10%
	Nutritional risk (P5-15)	12,70%	15,20%	10,00%	27,30%	20,00%	5,90%	18,20%	20,00%	-
	Obesity risk (P85-95)	14,30%	12,10%	16,70%	27,30%	-	-	27,30%	20,00%	14,30%
	Above adequate (> P95)	17,50%	21,20%	13,30%	27,30%	20,00%	17,60%	9,10%	20,00%	14,30%
	Adequate (> P15 e < P85)	50,80%	45,50%	56,70%	18,20%	60,00%	64,70%	45,50%	40,00%	63,30%
MAMC	Below adequate (< P5)	41,30%	42,40%	40,00%	27,30%	20,00%	47,10%	45,50%	60,00%	42,90%
	Above adequate (> P95)	3,20%	-	6,70%	-	-	-	-	-	14,30%
	Adequate (P5-95)	55,60%	57,60%	53,30%	72,70%	80,00%	52,90%	54,50%	40,00%	42,90%

W/A: weight for age; H/A: height for age; BMI/A: body mass index for age; MUAC: mid-upper arm circumference; TSF: tricipital skin fold; MAMC: mid-arm

muscle circumference.

200 Table 4 shows the correlation between HGS and anthropometric measurements. The
 201 correlation between HGS and weight was strong and significant for the total sample, but it
 202 was moderate to weak when stratified by age group. The correlation between HGS and
 203 MAMC was also strong and significant for the general population and for the 10 to 14 age
 204 group. There was moderate to weak correlation between HGS and BMI, MUAC and TSF.

205 In addition, classification in HGS quartiles was performed, creating 25th, 50th and
 206 75th percentiles for each sex and age group. Of the 26 children with low MAMC, 16 had an
 207 HGS below the 50th percentile, and of the 35 children with adequate MAMC, 29 had an HGS
 208 above the 50th percentile ($p = 0.003$). This significance was maintained in all age groups.
 209 There was no association between the HGS percentiles and the other parameters.

Table 4: Correlation of HGS with anthropometric measurements

Variables	General		6 - 9 years		10 - 14 years		15 - 19 years	
	r ²	p	r ²	p	r ²	p	r ²	p
HGS X Weight	0,706	0,000	0,680	0,004	0,670	0,000	0,360	0,171
HGS X BMI	0,485	0,000	0,516	0,041	0,436	0,029	0,278	0,297
HGS X MUAC	0,569	0,000	0,547	0,028	0,473	0,011	0,364	0,125
HGS X TSF	0,208	0,102	0,196	0,468	0,131	0,508	0,040	0,872
HGS X MAMC	0,743	0,000	0,605	0,013	0,714	0,000	0,572	0,010

210 Pearson's correlation; r² between 0.40 and 0.69: moderate correlation; r²> 0.70 strong
 211 correlation. HGS: hand grip strength; BMI: body mass index; MUAC: mid-upper arm
 212 circumference; TSF: tricipital skin fold; MAMC: mid-arm muscle circumference.

213

214 4-DISCUSSION

215 In the study, the highest prevalence was of solid tumors, and most patients had an
 216 adequate nutritional status, according to the WHO classification, except in some age groups
 217 that had a higher prevalence of nutritional status below the adequate level. Moreover, a
 218 strong correlation of HGS with MAMC and weight was found, as well as a statistically
 219 significant relationship of the distribution of HGS in percentiles with MAMC.

220 Leukemia and lymphomas are known to be the most common types of cancer in the
 221 pediatric population (6–8). Despite this, the current study had a higher prevalence of children

222 with solid tumors (69.80%). This is probably due to the low turnover of the pediatric
223 hematology ward of Cancer Hospital I, which has few beds, and in which most patients are
224 admitted multiple times for chemotherapy protocols, in addition to having a prolonged
225 hospital stay.

226 In the current study, the sample mostly presented adequate nutritional status
227 according to all anthropometric parameters, and was compatible with the study by Moreira et
228 al. (2019), who assessed the nutritional status of pediatric patients newly diagnosed with
229 Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia. These findings were also consistent with those of Jensen et
230 al. (2017) and Lifson et al. (2017) in relation to anthropometric indexes, however they
231 differed from this second author when it comes to the classifications of MUAC, TSF and
232 MAMC, whose findings showed a higher prevalence of malnutrition. However, in the current
233 study, despite the general population presenting the appropriate classification for such
234 measures, when the sample was stratified, it was possible to observe that in certain age
235 groups the frequency of classifications below the appropriate level is higher, especially for
236 males.

