

Variables independently associated with self-reported obesity in the European Union

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Abstract

Objective: The rapid increase in obesity rates over recent years suggest that cultural and societal influences are affecting the adjustment in the energy balance equation in addition to other physiopathological or genetic determinants. Therefore, a pan-EU study was carried out to explore the influence of sociodemographic factors as well as some attitudes (smoking and exercise) on the prevalence of obesity in the adult population of all 15 member states of the EU.

Design: Overall, a sample of 15 239 individuals aged 15 years and upwards in the EU completed the questionnaire. Subject selection was quota-controlled to make the sample nationally representative following a multistage stratified cluster sampling. Self-reported height and weight were used to calculate body mass index (BMI).

Results: From the EU average results, it can be seen that only about half of the EU population (48%) is within the normal weight range, while the obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg m⁻²) prevalence was about 10% in the EU and the overweight prevalence was 36.6% and 25.6% among men and women, respectively. UK subjects had the highest prevalence of obesity (12%), while Italians, French and Swedes had the lowest levels of obesity (about 7%). Concerning age and social class interactions, logistic regression analysis showed that high social class and younger individuals in all groups had a lower odds ratio for obesity prevalence. People with a higher level of education are less likely to be obese, while the interaction between educational levels and obesity was different for men and women. A low participation in various leisure-time physical activities, the lack of interest (precontemplation) in being involved in exercise/physical activity and the increasing number of hours sitting down at work appear to be predictors of obesity. Single individuals were less prone to become obese than couples or widowed/divorced people. Finally, smoking status was statistically linked to the prevalence of obesity, since non-smokers or ex-smokers for more than 1 year presented a higher tendency for a BMI >30 .

Conclusions: This survey confirms that a priority area for health intervention aimed at preventing the development of obesity should be to increase levels of physical activity, although the approach will depend on the population, especially with respect to educational and socioeconomic aspects.

Keywords
Obesity
Self-reported BMI
Physical activity
European Union

Lifestyle is increasingly being implicated in the maintenance of health and the prevalence of several chronic non-communicable diseases, including cardiovascular illnesses, diabetes and cancer^{1–3}. In this context, obesity appears as a multifactorial condition resulting from an imbalance between energy intake and expenditure, which has been associated with reduced physical activity, as well as with the overconsumption of fat-rich and high-energy-yielding foods⁴. The rapid increase in obesity rates over recent years suggests that cultural and societal influences are affecting the adjustment in the energy balance equation in addition to other physiopathological or genetic determinants^{5,6}.

The process of modernization, urbanization and changes in world trade in both developing and developed countries has brought about a number of consequences affecting nutritional and physical activity patterns that contribute to the development of obesity⁷. Thus, the food system has improved the nutritional quality of diets and the availability of nutrients, while the sedentary lifestyle with motorized transport and many labour-saving devices as well as other physically inactive pursuits (TV viewing, computer work, etc.) have risen over the last few decades^{8,9}. Therefore, dietary and physical activity patterns are considered to be two major modifiable

factors explaining excessive weight for height, which may be important in the development of different prevention strategies at different levels: universal (directed to everybody), selective (high risk groups) or targeted (directed to those with weight problems)^{10,11}.

Thus, an effective management of the obesity 'epidemic' needs to establish social, cultural, economic, educational and other environmental factors involved in the weight status of the community or populations in order to develop programmes and action protocols as well as other interventions to prevent excessive weight gain and other related diseases^{12,13}. Additionally, interventions on epidemiological predictors of obesity may produce significant benefits concerning behavioural and psychological correlates of quality of life such as self-esteem and interpersonal relations^{14,15}.

In this context, attitudinal surveys need to be performed to inform national and international policy makers, public health specialists and scientists in the fields of food and nutrition in order to develop specifically targeted campaigns and comprehensive health strategies for the prevention and management of obesity^{7,16}. Therefore, a pan-EU study was carried out to explore the influence of sociodemographic factors as well as some attitudes (towards smoking and exercise) on the prevalence of obesity in the adult population of all 15 member states of the EU.

