

Relationship between dietary sulfur amino acids intake and severity and frequency of pain in patients with musculoskeletal pains

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Abstract

Background: Musculoskeletal pains (MPs) is a widespread public problem that can affect 13.5% to 47% of total population. Dietary changes have strong effects (positive and negative) on a person's health. Sulfur amino acids (SAAs) as a part of protein structure, can be one of the precursors of neurotransmitters, antioxidative metabolic intermediates such as glutathione, effect on inflammation and finally play a role in severity and frequency of MPs. This article will discuss the relationship between dietary sulfur amino acids intake with severity and frequency of pain in patients with MPs. Methods: This study was a matched case-control study designed. The target population were 175 men and woman. Anthropometric measurements and pain assessment were collected with questionnaires. Dietary data were collected using 7 days 24-hour recall. ANOVA and Spearman correlation was also performed to examine the relationship between independent and outcome variables. For data analysis, P-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Results: There was a significant relationship between age, weight, waist circumference (WC), waist circumference to height (WHtR), body mass index (BMI) and severity and frequency of MPs among women. Similarly, in men, there was just a relationship between age and severity of pain. Conclusions: The present study didn't show a positive and relative association between the dietary sulfur amino acids and severity and frequency of pain. What's known? Actually we know SAAs can effect on MPs and inflammation via glutathione synthesis, hyperhomocysteinemia or bone and joint structure. What's new? The relationship between dietary SAAs pattern on inflammation and pain was not statistically significant in this study. More than 98% of participants consume higher amount of RDA of methionine and cysteine.

Relationship between dietary sulfur amino acids intake and severity and frequency of pain in patients with musculoskeletal pains

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Disclosures relevant to this paper

The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

We declare that none of the authors listed on the manuscript are employed by a government agency that has a primary function other than research and/or education. Also we declare that none of the authors are submitting this manuscript as an official representative or on behalf of the government.

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Results: There was a significant relationship between age, weight, waist circumference (WC), waist circumference to height (WHtR), body mass index (BMI) and severity and frequency of MPs among women. Similarly, in men, there was just a relationship between age and severity of pain.

Conclusions: The present study didn't show a positive and relative association between the dietary sulfur amino acids and severity and frequency of pain.

Keywords : musculoskeletal pain, sulfur amino acids, diet, pain

What's known? (What is already known about this topic?)

Although causes of chronic MPs are unknown, but it can be caused by daily life style and diet. In addition many sulfur components are used to have healthier bones and muscles and many sulfur containing supplements are sold to reduce pain in all over the world. Actually we know SAAs can effect on MPs and inflammation via glutathione synthesis, hyperhomocysteinemia or bone and joint structure.

What's new? (What does this article add?)

Actually the relationship between dietary SAAs intake and severity and frequency of pain is unknown. Consumption too excessive SAAs or lack of intake may can effect on MPs. The relationship between dietary SAAs pattern on inflammation and pain was not statistically significant in this study. More than 98% of participants consume higher amount of RDA of methionine and cysteine. It means no deficiency of SAAs is found.

Introduction

Musculoskeletal pain (MPs) is a widespread public problem and there is a need to control effectively and manage severity and frequency of pain in patients. MPs are multifaceted and affect 13.5% to 47% of total population(1,2). In the U.S. MPs alone can impose great financial pressure(3). Aging is a strong risk factor for many chronic diseases and pain is the common point between them (4). However, the impact of population aging on the prevalence of pain is not known. MPs especially in lower back, neck, shoulders and knees are major cause of disability throughout life(5-7). Evidences show that most treatments (pharmacological and non- pharmacological intervention) do just a little short-term cure not long-term efficacy for MPs (7,8) . Recently, lifestyle changes, poor sleeping, smoking, stress, unhealthy diet and obesity have paid our attention

to further managing chronic pain(6). Dietary changes have strong effects (positive and negative) on a person's health(9). Among macronutrients, the role of dietary protein can be examined from several aspect like producing the protective layers of bones and joints (10,11) and improving joint/skeletal health(12). Sulfur amino acids (SAAs), as a part of protein structure, (13) can be one of the precursors of neurotransmitters, antioxidative metabolic intermediates such as glutathione and play a role in inflammation, severity and frequency of MPs finally (10). Among SAAs methionine and cysteine are sold as variety of sulfur-containing supplements (Glucosamine sulphate, chondroitin sulfate and methylsulfonylmethane (MSM)) in the markets to reduce chronic inflammatory pain today (14,15) . Methionine which is an indispensable amino acid, is resistant to oxidation by reactive oxygen species (ROS) (16) and it is needed for proper growth (17).

