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## Early-life risk factors and their cumulative effects as predictors of overweight in Spanish children. --Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p><b>Objectives:</b> To explore early-life risk factors of overweight/obesity at age 6y and their cumulative effects on overweight/obesity at ages 2-,4- and 6y.</p> <p><b>Methods:</b> 1,031 Spanish children were evaluated at birth and during a 6-year follow-up. Early-life risk factors included: parental overweight/obesity, parental origin/ethnicity, maternal smoking during pregnancy, gestational weight gain, gestational age, birth weight, caesarean section, breastfeeding practices and rapid infant weight gain collected via hospital records. Cumulative effects were assessed by adding up those early-risk factors that significantly increased the risk of overweight/obesity. We conducted binary logistic regression models.</p> <p><b>Results:</b> Rapid infant weight gain (OR=2.29, 99%CI=1.54-3.42), maternal overweight/obesity (OR=1.93, 99%CI=1.27-2.92), paternal overweight/obesity (OR=2.17, 99%CI=1.44-3.28), Latin American/Roma origin (OR=3.20, 99%CI=1.60-6.39) and smoking during pregnancy (OR=1.61, 99%CI=1.01-2.59) remained significant after adjusting for confounders. A higher number of early-life risk factors accumulated was associated with overweight/obesity at age 6y but not at age 2y and 4y.</p> <p><b>Conclusions:</b> Rapid infant weight gain, parental overweight/obesity, maternal smoking and origin/ethnicity predict childhood overweight/obesity and present cumulative effects. Monitoring children with rapid weight gain and supporting a healthy parental</p>	

weight are important for childhood obesity prevention.

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## **Abstract**

**Objectives:** To explore early-life risk factors of overweight/obesity at age 6y and their cumulative effects on overweight/obesity at ages 2-,4- and 6y.

**Methods:** 1,031 Spanish children were evaluated at birth and during a 6-year follow-up. Early-life risk factors included: parental overweight/obesity, parental origin/ethnicity, maternal smoking during pregnancy, gestational weight gain, gestational age, birth weight, caesarean section, breastfeeding practices and rapid infant weight gain collected via hospital records. Cumulative effects were assessed by adding up those early-risk factors that significantly increased the risk of overweight/obesity. We conducted binary logistic regression models.

**Results:** Rapid infant weight gain (OR=2.29, 99%CI=1.54-3.42), maternal overweight/obesity (OR=1.93, 99%CI=1.27-2.92), paternal overweight/obesity (OR=2.17, 99%CI=1.44-3.28), Latin American/Roma origin (OR=3.20, 99%CI=1.60-6.39) and smoking during pregnancy (OR=1.61, 99%CI=1.01-2.59) remained significant after adjusting for confounders. A higher number of early-life risk factors accumulated was associated with overweight/obesity at age 6y but not at age 2y and 4y.

**Conclusions:** Rapid infant weight gain, parental overweight/obesity, maternal smoking and origin/ethnicity predict childhood overweight/obesity and present cumulative effects. Monitoring children with rapid weight gain and supporting a healthy parental weight are important for childhood obesity prevention.

**Keywords:** overweight; children; early-life risk factors; prevention, pregnancy.

**Abbreviations:** SES, Socio-Economic Status; BMI, Body Mass Index; CALINA, Growth and Feeding during Infancy and Early Childhood in Children from Aragon; OR, Odds Ratio; SD, Standard Deviation; WHO, World Health Organization.

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2 **Spanish children**

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## 23 Introduction

24 Childhood obesity is a major public health problem (Gupta et al. 2012). Despite reported  
25 stabilization of its prevalence in developed countries, overall trends in childhood obesity  
26 mask significant, increasing differences between children from upper and lower  
27 socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds and in those who accumulate more risk factors  
28 (White et al. 2016). Pre-, peri and postnatal risk factors have been revealed as  
29 determinants of subsequent childhood overweight/obesity (Reilly et al. 2005). Hence,  
30 infancy constitutes a critical period for future preventive strategies mainly in most  
31 deprived groups (Parrino et al. 2016). Several early-life risk factors have been identified  
32 in the literature, including maternal pre-pregnancy overweight/obesity, parental  
33 origin/ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, excess gestational weight gain, prematurity,  
34 high birth weight, caesarean section, not being breastfed and rapid infant weight gain  
35 (Bammann et al. 2014; Iguacel et al. 2017). While a meta-analysis found significant and  
36 strong independent associations with childhood overweight for maternal pre-pregnancy  
37 overweight, smoking during pregnancy and high infant birth weight, there was  
38 inconclusive evidence for caesarean section and breastfeeding practices (Lefebvre and  
39 John 2014; Weng et al. 2012; Yan et al. 2014).

40 These risk factors tend to cluster in socially patterned ways and may confound results.  
41 For example, mothers with a low educational level are more likely to smoke during  
42 pregnancy, which increases the risk of preterm birth, and thereby reduces the probability  
43 of breastfeeding (Heck et al. 2006; Mangrio et al. 2011; Oves Suarez et al. 2014). Several  
44 studies investigated the influence of early-life risk factors on childhood obesity; however,  
45 most of them did not adjust for potential confounding factors and therefore, did not  
46 discriminate their real contribution to childhood obesity (Stettler et al. 2000). Children  
47 presenting overweight/obesity tend to cumulate several risk factors, consequently it is  
48 important to evaluate their possible combined effects in order to design public policies  
49 tackling major modifiable risk factors (Robinson et al. 2015).

50 Moreover, most studies have focused on one or few early-life risk factors associated with  
51 obesity assessed at one particular age (Barros et al. 2012; Dennison et al. 2006). To the  
52 best of our knowledge this is the first paper examining most important identified early-  
53 life risk factors in the literature in a cohort of Spanish children followed from birth to age  
54 6 and evaluated at 3-time points (at age 2, 4 and 6 years). Moreover, we have examined

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the combined effect that most significant early-life risk factors identified in this study have on the risk of developing overweight/obesity.