Methods

A questionnaire on attitudes to physical activity/exercise, body weight and health was developed by the Institute of European Food Studies (IEFS), which was supervised by a project management group composed of experts in the field of physical activity/exercise and obesity, market researchers from industry, and representatives from each of the 15 member states in the EU¹⁷.

One of the objectives of the survey was to determine the proportion and sociodemographic characteristics of the obese population (self-reported) and the attitudes about exercise of people suffering from obesity in the EU. All subjects were asked about their weight and height, as well as about their participation in various physical activities/sport in their leisure time, their attitudes towards exercise/physical activity and the hours they spent sitting down at work, as well as a question on smoking status. The final questionnaire, which included 12 close-ended questions, was translated from the English version into all relevant languages and was verified by the Project Management Group by performing a pilot survey on 20 subjects in each member state to ensure that the original meaning had been maintained.

Subjects were selected and interviewed by field-workers belonging to a market research organization

'Eurobus' (Taylor-Nelson), which is an international group of research organizations offering market research in each member state for conducting cross-country surveys. An omnibus approach was used, in which subjects answered questions on different topics from various clients in a single session. Each subject was personally contacted at his/her home by a professional interviewer specifically trained for this study. The interviews were completed between March and April 1997 with an average duration of 15 minutes. All research organizations in the present survey conformed to the standards of marketing research set out by ICC/ESOMAR¹⁸.

The survey collected information about gender, age, income of the head of the household, highest level of education and marital status. Single, married/cohabiting and divorced/widowed were the categories for marital status, while age was distributed into four levels: 15–24, 25–44, 45–64 and +65 years old. Education level was classified into three categories: primary, secondary and tertiary level reached; while social class was standardized as high, medium and low (ABC1, C2 and DE). In some EU member states social class was defined by level of income while in others it was defined by occupation.

Subjects were asked to report their own height and weight which were used to calculate the BMI (kg m^{-2}) in order to estimate the extent of underweight, normal weight, overweight and obese populations throughout the EU. In this report, BMI was classified as follows⁵: underweight ≤ 19.99 , normal weight 20–24.99, overweight 25–29.99 and obese ≥ 30 . Apart from having a picture of the proportions of overweight and obese people in the different member states and among different sociodemographic groups, the attitudes to physical activity (precontemplation status or involvement in sports) as well as inactivity levels among the different body weight groups through self-reported sitting down hours at work (more than 6 hours, which represents the 75th or over percentile) were assessed^{19,20}. Precontemplation was defined as an attitude stage in which no changes are being considered concerning physical activity¹⁹.

The national samples were weighted according to the proportional size of the population of each country. Furthermore, subject selection was quota-controlled to make the sample nationally representative by various sociodemographic factors based on the most recent official statistics (census data) in each member state. With these criteria and, once individuals who did not want to participate were excluded, approximately 1000 adults aged 15 years and upwards, from each member state were selected to complete the interview-assisted face-to-face questionnaire (in Luxembourg 500 subjects were selected, in Germany 1250 were selected, in the UK 1250 were selected of which 250 were from

Northern Ireland). Overall, 15 239 subjects completed the questionnaire.

A multivariable logistic regression model was fitted to assess factors related to obesity²¹. The variables independently associated with obesity (BMI > 30 kg m⁻²) versus normal or underweight individuals (BMI < 25 kg m⁻²) which were analysed included age, social class, sex, education, marital or smoking status and physical activity. Given that the dependent variable was dichotomous, we used a logistic regression model to produce adjusted odds ratios (OR) as a measure of association to estimate relative risks. The adjusted OR with their respective 95% confidence intervals were calculated. Young, male, high social class, single and non-smokers were chosen as the categories of reference for the independent variables.