It seems that the amount of SAAs received from daily diet is inappropriate with individual needs. So many number of researches report that SAAs consumption have an alleviating action on a large number of chronic diseases and degenerative changes which is associated with normal aging by inhibiting oxidative stress(18). One of the main role of SAAs that is proved in articles is providing sulfates for synthesizing essential metabolic mediators like GAG (glycosaminoglycans), CoA (coenzyme A), SAM (S-Adenosyl-L-Methionine), GSH (glutathione) and etc. in the body. Furthermore Sulfating is necessary for detoxification of many drugs such as acetaminophen which is used widely for relieving of pain by the liver (13). Unfortunately no studies have been performed to address this very important question.

Aim

This article will discuss the relationship between dietary sulfur amino acids intake with severity and frequency of pain in in patients with MPs.

Methods

Study population

This study was a matched case-control study designed and done from February to October 2020. The target population were volunteers referring to physiotherapy and orthopedic clinics in districts 2 and 3 of Tehran, Iran with multistage cluster random sampling. Participants who were enrolled in the study were 175 men and woman above 18 years. Age, sex, education status, occupation, smoking status, menopausal status and delivery number type among women were assessed through a demographic questionnaire.

Having bone fracture in last 3 months, scoliosis, pregnancy and lactation and psychosomatic disorders were the exclusion criteria. Participants were placed into two groups: 85 participants with current musculoskeletal pain as cases and 90 participants with no existence of pain as controls. In order to prevent the effect of confounding factors as much as possible, groups were divided to 18-35, 36-54 and over 55 years through individual matching method.

This study was approved by Ethical Iran National Committee for Ethics in Biomedical Research under code IR.IAU.SRB.REC.1399.084. All the eligible volunteers were informed about the details of the study and in order to sign a written consent their rights were informed to them.

Anthropometric measuring

Height and weight were measured using Seca 216 to the nearest 0.1 cm and Seca scale to the nearest 0.1 kg, respectively, while participants stand near the wall with light clothes and no shoes. Waist circumference (WC) was measured in the smallest girth by the expert. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by the square of height in meter.

Pain assessment

By filling out the McGill Pain Questionnaire through 20 questions, the severity of pain information were received. Scores range were from 0 (no pain) to 78 (severe pain) (19). Qualitative differences in pain might

be expressed by respondent's questions choice. The frequency of pain was questioned by number of days feeling pain per week. All measurements were done by an expert nurse.

Dietary assessment

Dietary data were collected using 7days 24-hour dietary recall through face-to-face interview. They were asked to recall all foods and beverages consumed during the 7 days ago. Portion-sizes of consumed foods were converted to gram. Then each food and beverage was analyzed for their energy and nutrients especially sulfur-containing amino acid (methionine, cysteine) content using Nutritionist IV (version 7.0; N-Squared Computing, Salem, OR). Software program modified for Iranian foods. The software database drawn from United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) food composition tables. Total energy intake between 800-4000 kcal was accepted.

Statistical analysis

Data analysis was performed using the SPSS version 26 (IBM SPSS Inc.). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate the normality of the data. Mean SD (standard deviation) and median (mid-quarter range) were used to describe quantitative variables and frequency report (percentage) for qualitative variables between case and control groups. Independent t-test was used to compare the mean of quantitative outcomes between the two groups. Chi-square test was used to compare qualitative factors between the two groups. ANCOVA test was used to adjust confounders such as age, body mass index (BMI) and energy intake. The comparison of the mean of quantitative variables between the tertiles of SAAs intakes was evaluated by ANOVA with GLM tests.