Therefore, this study aimed to explore (i) the impact of early-life risk factors on the subsequent risk of obesity at 6 years old in a cohort of Spanish children participating in the Growth and Feeding during Infancy and Early Childhood in Aragon (CALINA) study, and (ii) the association between the number of early-life risk factors and presenting overweight/obesity at age 2, 4 and 6.

## Methods

### *Design and study population*

CALINA is an ongoing birth cohort study whose sampling design is described elsewhere in detail (Oves Suarez et al. 2014). CALINA's study main objective was to assess growth patterns, body composition and feeding aspects in infants and children and to examine prenatal, postnatal and socio-cultural factors which may influence them. The cohort was randomly drawn from births occurring from March 2009 to February 2010 in different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain), recruited from Primary Care Centres by trained pediatric staff and with compliance and attendance over 80% of the population living in this area. The study sample is a representative cohort of the Aragonese population, which presents similar childhood obesity rates to other northern regions in Spain (Serra-Majem et al. 2006). 1,630 families were contacted to participate in the CALINA study. 1,602 accepted to participate; of which, 1,540 new-born infants without any malformation, diseases or physical disabilities who had information on sex, birth weight, length at birth, and date and place of birth were examined at birth and periodically re-examined at 2 weeks, monthly and yearly. After 6-year follow-up 323 children did no longer participate in our study (retention rate 79%). Children with missing values in exposures, covariates or outcomes at baseline or follow-up were excluded. Asians were not included because models could not run satisfactorily due to the small size of the sample that led to unstable results. Finally, the analysis included 1,031 children (54.2% boys; **Figure 1**). An analysis was conducted on participants who were not included in the analysis and results confirmed children who had a migrant background and lower parental education were more likely to not participate in follow-up examinations.

86 Parents or legal guardians gave written informed consent for examinations for their  
87 children. Ethical approval was obtained from the regional Committee of Ethics (Comité  
88 Ético de Investigación Clínica de Aragón, CEICA).

89

90 *Measurements*

91 *Outcome Measure*

92 Height and weight were obtained by trained staff using the same SECA® device at  
93 different time points (at birth, at 2 weeks, monthly -at 1, 2, 4, 6 and 9 months- and yearly  
94 -at 1, 2, 4 and 6 years-). Barefoot body height was measured in cm to the nearest 0.1 cm  
95 and body weight in kg to the nearest 10 g, with children in a fasting state and wearing  
96 light clothes. To calculate age- and sex-specific BMI z-scores from birth to 5 years we  
97 used child growth standards tables of WHO, using  $>+2$  standard deviation (SD) and  $>+3$   
98 SD for overweight and obese (World Health Organization 2007) and to calculate age- and  
99 sex-specific BMI z-scores at age 6 we used WHO growth reference tables established for  
100 children aged 5 to 19 years using  $>+1SD$ ,  $>+2SD$  for overweight and obese (World  
101 Health Organization. 2007).

102 *Early risk factors and sociodemographic characteristics*

103 Early-life risk factors were divided into prepartum, peripartum and postpartum factors:

104 Prepartum factors:

105 Maternal and paternal body mass index (BMI) and parental origin/ethnicity were obtained  
106 by a face-to-face interview with parents. Mother's tobacco use during pregnancy and  
107 gestational weight gain were obtained from medical records.

108 (i) *Maternal body mass index (BMI)* and (ii) *paternal body mass index (BMI)*: Parents  
109 reported their pre-pregnancy weight and height and we calculated maternal and paternal  
110 BMI as weight (kg) divided by height squared ( $m^2$ ) and classified as normal weight,  $<25$   
111  $kg/m^2$ ; overweight,  $25-<30 kg/m^2$ ; and obese,  $\geq 30 kg/m^2$ .

112 (iii) *Parental origin/ethnicity*: Mothers also reported their ethnicity/origin and children  
113 were classified as Spanish Roma/gypsies, Eastern Europeans, Latin Americans (Central,  
114 South America), Africans (North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa) and non-Roma Spanish  
115 children. In 94% of children, the category of both parents was the same and, then, was



116 used as the origin/ethnicity. In those cases in which the minority group status of the 2  
117 parents differed, it was based on mothers' origin/ethnicity.

118 (iv) *Maternal smoking status during pregnancy*: mother was considered as smoker if she  
119 smoked over pregnancy, regardless of the number of cigarettes. Physicians obtained the  
120 data by interviewing mothers before hospital discharge after delivery and by abstracting  
121 medical records.

122 (v) *Gestational weight gain* was obtained from medical records, which was calculated as  
123 the difference between maximum recorded weight during pregnancy and self-reported  
124 pre-pregnancy weight (determined at first antenatal visit). Thereafter, gestational weight  
125 gain was categorized as excessive, adequate and insufficient based on the 2009 Institute  
126 of Medicine (IOM) recommendations for healthy weight gain for pregnant women, by  
127 pre-pregnancy BMI category: 12.5-18.0 kg for women with a BMI <18.5; 11.5-16.0 kg  
128 for women with a BMI 18.5-24.9; 7.0-11.5 kg for women with a BMI 25.0-29.9 and 5.0-  
129 9.0 kg for women with a BMI <30.0 (Institute of Medicine and National Research Council  
130 Committee 2009).

131 Peripartum factors gathered from hospital records:

132 (i) *Gestational age* was categorized into <37 weeks (preterm) and 37-42 weeks (term).

133 (ii) *Birth weight*, categorized as low (<2.5 kg), normal (2.5-<4 kg) and high ( $\geq$ 4 kg)  
134 (Zhang et al. 2016).

