

32 **ABSTRACT**

33 **Background:** College students tend to have eating and lifestyle behaviors that can lead to
34 weight gain. Paradoxically, weight gain could also lead to calorie restriction, a practice that
35 is common among those who are concerned about their body weight. Thus, the objective of
36 this study was to investigate the association between habits related to overweight and obesity
37 and dietary intake, physical activity, and BMI among college students.

38
39 **Methodology:** One hundred ninety-two participants (18–26 years; 75% female) were
40 included in this cross-sectional study. Participants completed the ‘habits related to
41 overweight and obesity questionnaire’ which evaluates five dimensions: the concern about
42 caloric intake, healthy eating, physical activity, alcohol consumption, and eating for
43 psychological well-being. Additionally, anthropometric parameters, dietary intake, and
44 physical activity were evaluated. Linear regression models were used to examine the
45 associations between outcome and exposure variables.

46
47 **Results:** Higher concern about caloric intake was associated with higher BMI (1.05 kg/m²
48 [95%CI: 0.58, 1.51]), but lower energy (-312.2 kcal/day [95%CI: -404.6, -219.8]) and fat
49 intake (-1.88% [95%CI: -2.94, -0.83]). Furthermore, healthy eating was related to better diet
50 quality 0.96 [95%CI: 0.47,1.44] and lower energy intake -231.4 kcal/day [95%CI: -367.7, -
51 95.2]. Meanwhile, higher scores in the physical activity dimension were associated with
52 better diet quality (0.41 [95%CI: 0.16,0.66]).

53
54 **Conclusions:** College students with the highest dietary restraint had the greatest BMI and
55 the lowest energy and fat intake. Our results highlight the importance of promoting healthy
56 behaviors among college students.

57
58 **Key words:** BMI, dietary intake, college students, dietary restraint, physical activity.

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63 **1. Introduction**

64 The transition from high school to college is a time period characterized by several life
65 changes, including leaving the parental home to attend college, as well as having greater
66 responsibilities and independence, which can influence lifestyle and eating habits [1].
67 Additionally, the social environment and characteristics of the university (i.e. living
68 arrangements or academic schedules) can influence eating behaviors among college students
69 [2]. Along these lines, this population tend to have some dietary habits that increase their
70 susceptibility to gain weight, including: meal skipping, nibbling and consuming larger
71 portions of food [3–5]. In Spain, an increase in the Western dietary pattern (characterized by
72 the presence of foods with high amounts of sugar, salt, and saturated fats) has been observed
73 and, as a consequence, the adherence to the Mediterranean diet has decreased [6–8].
74 Interestingly, college students who are less likely to follow a Mediterranean diet show higher
75 energy intake and are also more prone to engage in obesity-related behaviors, such as eating
76 ultra-processed foods or snacks from vending machines, attending fast-food restaurants, and
77 not choosing low-energy foods [9]. Furthermore, these changes in eating patterns have been
78 associated with physical inactivity and can produce adverse health effects, including weight
79 gain and obesity [10].

80

81 College students could also experience an increase in alcohol consumption [11]. In fact, it
82 has been reported that around two-thirds of undergraduate students drink alcohol, of whom
83 one-third get drunk [12]. It should be noted that 1 gram of alcohol provides 7.1 kcal, so
84 alcohol intake is considered an energy intake additive to the usual dietary intake [13,14]. In
85 consequence, higher alcohol intake can promote a positive energy balance and weight gain
86 among heavy drinkers (understood as consuming 4 drinks on any day or more than 14 drinks
87 per week for men and consuming 3 drinks on any day or more than 7 drinks per week for
88 women) [13,14]. Not surprisingly, it has been observed that to compensate for the higher
89 alcohol consumption, college students tend to consume low-fat and low-calorie foods, skip
90 meals, or eat less, a practice that is more common among those who are concerned about
91 their body weight or eating healthy [12].