Results

From the EU average results, it can be noted that almost half of the EU population is within the normal weight range (men 48.6%, women 47.9%), while the remaining were underweight (men 6.0%, women 16.3%), overweight (men 36.6%, women 25.6%) or obese (men 9.0%, women 10.1%). The geographical distribution (Fig. 1) showed that the UK has the highest prevalence of obesity (12%), while the Italians, French and Swedes

have the lowest levels of obesity (about 7%). Spain, Germany and Greece were the countries with a higher combined prevalence of obese and overweight people when men and women were considered together. Austria, Spain, the UK and Belgium exhibited the highest prevalence of obesity among men, whereas Greece and the UK showed the greatest prevalence among women.

The percentage of overweight and obese individuals among EU males and females varies with age, socio-economic factors and education levels as well as depending on marital and smoking status (Tables 1 and 2). Among males, the highest prevalence of overweight was found in those aged 45–54 years with primary education and in those aged 65+ years with tertiary education. For all education levels, obesity was more prevalent among the older age group, particularly amongst those with a low level of education. A strong association between levels of obesity and education was apparent, with 55–65-year-old primary-educated females having four times the level of obesity of females with tertiary education in the same age group.

Odds ratios for prevalence of obesity rose steeply with increasing age, especially for the lower social class, up to 45–64 years and declined for those over 65 years for all social classes (Fig. 2). The highest OR was observed for 45–64-year-olds of low social class; OR

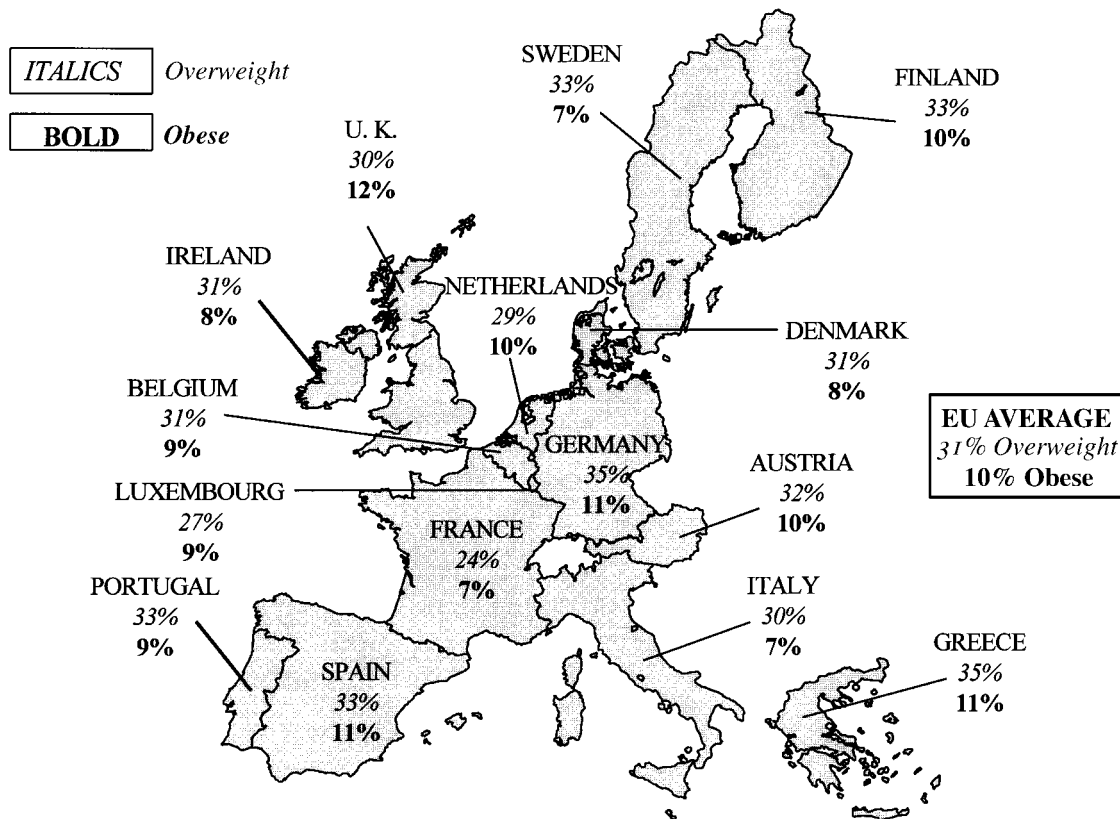


Fig. 1 Geographical distribution of the prevalence of overweight and obese people in the 15 member states of the EU