Spearman correlation was also performed to examine the relationship between independent and outcome factors. For data analysis, the P-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Study population and general characteristics

General characteristics among participants were shown in Table 1. The range of age in this study population was above 18 years and 39% of members were above 35 years. Only 28.6% of participants were male. The mean±standard deviation (SD) of BMI and daily energy intake were 24.84±4.32 kg/m² and 2230±651.71 kcal/day respectively. No severe pain was detected in adults.

Table1 characteristics of study participants among of total SAAs intake tertiles

| Variables | Variables | Variables | SAAs intake Q1 (n=58) | SAAs intake Q2 (n=59) | SAAs intake Q3 (n=58) | SAAs intake P* value |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Total SAAs (mg/day) | Total SAAs (mg/day) | Total SAAs (mg/day) | Total SAAs (mg/day) | Total SAAs (mg/day) | Total SAAs (mg/day) | < 0.001 |
| | | Median | 1981.29 ^a | 2968.39 ^b | 4646.96 ^c | |
| Gender n(%) | Gender n(%) | Gender n(%) | Gender n(%) | Gender n(%) | Gender n(%) | < 0.001 |
| | | Men | 5(8.5) ^a | 17(29.3) ^b | 28(48.3) ^c | |
| | | Woman | 54(91.5) ^a | 41(70.7) ^b | 30(51.7) ^c | |
| Smoking n(%) | Smoking n(%) | Smoking n(%) | Smoking n(%) | Smoking n(%) | Smoking n(%) | 0.65 |
| | | Yes | 5(8.5) | 12(20.7) | 12(15.5) | |
| | | No | 54(91.5) | 40(69.0) | 47(81.0) | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| Education n(%) | Education n(%) | Before Education n(%) Diploma or less Bachelor degree Master degree Phd or higher | 0 Education n(%) 9(15.3) | 6(10.3) Education n(%) 6(10.3) | 2(3.4) Education n(%) 9(15.5) | 0.26 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | BMI (kg/m²) | BMI (kg/m²) | 24.51±4.03 | 25.56±4.65 | 24.46±4.27 | 0.95 |
| Weight (kg) | Weight (kg) | Weight (kg) | 64.50±11.47 ^a | 72.71±17.21 | 70.93±15.38 | 0.02 |
| Height (cm) | Height (cm) | Height (cm) | 162.18±5.63 ^a | 168.00±9.44 | 169.86±9.10 | < 0.001 |
| Waist circumfer- ence (cm) | Waist circumfer- ence (cm) | Waist circumfer- ence (cm) | 83.93±15.76 | 88.79±20.12 | 87.22±19.96 | 0.34 |
| WHtR | WHtR | WHtR | | | | 0.84 |
| | | Normal | 59.3 | 62.1 | 56.9 | |
| | | At risk | 40.7 | 37.9 | 43.1 | |
| Total pain result | Total pain result | Total pain result | 13.51±16.97 | 14.64±15.59 | 12.98±14.38 | 0.85 |
| Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories | Pain sub- categories |
| | | Pain sensory | 7.88±9.94 | 8.17±9.22 | 7.90±8.79 | 0.99 |
| | | Pain affective | 1.71±2.46 | 2.31±2.79 | 1.62±2.29 | 0.85 |
| | | Pain miscellaneous | 2.88±3.96 | 2.88±3.34 | 2.26±3.03 | 0.33 |
| | | Pain evaluative | 1.03±1.47 | 1.28±1.65 | 1.21±1.55 | 0.54 |
| | | Pain frequency | 1.90±2.38 | 1.79±1.98 | 1.53±1.74 | 0.34 |
| Occupation n(%) | Occupation n(%) | Occupation n(%) | Occupation n(%) | Occupation n(%) | Occupation n(%) | 0.51 |
| | | Manager | 5(8.5) | 7(12.1) | 11(19.0) | |
| | | Employee | 17(28.8) | 12(20.7) | 10(17.2) | |
| | | Worker | 1(1.7) | 0 | 1(1.7) | |
| | | Housewife | 9(15.3) | 7(12.1) | 0.0 | |
| | | Pensionary | 5(8.5) | 4(6.9) | 4(6.9) | |
| | | Other | 9(15.3) | 8(13.8) | 15(25.9) | |
| | | Collegian | 10(16.9) | 16(27.6) | 17(29.3) | |
| | | No work | 3(5.1) | 4(6.9) | 0 | |
| Delivery number n(%) | Delivery number n(%) | Delivery number n(%) | Delivery number n(%) | Delivery number n(%) | Delivery number n(%) | 0.32 |
| | | 0 | 35(59.3) | 44(75.9) | 50(86.2) | |