92

93 Along these lines, dietary restraint (defined as the intention and/or the attempt to restrict
94 caloric intake) [15,16] is another common behavior among this population [17]. However, it
95 appears that dietary restraint does not help with weight control [17,18], on the contrary, this
96 behavior increases the risk for overweight among young populations (adolescents and college
97 students), despite reporting lower energy intake [17]. Importantly, dietary restraint is
98 associated with increased bottom-up reward reactivity to food stimuli, which may help to
99 explain why individuals who attempt to diet are vulnerable to weight gain and binge eating
100 [16]. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that dietary restraint is correlated with lower
101 pleasure and higher craving ratings for high- and low-calorie foods [16].

102

103 Regarding other lifestyle behaviors, it has been reported that the level of physical activity in
104 young populations (aged 18-30) has increased in recent years [19,20]. Interestingly, Zurita et
105 al [21] noted that college students who performed high levels of physical activity also
106 reported having a high adherence to the Mediterranean diet. The authors postulate that young
107 people who practice physical activity tend to consume a nutritious diet in order to obtain
108 better results in terms of performance, body image, or wellbeing [21]. Additionally, college
109 students who have greater intrinsic motivation to participate in sports also report healthier
110 habits [22].

111

112 Taking into account the aforementioned, it is relevant to study habits related to overweight
113 and obesity (including dietary restraint, alcohol intake, and physical activity) among college
114 students and their association with dietary intake and body mass index (BMI). Especially
115 considering that this stage of life is a critical period in the consolidation of eating habits and
116 behaviors that are important for future health [4,23]. Furthermore, evidence from longitudinal
117 studies has shown that weight and fat mass percentage increase significantly during college
118 years [11,24]. Thus, we aimed to investigate the association between habits related to
119 overweight and obesity with dietary intake, physical activity and BMI among college
120 students. In addition, we aimed to study which was the habit related with overweight and
121 obesity that would predict overweight among college students. In line with previous research
122 and the rationale behind each approach, we hypothesized that healthier habits, that is,

123 healthier dietary intake, higher levels of physical activity, and lower alcohol intake and
124 dietary restraint would associate with lower BMI.

125

126 **2. Methods**

127 **2.1 Participants and study design**

128 Participants (18 – 26 years) were recruited among undergraduate students at the University
129 of Barcelona (Barcelona, Spain) for a cross-sectional study. Recruitment consisted of an
130 informative talk, explaining details to the students about the research, and inviting them to
131 take part in the study. The exclusion criteria consisted of the unwillingness to participate in
132 the study and/or having any disease that significantly limited the subject's diet (e.g.
133 polyallergies, phenylketonuria, etc.). Also, in the case that a participant provided incomplete
134 information required for the study, he/she was excluded. According to these criteria, a total
135 of 192 participants were eligible to participate in the study and gave their written consent.
136 All the study procedures were conducted according to the general recommendations of the
137 Declaration of Helsinki and were approved by Ethics Committee of the University of
138 Barcelona (IRB00003099).

139

140 **2.2 Outcome variables**

141 *Anthropometric Measurements*

142 Weight and height were asked in a questionnaire as follows: ‘What is your current weight?
143 (in kg)’ and ‘What is your current height? (in cm)’. Self-reported height and weight were
144 used to calculate the BMI as follows: weight (kg) divided by height squared (m^2), kg/m^2 .
145 Note that self-reported BMI had a very high agreement with measured BMI values among a
146 similar population [6]. Subsequently, BMI was classified according to the World Health
147 Organization criteria, as follows: “underweight” ($<18.5 kg/m^2$); “normal-weight” ($18.5–24.9$
148 kg/m^2); “overweight” ($25.0–29.9 kg/m^2$); “obesity” ($30.0–34.9 kg/m^2$) [25].