135 (iii) *Delivery mode*, categorized as caesarean section or not.

136 Postpartum factors obtained from medical records:

137 (i) Early rapid infant body weight gain. Age- and sex-specific weight z-scores at birth and  
138 at 6 months of age were calculated using WHO (World Health Organization 2006) child  
139 growth standards tables. We assessed infant gain weight as gain in weight z-score  
140 between birth and six months of life. Early rapid infant body weight gain was considered  
141 as an increase in body weight z-score above +0.67 SD from birth to 6 months of age (Ong  
142 and Loos 2006). Early rapid infant weight gain was considered as an increase in body  
143 weight z-score above +0.67 SD from birth to 6 months of age (Ong and Loos 2006).

144 (ii) Exclusive breastfeeding for at least four months was defined as giving breastmilk as  
145 the only infant food source with no other liquids or food given according to WHO (World  
146 Health Organization 2010).

147 Sociodemographic characteristics included sex and age of children and education attained  
148 by parents. Mothers and fathers reported their highest level of education. Categories were  
149 coded according to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-1997) and  
150 re-categorized into: low (0-2), medium (3-4) and high (5-6) ISCED educational levels  
151 (UNESCO Statistics 1997).

### 152 *Statistical Analyses*

153 Sociodemographic information was compared using chi-square statistics for categorical  
154 variables. To study the impact of early-life risk factors on the risk of children's excess of  
155 weight we carried out a multivariable analysis in two stages. Firstly, we built binary  
156 logistic regression models for each early risk factor included in the present study to assess  
157 the associations with childhood excess body weight at age 6. Basic model adjustment  
158 included sex and age at measurement, and full adjustment model included the basic model  
159 plus the possible confounders for each early-life risk factor that have been found to be  
160 relevant in the literature (i.e. maternal BMI was adjusted for maternal education,  
161 ethnicity/origin, and maternal smoking during pregnancy. The complete list of  
162 confounding factors is displayed in Table 2. Secondly, to assess the combined effect of  
163 all statistically significant early-life risk factors binary logistic regression models were  
164 run. As these risk factors could be correlated, only early-life risk factors that were  
165 statistically significant at 6 years old ( $p < 0.01$ ) in previous first step analyses were  
166 included in the following models (maternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> and paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>,  
167 Latin American or Roma origin, maternal smoking, not being exclusively breastfed  
168 during the first 4 months and rapid infant weight gain). These models were adjusted for  
169 sex, age and parental education and each factor included in the model. Additionally, three  
170 longitudinal analyses were conducted to assess the association between the accumulation  
171 of these early risk factors seemingly influential in the analysis at 6 years old and childhood  
172 excess body weight at 2, 4 and 6 years old. In this case, binary logistic regressions were  
173 run adjusting for sex and age at measurement, maternal and paternal education. To test  
174 the effect of the accumulation of early-life risk factors on childhood overweight and  
175 obesity we added up those early-risk factors significantly increasing the risk of being

176 overweight/obese at 6 years old: Latin American or Roma origin, maternal BMI  $\geq 25$   
177 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, maternal smoking during pregnancy, not being  
178 exclusively breastfed during the first 4 months and early rapid infant weight gain. The  
179 total number of early-life risk factors ranged from 0 (no risk factors) to 6 (all six risk  
180 factors) and was divided into five categories (four to six risk factors, three risk factors,  
181 two risk factors, one risk factor and no risk factors).

182 Furthermore, before model building, correlations among early-life risk factors were  
183 checked ranging from 0.12 (between birthweight and caesarean section) to 0.34 (between  
184 gestational age and birthweight). The reference category used was underweight/normal  
185 weight-for each outcome (overweight and obesity risk).

186 The significance level was set at 0.01 to account at least partially for multiple testing.  
187 Analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 22.0;  
188 SPSS, Inc.).

189

## 190 **Results**

191 **Table 1** summarizes descriptive characteristics of children and parents according to  
192 weight status (normal weight vs. overweight/obesity) of children at 6-year follow-up. The  
193 percentage of children presenting normal weight (including also children underweight) at  
194 age 6 was 68.4% (28.9% of total number of children were underweight, data not shown).

195 **Table 2** presents OR and 99%CI for the associations between early-life risk factors and  
196 excess body weight in children at 6 years old for basic and fully adjusted models. In the  
197 fully adjustment models, children whose mothers were overweight (OR 1.91, 99%CI  
198 1.38-2.66) or obese (OR 2.20, 99%CI 1.41-3.42) were more likely to be overweight at  
199 age 6 than children whose mothers were normal weight/underweight. Similarly, children  
200 whose fathers were overweight (OR 2.10, 99%CI 1.59-3.00) or obese (OR 3.05, 99%CI  
201 2.00-4.64) were more likely to be overweight at age 6 than children whose fathers were  
202 normal weight/underweight. Roma children (OR 4.87, 99%CI 2.00-11.81) and children  
203 with Latin American background (OR 3.22, 99%CI 1.79-5.77) were more likely to be  
204 overweight or obese at age 6 compared with non-Roma Spanish children regardless of  
205 confounders. Children whose mothers reported to have smoked during pregnancy were  
206 more likely to be overweight/obese at age 6 than children whose mothers did not smoke

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207 during pregnancy (OR 1.59, 99%CI 1.03-2.43). Children who experienced rapid weight  
208 gain from birth to 6 months of age were more likely to be overweight/obese at 6 years old  
209 than children who did not experience rapid infant weight gain (OR 3.39, 99%CI 2.03,  
210 5.65). In the basic model, exclusive breastfeeding for 4 months was found to be associated  
211 with lower risk of being overweight/obese at 6 years old (OR 1.34, 99%CI 1.01-1.82).  
212 However, when adjusting for parental BMI, maternal education, maternal smoking during  
213 pregnancy and parental origin/ethnicity, this risk was reduced and it was no longer  
214 significant (OR 1.20, 99%CI 0.82-1.75).