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|
| | | 1 | 5(8.5) | 5(8.6) | 2(3.4) | |
| | | 2 | 11(18.6) | 7(12.1) | 4(6.9) | |
| | | 3 | 8(13.6) | 0 | 1(1.7) | |
| | | 4 | 0 | 1(1.7) | 1(1.7) | |
| | | 9 | 0 | 1(1.7) | 0 | |
| Delivery | Delivery | Delivery | Delivery | Delivery | Delivery | 0.24 |
| type n(%) | type n(%) | type n(%) | type n(%) | type n(%) | type n(%) | |
| | | Natural | 6(10.2) | 2(3.4) | 4(6.9) | |
| | | childbirth | | | | |
| | | Cesarean | 18(30.5) | 12(20.7) | 4(6.9) | |
| | | section | | | | |
| | | Men | 5(8.5) | 16(27.6) | 26(44.8) | |
| | | No delivery | 30(50.8) | 28(48.3) | 24(41.4) | |
| Menopause | Menopause | | 9(15.3) ^a | 4(6.9) | 4(6.9) | < 0.001 |
| n(%) | n(%) | | | | | |
| Acetaminophen(325/daily) | Acetaminophen(325/daily) | | 4(0.2) | 7(0.8) | 5(0.5) | 0.91 |
| n (%) | n (%) | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). | Abbreviations: SD Standard deviation, BMI: body mass index, WHtR: waist to height ratio, Quantitative variables were showed by means±SD and qualitative variables were showed by number (percentage). P value < 0.05 was significant. *P values resulted from ANCOVA analysis and were adjusted for energy intake. ^{abc} Different letters in each row indicate the difference between groups based on ANOVA test and Duncan post hoc test (p <0.05). |
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Comparison of daily nutrient intake in participants across people in pain tertiles

In table 2, the intakes of food groups and macro and micro nutrients are shown after adjusting for sex, BMI and energy among pain tertils. Firs tertile group includes healthy people with no feeling of pain. Range of SAAa intake was between 652.72 to 17841 g/day. A positive relation had found between energy, carbohydrate and B1 intake among three groups (P < 0.05).

Table2 comparison of daily nutrient intake in participants across people in pain tertiles