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150

151 *Dietary intake*

152 Dietary intake was assessed with a 3-day food register that included two weekdays and one
153 weekend day. A nutritionist taught participants to register the type of food or beverage

154 (including alcoholic beverages) with brand name if possible, preparation, type of cooking,
155 portion size (in grams or household measures), location of the meal (i.e., home, or restaurant).
156 This information allowed us to estimate the daily intake of energy and nutrients using PCN
157 Pro 1.0 software [26]. According the data from the 3-day food registers, ethanol intake
158 (g/day) was classified as follows: “low” (<5 g/day for women and <10 g/day for men),
159 “moderate” (5-25 g/day for women and 10-50g/day for men) and “high” (>25 g/day for
160 women and >50 g/day for men) [27].

161

162 Diet quality was evaluated through the 14-Item Mediterranean Diet Assessment Tool, which
163 has been validated in Spanish population [28]. According to the instructions accompanying
164 the questionnaire, the scores range from 0 – 14, with higher scores indicating greater
165 adherence to the Mediterranean diet. In addition, adherence to the Mediterranean Diet was
166 classified according to the score as follows: “low” (0–5 points), “average” (6–9 points) or
167 “high” (≥ 10 points) [28].

168

169 *Physical activity*

170 The level of physical activity was evaluated using the short version of the International
171 Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) in Metabolic Equivalents of Task (MET) – minutes
172 per week [29]. Note that this version of the IPAQ questionnaire has been validated in the
173 Spanish population, in which a good correlation with accelerometer data was obtained [29].
174 Physical activity levels were classified as follows: “low” (METs <600), “moderate” (METs
175 600 – 3000), and “vigorous” (METs >3000).

176

177 **2.3 Exposure variables**

178 *Habits Related to Overweight and Obesity Questionnaire*

179 These behaviors were evaluated with the Habits Related to Overweight and Obesity
180 Questionnaire [30,31], which has been validated in Spanish population [30] and has
181 demonstrated reliable psychometric properties in our sample using Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha =$
182 0.79). This questionnaire includes 22 questions on life habits, which are answered selecting
183 one of 5 categories that ranged from “Never” to “Each day”. The questionnaire contains five

184 dimensions, and each question is answered using a five level Likert scale that scores ranging
185 from 1 to 5 [30,31]:

186

- 187 i. Caloric intake, which collects information on participants' concern about the calorie
188 content of the diet, as well as the actions they take to control energy intake. This includes:
189 monitoring the calories consumed, taking small portions and waiting a few minutes
190 before taking something they want. Higher scores indicate greater dietary restraint.
- 191 ii. Healthy eating, which collects information related to the type of food (and preparations)
192 eaten by a person that is concern about maintaining a healthy diet. Higher scores indicate
193 healthier eating habits.
- 194 iii. Physical activity, which collects information related to the habitual or systematic practice
195 of physical exercise. Higher scores indicate more physical activity.
- 196 iv. Alcohol consumption, which reflects the frequency with which alcoholic beverages are
197 consumed. Higher scores indicate a low frequency of consumption of high-alcohol
198 beverages (e.g. gin, whisky, rum) or a moderate consumption of low-alcohol beverages
199 (e.g. wine and beer).
- 200 v. Eating for psychological well-being, which includes statements that relate food intake to
201 some type of psychological distress (e.g., discouragement, boredom, anxiety, etc.).
202 Higher scores indicate a lower tendency to eat due to psychological distress.

203

204 **2.4 Covariates**

205 Participant's gender and date of birth (to estimate age) were self-reported through
206 standardized questions.

207

208 **2.5 Statistical Analyses**

209 Descriptive characteristics are presented for all participants, including mean and standard
210 deviation for continuous variables and proportions for categorical variables. Chronbach's
211 alpha was used to estimate *Habits Related to Overweight and Obesity Questionnaire* internal
212 consistency. The associations between outcome and exposure variables were tested using
213 linear regression models. Analyses were adjusted for gender, age, and physical activity,
214 unless the variable was tested. Subsequently, a discriminant function analysis was performed