215 **Table 3** shows the combined effect of all factors found statistically significant in previous  
216 fully adjusted models regarding children's excess of weight at 6 years old. The  
217 multivariable model included maternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Latin  
218 American or Roma origin, maternal smoking, not being exclusively breastfed during the  
219 first 4 months and rapid infant weight gain. After adjusting for sex, age, maternal and  
220 paternal education and every early-life risk factor, maternal BMI  $> 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> (OR 1.93,  
221 99%CI 1.27-2.78), paternal BMI  $> 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> (OR 2.08, 99%CI 1.06-2.51), Latin American  
222 origin/Spanish Roma (OR 3.20, 99%CI 1.60-6.39) and early rapid infant weight gain (OR  
223 2.09, 99%CI 1.54, 3.42) remained as significant predictors of overweight/obesity at age  
224 6.

225 **Table 4** shows OR and 99%CI for the associations between the number of early-life risk  
226 factors found statistically significant with overweight/obesity at age 6 based on previous  
227 analyses (maternal BMI  $\geq 25$ , paternal BMI  $\geq 25$ , Latin American or Roma origin, smoking  
228 during pregnancy, non-exclusive breastfeeding during the first 4 months and early  
229 postnatal rapid infant weight gain) and excess body weight in children at 2, 4 and 6 years  
230 old. A higher number of early-life risk factors was associated with higher odds of being  
231 overweight or obese at age 6, where OR increased with the number of early-life risk  
232 factors: two early-life risk factors (OR 2.72, 99%CI 1.54-3.42); three early-life risk  
233 factors (OR 5.02, 99%CI 2.28-11.04) and four to six early-life risk factors (OR 7.33,  
234 99%CI 3.01-17.84). No significant associations were found at age 2 or 4 years.

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238 **Discussion**

239 This study investigated both the impact of early-life risk factors on later overweight and  
240 obesity in Spanish children at 6 years old and their cumulative effect on the risk of  
241 becoming overweight/obese at 2, 4 and 6 years old.

242 Maternal BMI, paternal BMI, parental origin/ethnicity, maternal smoking during  
243 pregnancy and rapid infant weight gain were statistically significant independent factors  
244 of childhood overweight and obesity in our investigation after adjusting for confounding  
245 factors and these early-life risk factors had an accumulative effect on overweight and  
246 obesity in children who were aged 6 years old. Particularly, there was a 7-fold increase  
247 in the risk of being overweight or obese at age 6 for children who had 4 or more risk  
248 factors, compared with children who had none.

249 Parental BMI and parental origin/ethnicity also confounded many of the associations  
250 studied and were strong risk factors for childhood obesity, as other investigations have  
251 revealed (Parikka et al. 2015). Parental overweight and obesity could influence the risk  
252 of obesity in their descendants due to shared genes and environmental factors within  
253 families (Whitaker et al. 1997; Williams et al. 2017). The association between parental  
254 origin/ethnicity and childhood obesity could be due genetic and cultural diversity in  
255 minority groups and those related to SES could result in differences in Energy balance-  
256 related behaviours. These groups are at higher risk of adopting an unhealthy diet,  
257 insufficient physical activity and sedentary behaviours, explaining differences found in  
258 overweight and obesity prevalence among these groups. Minorities groups (particularly,  
259 Roma/gypsies and Latin Americans) are more exposed to more vulnerabilities possibly  
260 leading to inadequate adaptation in obesogenic environments characterized by low levels  
261 of physical activity, high energy density diets and a sedentary lifestyle compared with  
262 non-vulnerable groups (Iguacel et al. 2017). Maternal educational level was used as an  
263 indicator of socioeconomic status because several studies found maternal educational  
264 level to be a reliable determinant of children's dietary behaviour and childhood obesity  
265 (van Ansem et al. 2014).

266 Along with our results, consistent evidence has been shown in previous studies regarding  
267 smoking during pregnancy as a risk factor for childhood overweight/obesity (Oken et al.  
268 2008). Via intrauterine, exposure to smoke results in prenatal undernutrition. This  
269 nutritional deprivation may lead to increased nutrient achievement later and finally

1 270 postnatal obesity (Oken et al. 2008). The pooled estimate from unadjusted odds ratios  
2 271 was higher to the adjusted estimate, suggesting maternal education and parental  
3 272 origin/ethnicity between smokers and non-smokers explained just partly the association.  
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5  
6 273 Previous meta-analyses have showed that due to permanent alterations in metabolism  
7 274 excessive gestational weight gain is significantly associated with childhood  
8 275 overweight/obesity (Mamun et al. 2014; Tie et al. 2014). However, we did not find  
9 276 statically significant associations between an excessive gestational weight gain and  
10 277 offspring overweight, even though associations pointed to the expected directions  
11 278 (Sridhar et al. 2014). Part of the risk of an excessive gestational weight of childhood  
12 279 overweigh has been related to maternal pre-pregnancy BMI (Samura et al. 2016). Our  
13 280 models were adjusted for maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, which may be the result of this  
14 281 lack of significance as other studies have stated (Samura et al. 2016).  
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17 282 Concerning gestational age, we did not find any statistically significant association  
18 283 between gestational age and childhood obesity. In the literature, there is mixed evidence  
19 284 on whether gestational age is linked or not with childhood overweight/obesity (Heppe et  
20 285 al. 2013). Arguably infants born preterm usually compensate by engaging in rapid infant  
21 286 weight gain in early-life and this ‘catch-up’ growth is associated with an increased risk  
22 287 of childhood obesity. Attending previous investigations therefore, this association could  
23 288 be explained mainly due to early postnatal rapid infant weight gain and not directly  
24 289 because of gestational age (Cho and Suh 2016) but such result in not shown in our  
25 290 analysis.  
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28 291 Low and high birth weight have been associated with subsequent childhood obesity  
29 292 through increased leptin levels after catch-up growth during childhood and programming  
30 293 for lean mass respectively (Danielzik et al. 2004; Jornayvaz et al. 2016). Maternal glucose  
31 294 levels during pregnancy could also explain the association between birthweight and  
32 295 offspring of obesity. In fact, an excess of fetal insulin, due to maternal hyperglycaemia,  
33 296 might work as a growth hormone for the fetus and can also alter the expression of  
34 297 hypothalamic neurotransmitter leading to an increase in the appetite and later obesity  
35 298 (Guillmann 2003). However, we did not find statically significant associations between  
36 299 high birth weight and future overweight in children. In our analysis, only one child  
37 300 weighted five kg and most children who were categorized as high birthweight weighted  
38 301 around four kg, which could partially explain the lack of significance. Despite this lack  
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302 of significance, results pointed to the expected directions and higher ORs in children who  
303 weighted more than 4 kg at birth were observed.