| Variables | Q2 (n=55) | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Amounts per day | Q1 (n=90) | | Q3 (n=30) | P trend | P value ^a | P value ^a |
| | 2147.64±670.41 | 2388.54±629.30 | 2191.66±601.17 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 0.09 |
| Energy (kcal) | | | | | | |
| Protein (g) | 93.76±57.44 | 106.85±87.66 | 88.29±31.64 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.36 |
| Carbohydrate (g) | 229.45±94.32 | 266.99±108.42 | 253.79±102.37 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 0.09 |
| Fat (g) | 102.40±44.93 | 108.10±42.31 | 100.52±24.23 | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.57 |
| Cholesterol (mg) | 345.89±253.87 | 350.19±280.76 | 337.19±269.04 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.97 |
| SFA (g) | 29.99±23.46 | 27.27±9.56 | 29.07±14.23 | 0.39 | 0.39 | 0.57 |
| PUFA (g) | 25.90±13.82 | 30.71±23.26 | 25.89±7.28 | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.34 |
| alpha-Linolenic acid (mg) | 3.21±8.98 | 3.30±9.35 | 4.45±9.47 | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.81 |
| Sodium (mg) | 1790.44±831.05 | 2127.07±1194.83 | 1859.41±825.34 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.19 |
| Potassium (mg) | 3670.49±1485.21 | 3912.67±1530.67 | 3966.11±1702.20 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.53 |
| Calcium (mg) | 14.34±6.26 | 16.42±6.94 | 16.29±8.16 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.15 |
| Magnesium (mg) | 1226.86±596.75 | 1251.81±490.32 | 1158.05±562.11 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.74 |
| Phosphorus (mg) | 1530.49±680.62 | 1637.88±742.92 | 1518.96±554.84 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.63 |
| VitaminA (RAE) | 2143.24±1378.57 | 2194.53±1583.94 | 2187.81±1129.64 | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.97 |
| B1 (mg) | 1.61±0.64 | 1.87±0.80 | 1.70±0.58 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.11 |
| B2 (mg) | 2.49±1.03 | 2.65±0.96 | 2.41±0.89 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.46 |
| B3 (mg) | 22.48±15.39 | 26.16±21.88 | 21.50±7.56 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.36 |
| B6 (mg) | 2.15±1.11 | 2.44±1.62 | 2.31±1.39 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.49 |
| B9 (µg) | 341.64±179.25 | 343.23±142.97 | 405.87±316.22 | 0.96 | 0.96 | 0.56 |
| B12 (µg) | 7.01±6.56 | 6.49±5.27 | 5.82±4.94 | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.58 |
| VitaminD (µg) | 2.69±2.04 | 2.66±2.30 | 2.34±1.99 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.69 |
| Fiber (g) | 13.99±9.62 | 15.53±9.03 | 17.75±15.59 | 0.40 | 0.40 | 0.36 |
| Fructose (g) | 7.18±6.12 | 7.88±5.51 | 8.79±9.80 | 0.53 | 0.53 | 0.60 |
| Sucrose (g) | 15.44±10.88 | 15.49±8.06 | 16.47±11.99 | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.91 |
| Lactose (g) | 19.05±12.37 | 18.61±12.01 | 15.64±11.11 | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.36 |
| Tryptophan (mg) | 1023.78±654.18 | 1171.85±1010.08 | 970.15±347.16 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.40 |
| Caffeine (mg) | 185.28±132.90 | 175.90±123.48 | 226.54±134.59 | 0.67 | 0.67 | 0.23 |
| Methionine (mg) | 2164.71±1557.72 | 2269.54±1479.06 | 1920.50±773.55 | 0.66 | 0.66 | 0.30 |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|------|------|
| Cysteine (mg) | 1176.10±717.85 | 1285.38±748.37 | 1128.08±417.79 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.46 |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|------|------|

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM | Abbreviations: SD: standard deviation, SFA: Saturated fat, PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acids, Data are presented as Mean ± SD. P values resulted from ANOVA analysis. P-value < 0.05 is significant. *P values presented resulted from ANCOVA analysis. ^a After equalizing the variables based on age, sex, body mass index based on ANCOVA were evaluated using GLM |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

Correlation between pain frequency and the studied variables by divided gender

To investigate the relationship between the amount of sulfur amino acids and pain, spearman correlation was applied in Table 3 and 4. After adjusting for potential confounding variable included total energy intake, there was a significant relationship and weak correlation between age, weight, WC, WHtR and BMI and severity and frequency of MPs among women. Similarly, in men, there was just a positive and strong relationship between age and severity of pain ($R = 0.36$; $P = 0.01$). No positive relationship between any of the anthropometric indicators and strength and frequency of pain was seen. In addition there was no relationship between daily SAAs intake and severity of pain totally ($P > 0.05$). Finally, the relationship between age, WC, WHtR and BMI with pain intensity and age, WHtR, BMI and pain frequency was statistically significant.