Table 1 Distribution of BMI (kg m^{-2}) and prevalence (%) of overweight and obese people* in the EU ($n = 15\,239$) classified by selected sociodemographic, behavioural and attitudinal factors

| | Mean BMI | | Overweight (%) | | Obesity (%) | |
|----------------------------------|----------|-------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| | Men | Women | Men | Women | Men | Women |
| Age (years) | | | | | | |
| 15–24 | 22.6 | 21.6 | 15.0 | 10.7 | 2.5 | 2.3 |
| 25–34 | 24.5 | 23.2 | 30.4 | 18.8 | 6.3 | 6.6 |
| 35–44 | 25.4 | 24.1 | 43.0 | 23.6 | 8.6 | 9.0 |
| 45–54 | 26.1 | 25.2 | 41.5 | 31.8 | 14.1 | 12.9 |
| 55–64 | 26.2 | 26.1 | 47.7 | 39.8 | 13.4 | 17.3 |
| 65+ | 25.9 | 25.5 | 48.0 | 38.3 | 10.9 | 13.7 |
| Socioeconomic level | | | | | | |
| Lower | 25.0 | 23.2 | 33.4 | 31.3 | 11.1 | 13.8 |
| Middle-lower | 25.1 | 23.6 | 38.4 | 28.5 | 8.9 | 12.6 |
| Middle | 25.0 | 24.7 | 38.2 | 22.2 | 8.0 | 8.0 |
| Middle-upper | 24.6 | 25.0 | 32.2 | 19.9 | 7.8 | 5.6 |
| Education level | | | | | | |
| Primary | 25.5 | 25.5 | 43.8 | 37.0 | 12.1 | 15.9 |
| Secondary | 24.9 | 23.8 | 34.6 | 22.1 | 8.4 | 8.5 |
| Tertiary | 24.5 | 22.8 | 31.5 | 15.4 | 5.9 | 4.4 |
| Marital status | | | | | | |
| Single | 23.8 | 22.8 | 25.9 | 17.5 | 6.6 | 5.8 |
| Married | 25.7 | 24.6 | 43.6 | 29.0 | 10.2 | 11.4 |
| Widowed/divorced/separated | 25.3 | 25.1 | 37.0 | 29.9 | 11.4 | 14.1 |
| Smoking status | | | | | | |
| Current | 24.6 | 23.5 | 32.7 | 20.7 | 7.5 | 6.9 |
| Never | 24.9 | 24.5 | 36.7 | 28.1 | 8.6 | 11.8 |
| Ex (< 1 year) | 25.7 | 23.2 | 43.1 | 17.8 | 7.9 | 5.7 |
| Ex (> 1 year) | 26.3 | 24.7 | 47.3 | 27.6 | 14.9 | 11.9 |
| Attitude towards activity | | | | | | |
| Precontemplation | 25.6 | 24.8 | 40.7 | 31.1 | 12.5 | 13.0 |
| Total | 25.0 | 24.1 | 36.6 | 25.6 | 9.0 | 10.1 |

* Overweight, $25\text{--}29.9 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$; obesity, $\geq 30 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$.