215 to determine which of the 22 questions of *Habits Related to Overweight and Obesity*
216 *Questionnaire* could reliably classify the subjects according to the BMI categories
217 (underweight, normal-weight, overweight/obesity). We also applied this analysis to evaluate
218 which of the five dimensions (caloric intake, healthy eating, physical activity, alcohol
219 consumption, and eating for psychological well-being) could reliably classify the subjects
220 according to their BMI. Univariate F-tests were then calculated to determine the importance
221 of each independent variable in forming the discriminant functions. Examining the Wilk's
222 Lambda values for each of the predictors revealed how important the independent variable
223 was to the discriminant function, with smaller values representing greater importance. P-
224 values were corrected using the Benjamini–Hochberg method, assuming a false discovery
225 rate of 5%. All analyses were performed with the SPSS statistical computer software, version
226 25.0 (IBM SPSS Statistics, Armonk, NY, USA). Significance testing was considered when
227 $p < 0.05$.

228

229 **3. Results**

230 A total of 192 subjects (age 19.7 ± 1.7 years; 75% female) were included in this cross-sectional
231 study (**Table 1**). Overall, the results showed that 83.3% of the participants were normal
232 weight, while 9.4% of the sample was underweight and 7.3% were overweight or obese.
233 Regarding dietary intake, average energy intake was 2024 ± 650 kcal, while macronutrient
234 distribution was as follows: 40.5% carbohydrates, 39.7% fat and 18.7% proteins.
235 Additionally, we observed that 86% of the participants were low alcohol drinkers, whereas
236 12% were moderate and 2% were high alcohol drinkers. About diet quality, we observed that
237 the majority of the participants (66.7%) showed an average adherence to the Mediterranean
238 diet, while 23.4% had a high adherence, and the remaining 9.9% showed a low adherence to
239 this dietary pattern. Furthermore, 55.7% of the sample performed a moderate level of
240 physical activity, while 6.3% and 38% reported either a low or high level of physical activity
241 (respectively).

242

243 Regarding health-related behaviors, we observed that the healthy eating dimension and the
244 physical activity dimension were those that presented the highest mean scores (3.5 ± 0.6 points
245 and 3.2 ± 1.3 points, respectively). On the other hand, the caloric intake and the alcohol

246 consumption dimensions were the ones with the lowest scores (2.5 ± 0.8 and 2.6 ± 0.9 points,
 247 respectively).

248

249 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the population studied.

Total sample (n)	192
Gender, % females	75.0
Age, years	19.7 (1.7)
Anthropometric measures	
Weight, kg	60.8 (9.8)
Height, m	1.6 (0.1)
Body mass index, kg/m ²	21.5 (2.8)
Dietary intake	
Energy, kcal/day	2024.3 (650.2)
Carbohydrates, % of total energy/day	40.5 (6.4)
Fat, % of total energy/day	39.7 (6.0)
Protein, % of total energy/day	18.7 (4.7)
Fiber, g/day	21.8 (9.7)
Ethanol, g/day	2.7 (7.1)
Diet quality ¹ , score	8.0 (2.1)
Physical activity, MET-minutes/week	3099.5 (2119.5)
Habits related to overweight and obesity	
Caloric intake, points	2.5 (0.8)
Healthy eating, points	3.5 (0.6)
Physical activity, points	3.2 (1.3)
Alcohol consumption, points	2.6 (0.9)
Eating for psychological well-being, points	2.9 (1.1)

250 MET, metabolic equivalent of task. ¹The diet quality was evaluated with the 14-Item
 251 Mediterranean Diet Assessment Tool. Values are means (standard deviations) for continuous
 252 data and percentages (%) for categorical data.