304 Birth by caesarean section has been implicated in the development of childhood obesity  
305 (Yuan et al. 2016). A recent meta-analysis has reported children born by caesarean section  
306 are at higher risk of developing obesity in childhood and this association remained  
307 significant after accounting for major confounding factors (Kuhle et al. 2015). Despite  
308 these findings, we could not find any statistically significant association between birth by  
309 caesarean section and childhood obesity.

310 Breastfeeding has yielded inconsistent results in the literature. Some studies have reported  
311 breastfed children have lower risk of childhood obesity than those who have not been  
312 breastfed (Yan et al. 2014) while others have stated that evidence from these studies could  
313 be influenced by confounding factors and therefore breastfeeding would not be likely to  
314 be a protective factor for childhood obesity (Lefebvre and John 2014). Our study found a  
315 raw effect between not being exclusively breastfeed in the first 4 months and future  
316 childhood overweight. Nevertheless, this effect disappeared when adjusting for maternal  
317 BMI, maternal smoking during pregnancy and education, suggesting protective effect of  
318 breastfeeding against childhood obesity could be due to confounding variables.

319 Early rapid infant weight gain has been reported to be a risk factor of childhood obesity  
320 (Ong and Loos 2006), which is in line with the results of our study. This factor had an  
321 independent effect on obesity risk at 6y and remained statically significant after adjusting  
322 for confounding factors and exclusive breastfeeding for at least 4 months. Specifically,  
323 rapid infant weight gain from birth to 6 months of age was the strongest predictor of later  
324 risk of childhood overweight/obesity in our study.

325 Finally, we examined the cumulative effect of early-life risk factors found statically  
326 significant in our study (maternal smoking during pregnancy, non-exclusive breast  
327 feeding during the first 4 months, rapid infant weight gain from birth to 6 months of age,  
328 maternal BMI >25, paternal BMI >25 and Latin American/Roma origin) in childhood  
329 overweight and obesity. Children who accumulated more risk factors had higher risk of  
330 being overweight/obese at age 6. Particularly, there was a 7-fold increase in the risk of  
331 overweight in children with 4 to 6 risk factors, 5-fold in children with 3 risk factors and  
332 2-fold in children with 2 risk factors compared with children who had no risk factors and  
333 after adjusting for sex, age and maternal education. However, these effects were not

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334 observed at 2 and 4 years old, suggesting this tendency seems to become more  
335 pronounced over time, which have been suggested in other studies.(Robinson et al. 2015;  
336 Salsberry and Reagan 2005). These results are likely due to the combination in a same  
337 subject of both expression of genetic predisposition and being more time exposed to  
338 obesogenic environments. Furthermore, we hypothesized that children who tend to  
339 accumulate more early-life risk factors are probably more subject to socioeconomic  
340 vulnerabilities for a longer period, which may explain increased prevalence of  
341 overweight/obesity in these groups over time. Health behaviours related to obesity such  
342 as physical activity, diet or sleep and mental health can worsen due to stressful events and  
343 household dysfunction that might characterize ethnic minority and low SES groups  
344 (Iguacel et al. 2017).

345 Some limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Firstly, the CALINA study is not  
346 representative of Spanish population since Aragon covered a limited geographic area  
347 within the country and results might not be extrapolated to the whole population. Another  
348 limitation is reliance on self-report measures for parents (parental weight-height and  
349 education). Moreover, a selection bias cannot be precluded as there were participants  
350 (mainly children whose parents were originally from Eastern European countries, Africa  
351 and Latin America and had lower parental education) who did not complete all  
352 information required or did not continue the study at follow-up. Furthermore, some very  
353 important confounding factors such as dietary intake, income and parity were not reported  
354 and thus results must be interpreted with caution. Finally, some associations were not  
355 found to be statically significant maybe due to the small size of some groups studied (i.e.  
356 in children who weighted more than 4 kg at birth). A special strength of the study is that  
357 to our knowledge, this is the first paper investigating early-life risk factors and their  
358 accumulative effect at 2, 4 and 6 years old using a Spanish cohort in a 6 years follow-up.  
359 The prospective collection of data on a wide range of risk factors extending from  
360 pregnancy through infancy and the ability to adjust for confounding factors are also  
361 strengths of this study.