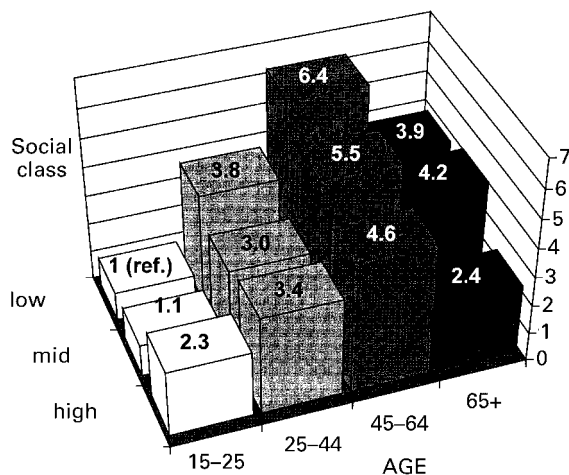


Fig. 2 Joint classification of the sample according to age (15–24, 25–44, 45–64 and ≥ 65 years) in the frontal axis and social class (low, lower or middle-lower; mid, middle; high, middle-upper) in the lateral axis. For each combination of age and social class the adjusted prevalence odds ratio for obesity ($\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$) is presented with reference to the category of younger ages and lower social class

for prevalence of obesity increased with decreasing educational level, especially in females (Fig. 3).

The information about marital status reveals that single individuals were less prone to be obese than couples or widowed/divorced people (Table 2). Smoking status was statistically linked to the prevalence of

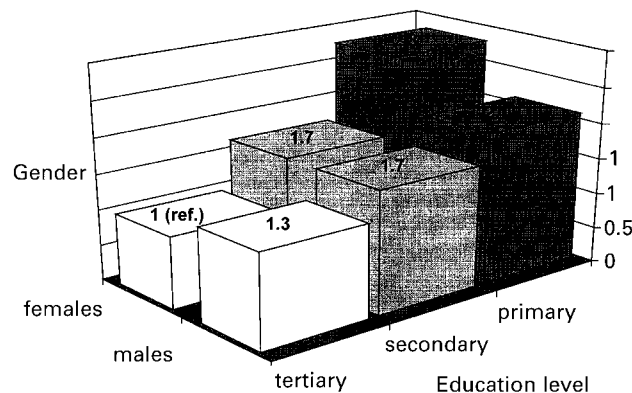


Fig. 3 Joint classification of the sample according to educational level (tertiary, secondary or primary level) in the frontal axis and gender in the lateral axis. For each group of education and gender the adjusted prevalence odds ratio for obesity ($\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$) is presented with reference to the category of women with tertiary educational level

Table 2 Odds ratios (OR) with their respective 95% confidence intervals (95%CI) for the prevalence of obesity* in the EU (men and women analysed together) using logistic regression analyses