253

254 As shown in **Table 2**, significant associations were found between the caloric intake
255 dimension and BMI ($\beta = 1.05 \text{ kg/m}^2$ [95% CI: 0.58, 1.51]), energy ($\beta = -312.19 \text{ kcal/day}$ [95%
256 CI: -404.55, -219.83]), protein intake ($\beta = 1.77 \%$ of total energy/day [95% CI: 0.98, 2.56]),
257 fat ($\beta = -1.88 \%$ of total energy/day [95% CI: -2.94, -0.83]) and, as well as, with diet quality
258 ($\beta = 0.80$ points [95% CI: 0.45, 1.15]). In addition, the healthy eating dimension was
259 significantly associated with energy intake ($\beta = -231.43 \text{ kcal/day}$ [95% CI: -367.70, -95.17])
260 and diet quality ($\beta = 0.96$ points [95% CI: 0.47, 1.44]).

261 **Table 2.** Associations between the habits related to overweight and obesity and the body mass index (BMI), dietary intake and
 262 physical activity.

	Caloric intake¹ β [95% CI]	Healthy eating¹ β [95% CI]	Physical activity¹ β [95% CI]	Alcohol consumption¹ β [95% CI]	Eating for psychological well-being¹ β [95% CI]
BMI, kg/m²	1.05 [0.58, 1.51]***	0.58 [-0.09, 1.24]	0.29 [-0.05, 0.64]	-0.17 [-0.62, 0.28]	0.00 [-0.35, 0.35]
Dietary intake					
Energy, kcal/day	-312.2 [-404.5, -219.8]***	-231.4 [-367.7, -95.2]**	-55.1 [-127.3, 17.2]	-47.4 [-141.2, 46.5]	-28.3 [-102.1, 45.6]
Proteins, % of total energy/day	1.77 [0.98, 2.56]***	1.00 [-0.13, 2.13]	0.48 [-0.10, 1.07]	-0.18 [-0.94, 0.59]	0.25 [-0.35, 0.85]
Fat, % of total energy/day	-1.88 [-2.94, -0.83]**	-0.95 [-2.43, 0.54]	-0.25 [-1.02, 0.52]	-0.08 [-1.08, 0.91]	-0.26 [-1.04, 0.52]
Carbohydrates, % of total energy/day	-0.39 [-1.55, 0.77]	0.25 [-1.33, 1.83]	-0.37 [-1.18, 0.45]	-0.31 [-1.37, 0.75]	-0.29 [-1.12, 0.54]
Ethanol, g/day	0.74 [-0.55, 2.04]	-0.93 [-2.69, 0.85]	-0.18 [-1.10, 0.74]	1.81 [0.65, 2.97]**	0.28 [-0.66, 1.21]
Fiber g/day	-0.80 [-2.51, 0.90]	2.30 [-0.01, 4.61]	0.82 [-0.38, 2.02]	-0.05 [-1.61, 1.51]	0.14 [-1.09, 1.37]

Diet quality ² , points	0.80 [0.45, 1.15]***	0.96 [0.47, 1.44]***	0.41 [0.16, 0.66]**	0.04 [-0.29, 0.38]	0.07 [-0.20, 0.33]
Physical activity,					
METs- minutes/week	43.5 [-337.8, 424.8]	-263.4 [-781.4, 254.5]	727.2 [507.3, 947.1]***	-185.9 [-533.0, 161.2]	-168.4 [-441.0, 104.0]

263 CI, confidence interval. ¹Dimensions were evaluated with the habits related to overweight and obesity questionnaire. ²Diet quality was
264 evaluated with the 14-Item Mediterranean Diet Assessment Tool. Data was analyzed using linear regression models to test associations
265 between the 5 dimensions of the habits related to overweight and obesity questionnaire and BMI, dietary intake and physical activity.
266 Analyses were adjusted for age, gender and physical activity, unless the variable was tested. P-values were corrected using the
267 Benjamini–Hochberg method, assuming a false discovery rate of 5%. The table shows the unstandardized coefficient (β), 95% CI and
268 p-value associated with each predictor variable. Significant p-values * <0.05; ** <0.01; *** <0.001.