## 362 *Conclusion*

363 Parental origin/ethnicity, parental overweight and obesity, smoking during pregnancy and  
364 rapid infant weight gain were important determinants of childhood overweight/obesity.  
365 All these risk factors have cumulative effects and tend to cluster in socially patterned



366 ways. However, these effects were not observed when children were 2 and 4 years,  
367 suggesting this tendency become more pronounced over time as children are more time  
368 exposed to these risk factors and the obesogenic environments. Therefore, the first year  
369 is critical for childhood obesity development, and its prevention. Strategies such as  
370 monitoring children with rapid infant weight gain, supporting attainment of a healthy  
371 parental weight and preventing smoking during pregnancy could be of importance for  
372 preventing childhood obesity.

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#### 374 **Compliance with ethical standards**

#### 375 **Conflict of interest**

376 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

377 **Research involving human participants** Ethical approval was obtained from the  
378 regional Committee of Ethics (Comité Ético de Investigación Clínica de Aragón,  
379 CEICA).

380 **Informed consent** Parents or legal guardians gave written informed consent for  
381 examinations for their children.

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1 **Early-life risk factors and their cumulative effects as predictors of overweight in**  
2 **Spanish children**

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## 23 Introduction

24 Childhood obesity is a major public health problem (Gupta et al. 2012). Despite reported  
25 stabilization of its prevalence in developed countries, overall trends in childhood obesity  
26 mask significant, increasing differences between children from upper and lower  
27 socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds and in those who accumulate more risk factors  
28 (White et al. 2016). Pre-, peri and postnatal risk factors have been revealed as  
29 determinants of subsequent childhood overweight/obesity (Reilly et al. 2005). Hence,  
30 infancy constitutes a critical period for future preventive strategies mainly in most  
31 deprived groups (Parrino et al. 2016). Several early-life risk factors have been identified  
32 in the literature, including maternal pre-pregnancy overweight/obesity, parental  
33 origin/ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, excess gestational weight gain, prematurity,  
34 high birth weight, caesarean section, not being breastfed and rapid infant weight gain  
35 (Bammann et al. 2014; Iguacel et al. 2017). While a meta-analysis found significant and  
36 strong independent associations with childhood overweight for maternal pre-pregnancy  
37 overweight, smoking during pregnancy and high infant birth weight, there was  
38 inconclusive evidence for caesarean section and breastfeeding practices (Lefebvre and  
39 John 2014; Weng et al. 2012; Yan et al. 2014).

40 These risk factors tend to cluster in socially patterned ways and may confound results.  
41 For example, mothers with a low educational level are more likely to smoke during  
42 pregnancy, which increases the risk of preterm birth, and thereby reduces the probability  
43 of breastfeeding (Heck et al. 2006; Mangrio et al. 2011; Oves Suarez et al. 2014). Several  
44 studies investigated the influence of early-life risk factors on childhood obesity; however,  
45 most of them did not adjust for potential confounding factors and therefore, did not  
46 discriminate their real contribution to childhood obesity (Stettler et al. 2000). Children  
47 presenting overweight/obesity tend to cumulate several risk factors, consequently it is  
48 important to evaluate their possible combined effects in order to design public policies  
49 tackling major modifiable risk factors (Robinson et al. 2015).

50 Moreover, most studies have focused on one or few early-life risk factors associated with  
51 obesity assessed at one particular age (Barros et al. 2012; Dennison et al. 2006). To the  
52 best of our knowledge this is the first paper examining most important identified early-  
53 life risk factors in the literature in a cohort of Spanish children followed from birth to age  
54 6 and evaluated at 3-time points (at age 2, 4 and 6 years). Moreover, we have examined

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the combined effect that most significant early-life risk factors identified in this study have on the risk of developing overweight/obesity.

Therefore, this study aimed to explore (i) the impact of early-life risk factors on the subsequent risk of obesity at 6 years old in a cohort of Spanish children participating in the Growth and Feeding during Infancy and Early Childhood in Aragon (CALINA) study, and (ii) the association between the number of early-life risk factors and presenting overweight/obesity at age 2, 4 and 6.

## **Methods**

### *Design and study population*

CALINA is an ongoing birth cohort study whose sampling design is described elsewhere in detail (Oves Suarez et al. 2014). CALINA's study main objective was to assess growth patterns, body composition and feeding aspects in infants and children and to examine prenatal, postnatal and socio-cultural factors which may influence them. The cohort was randomly drawn from births occurring from March 2009 to February 2010 in different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain), recruited from Primary Care Centres by trained pediatric staff and with compliance and attendance over 80% of the population living in this area. The study sample is a representative cohort of the Aragonese population, which presents similar childhood obesity rates to other northern regions in Spain (Serra-Majem et al. 2006). 1,630 families were contacted to participate in the CALINA study. 1,602 accepted to participate; of which, 1,540 new-born infants without any malformation, diseases or physical disabilities who had information on sex, birth weight, length at birth, and date and place of birth were examined at birth and periodically re-examined at 2 weeks, monthly and yearly. After 6-year follow-up 323 children did no longer participate in our study (retention rate 79%). Children with missing values in exposures, covariates or outcomes at baseline or follow-up were excluded. Asians were not included because models could not run satisfactorily due to the small size of the sample that led to unstable results. Finally, the analysis included 1,031 children (54.2% boys; **Figure 1**). An analysis was conducted on participants who were not included in the analysis and results confirmed children who had a migrant background and lower parental education were more likely to not participate in follow-up examinations.

86 Parents or legal guardians gave written informed consent for examinations for their  
87 children. Ethical approval was obtained from the regional Committee of Ethics (Comité  
88 Ético de Investigación Clínica de Aragón, CEICA).