Table 3 Correlation between pain frequency and the studied variables by divided gender

Variables ^a

SAAs intake

Weight
Height
WC
WHtR
BMI
Age

Abbreviations: SAAs: sulfur amino acids, WHtR: waist to height, BMI: body mass index, WC: waist circumference * Signif

Table 4 Correlation between pain intensity and the studied variables by divided gender

variable ^a

Total SAAs intake

Weight
Height
WC
WHtR
BMI
Age

Abbreviations: SAAs: sulfur amino acids, WHtR: waist to height, BMI: body mass index, WC: waist circumference * Signif

Discussion

The current study explored the relationship of dietary sulfur amino acids intake and severity and frequency of MPs in adults. According to the results, there was not any significant relationship between sulfur amino acids consumption and severity and frequency of MPs; whereas higher intake of protein was related to the higher feeling of pain interceded by calorie intake. In addition, almost 71% of adults felt low to moderate pain. In the present study, there was no significant relationship between gender and the severity of musculoskeletal pain in the adult population over 18 years. Neither Palmer and Goodson did not see any differences in review article, nor did Roberts et al (20,21). But there was a positive relation in frequency of pain among women so that 56% of women felt pain more than twice a week. It has been considered that about 60% of the participants were young and age has a significant positive relationship with the severity and frequency of pain in individuals (22). Increasing pain with getting older can effect on progressive loss of neuromuscular function, decreased muscle mass, cartilage, bone mass and skeletal and muscular degenerative injuries (23). Recently, more attention has been paid to the effect of sex hormones on pain induction. Microglia (the remnant of the components of the immune system in the central nervous system) play a vital role in inducing pain in the body differently in men and women (24). As we know, in the central hypothalamus Arcuate Nucleus produce beta-endorphin, a potent analgesic for relieving of chronic pain in the body, is strongly influenced by estrogen. Estrogen receptors influence in synthesis and secretion of the methionine-enkephalin (delta-epithelial ligand receptor) and beta-endorphin secretion. This is why women feel less pain during pregnancy (25).

In the present study, there was a strong correlation between weight, waist circumference, waist height and body mass index with the severity and frequency of musculoskeletal pain in women. Also, in men, there was no significant relationship between any of the anthropometric indicators with pain intensity and frequency. It should be noted that the number of female participants in this study was higher and this could be one of the possible reasons for existence of significant pain with anthropometric figures in women. Also, the percentage of body fat mass is higher in women, which can be a factor in shortening the height between discs and increasing the severity of pain among them (26). Weight loss and healthy eating pattern may be helpful to manage obesity, reduce inflammation and disability of pain (27). In addition, endogenous enkephalins

have been shown to increase food intake in cats, thereby increasing obesity and pain (28). One study have also shown that the expression of catecholamine-stimulating lipolytic enzymes and the hormone-sensitive lipase was inhibited in adipose tissue and total body weight and three glyceride level were increased in the liver of mice with a high cysteine diet after 12-weeks. In general, excessive consumption of cysteine causes obesity and undesirable metabolic phenotype in mice. Cysteine plasma and obesity in humans may be causal (29).

There was mostly high sulfur amino acids among participants even more than RDA determinate (14 mg/kg/day) (30). In line with this study, in a systematic review Elma et al. found that in most patients with pain, the protein intake was higher than the allowable intake but the severity of pain was not significantly related to dietary intake (9). Although protein is a major component of maintaining skeletal muscle health, most sulfur-rich sources of amino acids are found in animal proteins, especially red meat and poultry which can be lead to inflammation (31). In addition, the consumption of proteins, especially from animal origin, more than 0.8 grams per kilogram of body weight has no positive effects on human health. Animal proteins in the body produce acidic precursors due to incomplete oxidation and plant proteins produce alkaline precursors in the body. An imbalance between acidic and alkaline precursors has been shown to disrupt a chronic net dietary acid load, which may have adverse consequences on bone health (32). Also Hackney et al. found that excessive consumption of sulfur amino acids was associated with increased bone resorption. Dietary methionine can decrease blood pH and increases skeletal pain. Consistent with the present study in the study of Freyberg et al. which was conducted to find the relationship between dietary sulfur amino acids and rheumatoid arthritis, no sulfur amino acid deficiency was observed in people with arthritis (33). In a cohort study with 546 people with rheumatoid arthritis, no significant correlation was observed between the type of protein consumed and the risk of rheumatoid arthritis (34,35). There was just a positive relationship between carbohydrate intake and the group that feel most pain.