| | Crude | | Adjusted by age and gender† | | Multivariate adjusted‡ | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|
| | OR | 95%CI | OR | 95%CI | OR | 95%CI |
| Sex (women vs. men) | 1.12 | 1.00–1.25 | 1.10 | 0.98–1.23 | 1.08 | 0.96–1.22 |
| Age (years) | | | | | | |
| 15–24 (<i>reference</i>) | 1 | | | | | |
| 25–34 | 2.76 | 2.07–3.68 | 2.75 | 2.06–3.67 | 2.57 | 1.88–3.52 |
| 35–44 | 3.89 | 2.94–5.15 | 3.87 | 2.92–5.13 | 3.36 | 2.46–4.60 |
| 45–54 | 6.23 | 4.73–8.20 | 6.20 | 4.71–8.16 | 4.95 | 3.63–6.76 |
| 55–64 | 7.31 | 5.55–9.64 | 7.31 | 5.54–9.63 | 4.91 | 3.58–6.73 |
| 65+ | 5.68 | 4.27–7.56 | 5.67 | 4.27–7.54 | 3.06 | 2.20–4.26 |
| Socioeconomic level | | | | | | |
| Middle-upper (<i>reference</i>) | 1 | | | | | |
| Middle | 1.05 | 0.87–1.21 | 1.04 | 0.86–1.27 | 1.03 | 0.84–1.27 |
| Middle-lower | 1.41 | 1.18–1.69 | 1.38 | 1.15–1.66 | 1.16 | 0.95–1.43 |
| Lower | 1.65 | 1.37–1.99 | 1.56 | 1.28–1.89 | 1.24 | 0.99–1.55 |
| Education level | | | | | | |
| Tertiary (<i>reference</i>) | 1 | | | | | |
| Secondary | 1.56 | 1.29–1.88 | 1.54 | 1.28–1.86 | 1.48 | 1.20–1.81 |
| Primary | 2.66 | 2.21–3.22 | 2.12 | 1.75–2.58 | 2.17 | 1.73–2.74 |
| Marital status | | | | | | |
| Single (<i>reference</i>) | 1 | | | | | |
| Married | 1.95 | 1.70–2.24 | 1.13 | 0.97–1.31 | 1.23 | 1.03–1.46 |
| Widowed/divorced/separated | 2.23 | 1.49–3.32 | 1.07 | 0.87–1.32 | 1.05 | 0.83–1.31 |
| Smoking status | | | | | | |
| Never (<i>reference</i>) | 1 | | | | | |
| Current | 0.71 | 0.63–0.81 | 0.76 | 0.67–0.87 | 0.67 | 0.58–0.78 |
| Ex (< 1 year) | 0.73 | 0.48–1.10 | 0.82 | 0.54–1.24 | 0.84 | 0.55–1.29 |
| Ex (> 1 year) | 1.41 | 1.20–1.66 | 1.19 | 1.01–1.40 | 1.23 | 1.03–1.46 |

* BMI ≥ 30 kg m⁻².

† The OR for the comparison between women and men was adjusted by age, and the OR for the strata of age was adjusted by sex.

‡ In addition to all the variables which are shown in the table, the logistic regression model was also adjusted by time spent sitting down per week (as a continuous variable), participation in leisure-time physical activity (yes/no) and country (15 levels corresponding to the 15 member states).

obesity, since smokers or ex-smokers for more than 1 year presented a higher tendency to have a BMI ≥ 30 (Table 2). A low participation in sport activities, a lack of interest in being involved in exercise/physical activity (precontemplation) and an increasing number of hours sitting down at work appeared to be statistically significant predictors of obesity (Fig. 4).

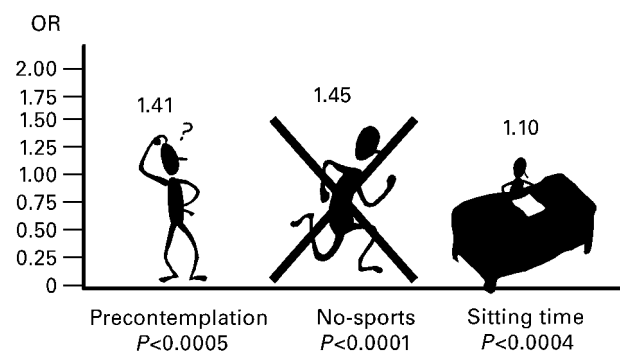


Fig. 4 Odds ratios (OR) of precontemplation, no physical activity and sitting time (hours per week) for obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg m⁻²) versus normal or underweight individuals (BMI < 25 kg m⁻²) in Europe

Discussion

This pan-EU survey reflected that more than half of the EU subjects are at inappropriate weights for their heights. These percentages giving BMI based on self-reported heights and weights have been corroborated by BMI derived from measured heights and weights in two member states (Italy and Sweden)¹⁷. It is interesting to note that BMI categories are basically homogeneous across countries, in spite of all the differences in lifestyles and dietary habits, which suggests that obesity is a result of several determinants and that any strategy to reduce obesity will have similar basic targets, although in each country the guidelines may differ depending on attitudes and beliefs¹².