89  
90 *Measurements*

91 *Outcome Measure*

92 Height and weight were obtained by trained staff using the same SECA® device at  
93 different time points (at birth, at 2 weeks, monthly -at 1, 2, 4, 6 and 9 months- and yearly  
94 -at 1, 2, 4 and 6 years-). Barefoot body height was measured in cm to the nearest 0.1 cm  
95 and body weight in kg to the nearest 10 g, with children in a fasting state and wearing  
96 light clothes. To calculate age- and sex-specific BMI z-scores from birth to 5 years we  
97 used child growth standards tables of WHO, using  $>+2$  standard deviation (SD) and  $>+3$   
98 SD for overweight and obese (World Health Organization 2007) and to calculate age- and  
99 sex-specific BMI z-scores at age 6 we used WHO growth reference tables established for  
100 children aged 5 to 19 years using  $>+1SD$ ,  $>+2SD$  for overweight and obese (World  
101 Health Organization. 2007).

102 *Early risk factors and sociodemographic characteristics*

103 Early-life risk factors were divided into prepartum, peripartum and postpartum factors:

104 *Prepartum factors:*

105 Maternal and paternal body mass index (BMI) and parental origin/ethnicity were obtained  
106 by a face-to-face interview with parents. Mother's tobacco use during pregnancy and  
107 gestational weight gain were obtained from medical records.

108 (i) *Maternal body mass index (BMI)* and (ii) *paternal body mass index (BMI)*: Parents  
109 reported their pre-pregnancy weight and height and we calculated maternal and paternal  
110 BMI as weight (kg) divided by height squared ( $m^2$ ) and classified as normal weight,  $<25$   
111  $kg/m^2$ ; overweight,  $25-<30 kg/m^2$ ; and obese,  $\geq 30 kg/m^2$ .

112 (iii) *Parental origin/ethnicity*: Mothers also reported their ethnicity/origin and children  
113 were classified as Spanish Roma/gypsies, Eastern Europeans, Latin Americans (Central,  
114 South America), Africans (North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa) and non-Roma Spanish  
115 children. In 94% of children, the category of both parents was the same and, then, was

116 used as the origin/ethnicity. In those cases in which the minority group status of the 2  
117 parents differed, it was based on mothers' origin/ethnicity.

118 (iv) *Maternal smoking status during pregnancy*: mother was considered as smoker if she  
119 smoked over pregnancy, regardless of the number of cigarettes. Physicians obtained the  
120 data by interviewing mothers before hospital discharge after delivery and by abstracting  
121 medical records.

122 (v) *Gestational weight gain* was obtained from medical records, which was calculated as  
123 the difference between maximum recorded weight during pregnancy and self-reported  
124 pre-pregnancy weight (determined at first antenatal visit). Thereafter, gestational weight  
125 gain was categorized as excessive, adequate and insufficient based on the 2009 Institute  
126 of Medicine (IOM) recommendations for healthy weight gain for pregnant women, by  
127 pre-pregnancy BMI category: 12.5-18.0 kg for women with a BMI <18.5; 11.5-16.0 kg  
128 for women with a BMI 18.5-24.9; 7.0-11.5 kg for women with a BMI 25.0-29.9 and 5.0-  
129 9.0 kg for women with a BMI <30.0 (Institute of Medicine and National Research Council  
130 Committee 2009).

131 Peripartum factors gathered from hospital records:

132 (i) *Gestational age* was categorized into <37 weeks (preterm) and 37-42 weeks (term).

133 (ii) *Birth weight*, categorized as low (<2.5 kg), normal (2.5-<4 kg) and high ( $\geq$ 4 kg)  
134 (Zhang et al. 2016).

135 (iii) *Delivery mode*, categorized as caesarean section or not.

136 Postpartum factors obtained from medical records:

137 (i) Early rapid infant body weight gain. Age- and sex-specific weight z-scores at birth and  
138 at 6 months of age were calculated using WHO (World Health Organization 2006) child  
139 growth standards tables. We assessed infant gain weight as gain in weight z-score  
140 between birth and six months of life. Early rapid infant body weight gain was considered  
141 as an increase in body weight z-score above +0.67 SD from birth to 6 months of age (Ong  
142 and Loos 2006). Early rapid infant weight gain was considered as an increase in body  
143 weight z-score above +0.67 SD from birth to 6 months of age (Ong and Loos 2006).



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144 (ii) Exclusive breastfeeding for at least four months was defined as giving breastmilk as  
145 the only infant food source with no other liquids or food given according to WHO (World  
146 Health Organization 2010).

147 Sociodemographic characteristics included sex and age of children and education attained  
148 by parents. Mothers and fathers reported their highest level of education. Categories were  
149 coded according to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-1997) and  
150 re-categorized into: low (0-2), medium (3-4) and high (5-6) ISCED educational levels  
151 (UNESCO Statistics 1997).

### 152 *Statistical Analyses*

153 Sociodemographic information was compared using chi-square statistics for categorical  
154 variables. To study the impact of early-life risk factors on the risk of children's excess of  
155 weight we carried out a multivariable analysis in two stages. Firstly, we built binary  
156 logistic regression models for each early risk factor included in the present study to assess  
157 the associations with childhood excess body weight at age 6. Basic model adjustment  
158 included sex and age at measurement, and full adjustment model included the basic model  
159 plus the possible confounders for each early-life risk factor that have been found to be  
160 relevant in the literature (i.e. maternal BMI was adjusted for maternal education,  
161 ethnicity/origin, and maternal smoking during pregnancy. The complete list of  
162 confounding factors is displayed in Table 2. Secondly, to assess the combined effect of  
163 all statistically significant early-life risk factors binary logistic regression models were  
164 run. As these risk factors could be correlated, only early-life risk factors that were  
165 statistically significant at 6 years old ( $p < 0.01$ ) in previous first step analyses were  
166 included in the following models (maternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> and paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>,  
167 Latin American or Roma origin, maternal smoking, not being exclusively breastfeed  
168 during the first 4 months and rapid infant weight gain). These models were adjusted for  
169 sex, age and parental education and each factor included in the model. Additionally, three  
170 longitudinal analyses were conducted to assess the association between the accumulation  
171 of these early risk factors seemingly influential in the analysis at 6 years old and childhood  
172 excess body weight at 2, 4 and 6 years old. In this case, binary logistic regressions were  
173 run adjusting for sex and age at measurement, maternal and paternal education. To test  
174 the effect of the accumulation of early-life risk factors on childhood overweight and  
175 obesity we added up those early-risk factors significantly increasing the risk of being