In addition the internal pain relief system in central nerves system need essential fatty acids, especially Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)(36,37). Whereas the consumption of omega-3 fats (high in fatty fish) was very low in the population of this study. In addition consumption of salt was positively correlated with pain.

These two are precursors of S-adenosyl methionine (SAM), hydrogen sulfide, taurine and glutathione which can are protective(38,39). Oral cysteine alone has been shown to have low absorption capacity from the gastrointestinal tract (40).

In addition taking high dose of oral methionine may increase the level of homocysteine and could be harmful for persons. Bioavailability of cysteine is a limiting step in glutathione production. One study showed that oral cysteine alone has been absorbed in a low capacity from the gastrointestinal tract. In order to increase the level of glutathione, whey protein and almond could be useful (40).

Homocysteine is one of the mediators of methionine metabolism in the body. This substance has many roles in transporting in cells. In muscle disorders, for examples, the role of homocysteine as an aggravator of key processes such as oxidative stress, nitric oxide (NO) signaling, endoplasmic reticulum stress, methylation and gene expression, alteration in cellular signaling, especially G proteins, is prominent (41).

Among painkillers drugs no relationship between was seen acetaminophen and SAAa. Glutathione detoxify drugs such as acetaminophen by the sulfur element (42,43). In line with this study, an intervention study was conducted in 2012. They selected 11 people over the age of 69 who had arthritis. Participants received 3 grams of acetaminophen per day for 14 days. They found that despite the excretion of small amounts of paracetamol as conjugated sulfate in elderly patients, the amount of sulfur required to detoxify 3g of paracetamol per day was equal to 20% of the sulfur supplied by 1.06 g/kg body weight of dietary protein. Also, after 14 days, the body's total protein stores remained unchanged. However, there was an increase in the oxidation of sulfur amino acids and a decrease in the body's antioxidant capacity. The safety/risk ratio of this drug to compensate for deficiencies may be greatly need via new dietary changes and guidelines (44). Hyperhomocysteinemia can be a risk factor for pathology of many diseases. Homocysteine can damage

the vagus nerve and the superior cervical ganglion in the central nervous system and disrupt both the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems involved in skeletal muscle, which can lead to dysfunction of the skeletal muscle and spinal cord in the long term (45). In addition, the body's autonomic system and adrenal glands need methionine to produce norepinephrine from epinephrine in process of methylation (46). In chronic pain, norepinephrine increases inflammation in the body by producing pro-inflammatory cytokines. Due to the fact that the consumption of sulfur amino acids in this study was high, norepinephrine may have increased chronic pain by producing more inflammatory cytokines (47).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study didn't show a positive and relative association between the dietary sulfur amino acids and severity and frequency of pain. Although, targeting a decrease in dietary animal protein intake might be a useful strategy for reducing pain. However, further studies are recommended to improve understanding the relationship and managing pain.

Strengths and Limitations: According to the searched data bank, this study was the one which had focused the role of dietary SAAs and existence of pain in individuals. However, the population of this study was mostly among adults group (18-35 years) and assessing to older people in quarantine period of covid-19 was difficult for us and this may influence the final result. Further research is recommended to concrete our result.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The National Committee for Ethics in Biomedical Research approved this study under code IR.IAU.SRB.REC.1399.084. The specifics of the study were told to all qualified participants and written consent was obtained. The data are not publicly available because of containing information that could compromise the privacy of the research. Data are available from the authors upon reasonable request and with the permission of Ariyo Movahedi.

Availability of data and materials

Data supporting the results of this study are available from the Islamic Azad University of Science and Research Branch (SRBIAU) and have been used under license for the current analysis. However, data are available from the writers with the permission of the clinics and upon fair requests. It has been stated in our contract between the clinic and us that they never send us details about the participants because our data are part of a great database. Even they have their own competent statistics expert who analyzes our findings, the results were written based on his report.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that there is no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

The project was designed by AM and AD; NB collected the samples wrote the draft paper; AD and AM reviewed and edited the paper. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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