269 The physical activity dimension was significantly associated with diet quality ($\beta= 0.41$ points
270 [95% CI: 0.16, 0.66]) and, as expected, it was also related with the level of physical activity
271 ($\beta= 727.22$ METs/week [95% CI: 507.36, 947.07]). Regarding the dimension of alcohol
272 consumption, our data showed that it was significantly associated with a higher ethanol intake
273 ($\beta= 1.81$ g/day [95% CI: 0.65, 2.97]). However, we did not find significant associations
274 between the eating for psychological well-being dimension and the outcome variables.

275

276 Finally, we conducted a secondary analysis using a discriminant model to investigate which
277 habit related to overweight and obesity would predict overweight among college students.
278 The results showed that the question "I am concerned about the calories I take at the end of
279 the day" was the only one which could reliably classify the BMI of 29.7% of the subjects.
280 Within the dimensions, we observed that the caloric intake dimension was the only one that
281 could classify 32.8% of the subjects into 3 BMI groups: underweight, normal, and
282 overweight/obesity.

283

284 **4. Discussion**

285 The main finding of this study was that greater dietary restraint (expressed as “caloric intake
286 dimension”) was associated with higher BMI, while it was related to lower calorie and fat
287 intake. These findings are built on existing research showing that regular calorie monitoring
288 is related to eating concern and dietary restraint among college students [32], although it
289 remains uncertain whether these behaviors are linked with BMI [32,33]. Note that in our
290 study, greater dietary restraint was associated with higher adherence to the Mediterranean
291 diet, lower energy and fat intake (approximately -312.19 kcal/day and -1.88 % from total
292 energy/day), but higher BMI. In agreement with these findings, Martín-García et al. [34]
293 observed that children and adolescents who reported greater cognitive restraint also had
294 higher BMI values, and therefore pointed out the *restraint theory* [35,36]. This theory
295 supports that chronic food restriction could alternate with episodes of overeating, which
296 could lead to weight gain, and that this increase in weight could also lead to caloric restriction,
297 becoming a vicious cycle [35,36]. Another possible reason according Racine [16] is that
298 individuals with high cognitive restraint choose more low-calorie or “healthy” foods, but
299 these foods are consumed in greater serving sizes, and total caloric intake remains unchanged.

300 Along these lines, a cross-sectional study that evaluated self-reported weight-loss strategies
301 among Australian adults (> 18 years), pointed out that following low-calorie and low-fat diets
302 were two of the most frequent strategies used to lose weight, even among individuals who
303 were normal-weight [37]. The authors noted that while limiting dietary fat may result in
304 weight loss, this behavior could also lead to an overconsumption of low-fat products, as
305 consumers perceive these products to be healthier [37]. The latter could be related with our
306 observation that greater dietary restraint was associated with low energy and fat intake, but
307 higher BMI (~1.05 kg/m²). Consistent with our findings, a recent study showed that
308 adolescents and young adults (14–24 years; n=84) with greater dietary restraint were more
309 likely to be overweight, despite reporting lower energy intake [17]. It is important to note
310 that the results obtained from the discriminant analysis demonstrated that the caloric intake
311 dimension and the question "I am concerned about the calories I take at the end of the
312 day" were the only ones that could classify subjects into the 3 BMI categories (underweight,
313 normal-weight and overweight/obesity).

314

315 Furthermore, the results revealed that among college students, greater dietary restraint was
316 associated with a higher protein intake, which could be another weight loss strategy.
317 According to Moon et al. [38], the mechanism by which a high-protein diet induces weight
318 loss involves an increase in satiety and energy expenditure, concluding that it is a safe method
319 for losing weight while preserving fat-free mass [38].