Wide variation between the attitudes of health professionals, consumer organizations, the food industry and the media²² have been reported. Their messages are often controversial and contradictory and need to be reinforced with reliable and global epidemiological surveys taking into consideration societal issues such as education, socioeconomic status and environmental aspects, which may help to identify particular groups or populations more

vulnerable to the obesity 'epidemic'. A successful health campaign relies on adequate duration and persistency, a staged approach, some legislative and education actions as well as a concerted action by consumers, community, industry and governments⁷.

Some comprehensive data on the prevalence of obesity in Europe comes from the WHO–Monica study²³, which reveal that the age-standardized average prevalence of obesity was lower in men than in women. Furthermore, trends in obesity in Europe indicate an increasing rate of this disorder to values/proportions between 10% and 40% in the last decade^{24,25}. However, subgroup analysis by sex, age and education yielded some differences between countries, although in general a stronger increase in obesity prevalence was found in those with a low educational level as compared with those with a high education level in such a way that an inverse association was obtained from both women and men between BMI and educational level²⁶. Furthermore, obesity in adolescents and young adults (16–24 years) has been found to correlate with objective indicators such as income, education and poverty rate²⁷. Gender differences in adiposity and obesity prevalence may be a consequence of evolution²⁸.

Culture concerns the patterns of behaviour and belief characteristics of a society, which affects both diet and exercise attitudes, as well as the social epidemiological incidence and interpretation of obesity²⁹. Obesity is more common in certain socio-economic systems rather than in societies located in particular geographic zones, indicating that culture plays a central role in obesity³⁰. Interestingly, there is a higher prevalence of obesity among southern populations than northern groups within the same country and a higher risk of obesity in rural than urban dwellers, which may reflect different regional levels of socioeconomic development⁷. The information available concerning different ethnic groups reveals that cultural forces may be involved in addition to the genetic background³¹, since when adjusted for health status variables, socioeconomic status and country of birth (ethnicity) are two reported independent factors influencing BMI in both sexes³².

Education, gender and socioeconomic status are closely intertwined²⁸. Thus, a number of studies have found that societies in the process of modernization have rapid increases in the prevalence of obesity⁷. The association of obesity and social class have received substantial attention. One study shows that in heterogeneous and affluent societies there is a strong inverse correlation of social class and obesity³³. Socioeconomic status has been suggested as a risk factor, which may be affected by nutritional knowledge, access to resources, the media, etc. as well as by psychological stress³⁴. The appropriateness of using social class in the EU

sample maybe questioned as socioeconomic status is defined by different criteria in several countries of the EU and education has been used as a surrogate for socioeconomic status¹⁷.

In the UK, a tendency to increasing mean BMI between 1987 and 1991 has been observed in all social classes⁹; the relationship between BMI and social class varied with gender. Thus, BMI tends to be higher in women in manual classes, while in men there is no clear relationship. Furthermore, an association between BMI and educational levels has been obtained with people in low levels of educational qualification having higher average values of BMI^{5,26}, as occurs in the current survey of a representative sample of EU adults.

Marital status has also been shown to be associated with obesity^{35,36}. Moreover, US women at greatest risk of weight gain are those with an education below college level, newly weds and those with a very low family income³⁷, while marital status did not have significant effects on obesity among younger women³⁸. On the other hand, the amount of weight gain associated with parity was greater in married than unmarried women, and less in those who were active outside of recreation versus those who were less active³⁹. All these observations are in good agreement with the results obtained in this EU study.

Smoking behaviour, too, has been associated with body weight gain⁴⁰. Cigarette smoking tends to keep people slimmer than they would otherwise be by suppressing appetite and stimulating the body's metabolic rate⁴¹. Thus, epidemiological studies concerning obesity which do not take account of smoking behaviour may not reflect the risk associated with being overweight, because overweight non-smokers survive longer than thin smokers⁹. Our findings confirm that smoking cigarettes is associated with a lower BMI.