237 Many authors have considered HGS as an indicator of nutritional status, sarcopenia
238 and bone fragility (14,22). The findings of this article show that the HGS increased with age,
239 but this increase was not significant between the 10-14 year old and 15-19 year old,
240 evidencing that there is a significant increase from the school to the adolescent phase,
241 slowing down from 10 years old. Another study also observes this phenomenon, but the
242 author points out that the greatest increase in HGS occurs between 9 and 11 years in girls
243 and between 13 and 14 years in boys (12). Ploegmakers et al. (2013) found that HGS also
244 increases with age, accelerating above 12 years in boys and from 11 years in girls. Both
245 studies were conducted with healthy children and adolescents.

246 In assessing the correlation of HGS with anthropometric parameters, a strong
247 correlation was observed with weight, which was not maintained in any of the three age
248 groups, and with MAMC, which persisted only in the 10 to 14 age group. In addition, by
249 distributing the HGS in quartiles, it was possible to identify a significant association between

250 the adequacy of the MAMC and the percentile of HGS. This result points that HGS can be a
251 good predictor of nutritional status related to muscle mass. Three other authors found a
252 relationship between HGS and muscle mass, either through MAMC or BIA (11,12,23).

253 According to Marrodán Serrano et al. (2009), in addition to the correlation with
254 MAMC, correlations were also found with height, age, weight, MUAC, total arm area and
255 muscular arm area for males, but only weight, age, MAMC and height for the women.
256 However, when the effects of age and height are eliminated, the correlations with the other
257 parameters are not maintained. de Souza et al. (2014), in a study also carried out with
258 healthy children, identified a correlation between HGS and height, weight and fat-free mass,
259 obtained through BIA. Ploegmakers et al. (2013) observed an association between HGS and
260 weight, in addition to age, height and sex.

261 Bouma et al. (2016), in a study with children after hematopoietic cell transplants,
262 observed that patients with malnutrition, classified according to BMI for age, had lower HGS
263 values than those who had an adequate or high BMI for their age. In addition, he observed
264 that children with HGS below the 10th percentile, had a significant association with BMI,
265 indicating that this may possibly be a good cutoff point for this population.

266 It is important to note that the weight in patients with solid tumors may be
267 overestimated due to the presence of the tumor mass. However, there was a correlation of
268 strength with other anthropometric parameters, whether moderate or strong.

269 The HGS in this study was distributed in quartiles, but it was not possible to diagnose
270 dinapenia, since there is no cutoff point validated for the pediatric population with cancer in
271 Brazil. The studies that define cutoff points use varied methodologies, such as the ROC
272 curve, which requires a representative sample, the LMS method, which takes into account
273 the mean, coefficients of variation and Box-Cox transformations, for the distribution in
274 percentiles and definition of the extreme values, and the classification of two standard
275 deviations below the mean (10,14,24,25). Steffl; Chrudimsky; Tufano (2017) proposes the
276 use of an index created from the ratio between HGS and BMI and concludes, through the

277 data, that it is able to identify children at risk of being diagnosed with sarcopenic obesity. All
278 of these studies are carried out with healthy children.

279 No studies were found to assess HGS and its relationship with anthropometric
280 parameters in pediatric cancer patients. In recent years, a lot of research has been done
281 evaluating sarcopenia in children, however, such studies do not evaluate HGS, but muscle
282 mass through CT or DEXA. This shows the innovative character of the research and its
283 relevance to clinical practice, since HGS is an easy-to-use and low-cost method.

284 Nevertheless, some limitations must be considered. Patients from the emergency
285 room were included. Often the HGS of these children may be reduced due to symptoms that
286 led them to seek care and not to malnutrition related to the disease and treatment.

287

288 **5-CONCLUSION:**

289 The study demonstrated a positive and strong correlation between HGS and MAMC,
290 showing that it reflects nutritional status related to lean mass. Therefore, its use in clinical
291 practice is feasible, especially in children with cancer, since they will be submitted to
292 aggressive treatments such as radiotherapy and chemotherapy and will be subject to
293 unsatisfactory outcomes related to muscle mass loss.

294 However, further studies are still needed, mainly to define a cutoff point for each age
295 group and to use HGS as a predictor of sarcopenia and as a prognostic factor for treatment.
296 However, at first, its use for follow-up is suggested in order to assess sarcopenia during
297 antineoplastic therapy or hospitalization.

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