320

321 Our results also show that a greater concern about healthy eating (expressed as "healthy
322 eating dimension") was associated with lower energy intake (approximately -231.4 kcal/day)
323 and a greater adherence to the Mediterranean diet (~0.96 points). This is in line with a Finnish
324 study that showed that undergraduate students, who considered healthy eating important, also
325 showed greater adherence to dietary guidelines [4]. The authors postulated these results were
326 encouraging for public health, as they suggested that "*young adults put into action*
327 *(adherence to dietary guidelines) what they believed as important (eating healthy)*" [4].
328 Consistently, Sogari et al. [2] reported that the perceived benefits of healthy eating also
329 influenced the intention to eat better and that it was more easily achieved among students
330 who planned their meals. The study authors also reported that university characteristics,

331 including living arrangements or academic schedules, also influenced the relationships
332 between college students and their eating behaviors. Thus, they suggested that these factors
333 should be taken into account when designing nutritional intervention programs [2].

334

335 In the present study, we also demonstrate that a greater practice of physical exercise
336 (expressed as “physical activity dimension”) was associated with a higher adherence to the
337 Mediterranean diet and as expected, a higher level of physical activity (~727.2 METs/week).
338 These results are in line with the evidence presented by other studies, where higher levels of
339 physical activity were related to a greater adherence to Mediterranean diet [21,22,39]. Note
340 that young people who practice physical activity regularly show a greater tendency to
341 consume a nutritious diet, probably in order to obtain greater results in terms of performance,
342 body image, and wellbeing [21]. In addition, several authors highlight that the promotion of
343 physical activity is one of the fundamental pillars of health promotion and disease prevention
344 among young adults [20,40,41]. Furthermore, the regular practice of physical activity among
345 youngsters is related to levels of happiness [19].

346

347 At this point, an interesting concept to promote among young adults, is the Mediterranean
348 lifestyle, that could be described as a healthy way of living focused daily physical activity
349 and high adherence to the Mediterranean diet [40]. This lifestyle has shown many benefits,
350 such as protecting against weight gain and improved physical well-being by mitigating the
351 risk of cardiovascular events (even in the presence of overweight/obesity) and all-cause
352 mortality adults (>18 years)[40].

353

354 The association between the frequency of alcohol consumption (expressed as “alcohol
355 consumption dimension”) and ethanol intake could be explained by the fact that the
356 Mediterranean Diet includes as part of its recommendations moderate alcohol consumption,
357 especially from wine [27,42]. Note that among the sample studied, the average alcohol intake
358 was 2.7 ± 7.1 g/day and most of the participants were classified as low alcohol consumers.
359 Furthermore, Scholz et al [27] observed that among Spanish college students, those who
360 exclusively consumed beer and/or wine had a higher adherence to the Mediterranean diet
361 compared to non-drinkers. Nevertheless, care must be taken when interpreting these findings,

362 as the balance between potential harms and benefits of moderate alcohol consumption is a
363 complex matter and no consistent recommendations exist yet [27]. In addition, young adults
364 are more likely to get drunk, among other things, it is because alcohol intake helps them to
365 increase their body confidence [12].

366

367 The limitations found in our study are related to the cross-sectional design, that does not
368 allow to define causal relationships. Furthermore, we acknowledge that our sample was
369 composed mostly of women, which is not representative of the entire population. Another
370 limitation is that food intake was assessed using 3-day food record, which are prone to
371 underreport food intake [43].

372

373 **5. Conclusions**

374

375 In conclusion, college students who showed a greater dietary restraint were those who had
376 the highest BMI, despite having the lowest energy and fat intakes. In addition, we showed
377 that young adults with greater concern for healthy eating and a greater practice of physical
378 exercise showed greater adherence to the Mediterranean diet. This information could be
379 useful in promoting healthy behaviors among college students. Starting with promoting the
380 Mediterranean lifestyle, which includes a high adherence to the Mediterranean diet and the
381 daily practice of physical activity. Moreover, we showed that the results obtained with the
382 Habits Related to Overweight and Obesity Questionnaire showed convergence with those of
383 the Mediterranean assessment tool and IPAQ questionnaire, since the dimensions of healthy
384 eating and physical activity were significantly associated with the Mediterranean diet
385 assessment tool and IPAQ questionnaire.

386

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388

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391

392 **Conflict of Interests**

393 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

394

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