A community-based national epidemiological household survey conducted between 1990 and 1993 estimated the prevalence of obesity in Saudi Arabia⁴², and examined its association with the sociodemographic characteristics of the adult population. The multiple logistic regression analysis showed that age, residential area, region, income, gender and education were statistically significant predictors of obesity. The prevalence of obesity was higher in females than males, lower in subjects living in rural areas with traditional lifestyles than those in more urbanized environments, and increased with increasing age. The observed prevalence and pattern of obesity with age and gender in this study was similar to those observed in other western nations^{5,26}.

Within areas of similar economic development, regional consumption of fat and prevalence of obesity have not been positively correlated. Thus, within the USA a substantial decline in fat and calorie intake and

frequent use of low-calorie food products have been associated with a paradoxical massive increase in obesity rates⁴³. These diverging trends may suggest that there has been a dramatic decrease in total physical-activity-related energy expenditure⁴⁴. In fact, the growing increase in the number of obese people in Europe appears to be associated with the accompanying increase in sedentarism²⁵.

Furthermore, an analysis of time-budget surveys reveals that the time required for earning a living and domestic work has declined appreciably over recent decades⁴⁵. This negative trend is associated with a substantial decline in the energy spent on these activities. The review of a large dataset on energy expenditure under free-living conditions indicates that, despite their phenomenally diverse rates of obesity, there is no systematic difference between developed and developing societies. Multivariate regression analysis of BMI on physical activity level reveals a weak, but statistically significant, inverse relationship in men but not in women.

Physical activity assessment has been often carried out through questionnaires and interviews as well as through activity monitors; however, obtaining valid and appropriate measurements of physical activity remains a challenging task¹⁴. Epidemiological studies have typically used subjective measures to assess physical activity in populations—obtaining information about the period of time dedicated to sports or to watching TV or whether the subject has considered the possibility of doing some physical activity (pre-contemplation)—because of non-reactiveness, practicality, applicability and accuracy of these tests^{20,46,47}.

Using such methodological approaches, a prospective 10-year follow-up study in three municipalities in Finland showed that men and women with no regular weekly activity had an OR of 2.59 and 2.67, respectively, for clinically significant body mass gain in comparison with the most active, after an adjustment for the potential confounders⁴⁸. Other results support this hypothesis, since lack of physical activity and low physical fitness appear as important contributing factors in the development and/or maintenance of obesity in African–American girls⁴⁹. On the other hand, obese subjects reported physical impairment and reduced mobility more often⁵⁰, while only 10% of subjects in an obese group and 24.4% of subjects in a non-obese group selected a moderate or higher level as indicative of the intensity of their daily physical activity⁵¹. Genetic factors may modify the effects of physical activity on weight change and it has been suggested that a sedentary lifestyle may have an obesity-promoting effect in men with a genetic predisposition⁵². Although physical activity levels are highly variable across different countries, beliefs in their health benefits are associated with the desire for

losing weight⁵³ and also with the idea of staying healthy, to be fit or to relieve stress. In general, the information obtained from this pan-EU survey is in accordance with the existing evidence⁵⁴ that preventing diseases and quality of life are considered as the main benefits of a healthy lifestyle concerning dietary and physical activity habits.

Dietary and exercise interventions targeted to reduce obesity may have long-term effects on behavioural and public health models⁵⁵. Existing data suggest that discouraging physical inactivity and decreasing the time in sedentary behaviours should be considered as potential strategies in obesity prevention programmes^{13,46}. However, the contents of health promotion activities could vary according to the differences related to age, gender and other socioeconomic and cultural variables of the targeted populations^{51,56}. In any case, prescribing exercise for health by physicians and other health professionals may be beneficial in primary care^{57,58}, while scientists and public health officials need to turn attention to public policy and legislative initiatives to restructure social environments to encourage more physical activity and discourage sedentary and other unhealthy habits^{2,7,59–61}.

This survey confirms that one priority area for health intervention aimed at preventing the development of obesity should be increasing levels of physical activity, although the approach will depend on the characteristics of the population, especially with respect to educational aspects, while prevention of obesity in the not yet overweight or obese individuals appears a very important goal in stemming the rise in obesity rates.

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