176 overweight/obese at 6 years old: Latin American or Roma origin, maternal BMI  $\geq 25$   
177 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, maternal smoking during pregnancy, not being  
178 exclusively breastfed during the first 4 months and early rapid infant weight gain. The  
179 total number of early-life risk factors ranged from 0 (no risk factors) to 6 (all six risk  
180 factors) and was divided into five categories (four to six risk factors, three risk factors,  
181 two risk factors, one risk factor and no risk factors).

182 Furthermore, before model building, correlations among early-life risk factors were  
183 checked ranging from 0.12 (between birthweight and caesarean section) to 0.34 (between  
184 gestational age and birthweight). The reference category used was underweight/normal  
185 weight-for each outcome (overweight and obesity risk).

186 The significance level was set at 0.01 to account at least partially for multiple testing.  
187 Analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 22.0;  
188 SPSS, Inc.).

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## 190 **Results**

191 **Table 1** summarizes descriptive characteristics of children and parents according to  
192 weight status (normal weight vs. overweight/obesity) of children at 6-year follow-up. The  
193 percentage of children presenting normal weight (including also children underweight) at  
194 age 6 was 68.4% (28.9% of total number of children were underweight, data not shown).

195 **Table 2** presents OR and 99%CI for the associations between early-life risk factors and  
196 excess body weight in children at 6 years old for basic and fully adjusted models. In the  
197 fully adjustment models, children whose mothers were overweight (OR 1.91, 99%CI  
198 1.38-2.66) or obese (OR 2.20, 99%CI 1.41-3.42) were more likely to be overweight at  
199 age 6 than children whose mothers were normal weight/underweight. Similarly, children  
200 whose fathers were overweight (OR 2.10, 99%CI 1.59-3.00) or obese (OR 3.05, 99%CI  
201 2.00-4.64) were more likely to be overweight at age 6 than children whose fathers were  
202 normal weight/underweight. Roma children (OR 4.87, 99%CI 2.00-11.81) and children  
203 with Latin American background (OR 3.22, 99%CI 1.79-5.77) were more likely to be  
204 overweight or obese at age 6 compared with non-Roma Spanish children regardless of  
205 confounders. Children whose mothers reported to have smoked during pregnancy were  
206 more likely to be overweight/obese at age 6 than children whose mothers did not smoke

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207 during pregnancy (OR 1.59, 99%CI 1.03-2.43). Children who experienced rapid weight  
208 gain from birth to 6 months of age were more likely to be overweight/obese at 6 years old  
209 than children who did not experience rapid infant weight gain (OR 3.39, 99%CI 2.03,  
210 5.65). In the basic model, exclusive breastfeeding for 4 months was found to be associated  
211 with lower risk of being overweight/obese at 6 years old (OR 1.34, 99%CI 1.01-1.82).  
212 However, when adjusting for parental BMI, maternal education, maternal smoking during  
213 pregnancy and parental origin/ethnicity, this risk was reduced and it was no longer  
214 significant (OR 1.20, 99%CI 0.82-1.75).

215 **Table 3** shows the combined effect of all factors found statistically significant in previous  
216 fully adjusted models regarding children's excess of weight at 6 years old. The  
217 multivariable model included maternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, paternal BMI  $\geq 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Latin  
218 American or Roma origin, maternal smoking, not being exclusively breastfed during the  
219 first 4 months and rapid infant weight gain. After adjusting for sex, age, maternal and  
220 paternal education and every early-life risk factor, maternal BMI  $> 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> (OR 1.93,  
221 99%CI 1.27-2.78), paternal BMI  $> 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> (OR 2.08, 99%CI 1.06-2.51), Latin American  
222 origin/Spanish Roma (OR 3.20, 99%CI 1.60-6.39) and early rapid infant weight gain (OR  
223 2.09, 99%CI 1.54, 3.42) remained as significant predictors of overweight/obesity at age  
224 6.

225 **Table 4** shows OR and 99%CI for the associations between the number of early-life risk  
226 factors found statistically significant with overweight/obesity at age 6 based on previous  
227 analyses (maternal BMI  $\geq 25$ , paternal BMI  $\geq 25$ , Latin American or Roma origin, smoking  
228 during pregnancy, non-exclusive breastfeeding during the first 4 months and early  
229 postnatal rapid infant weight gain) and excess body weight in children at 2, 4 and 6 years  
230 old. A higher number of early-life risk factors was associated with higher odds of being  
231 overweight or obese at age 6, where OR increased with the number of early-life risk  
232 factors: two early-life risk factors (OR 2.72, 99%CI 1.54-3.42); three early-life risk  
233 factors (OR 5.02, 99%CI 2.28-11.04) and four to six early-life risk factors (OR 7.33,  
234 99%CI 3.01-17.84). No significant associations were found at age 2 or 4 years.

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238 **Discussion**

239 This study investigated both the impact of early-life risk factors on later overweight and  
240 obesity in Spanish children at 6 years old and their cumulative effect on the risk of  
241 becoming overweight/obese at 2, 4 and 6 years old.

242 Maternal BMI, paternal BMI, parental origin/ethnicity, maternal smoking during  
243 pregnancy and rapid infant weight gain were statistically significant independent factors  
244 of childhood overweight and obesity in our investigation after adjusting for confounding  
245 factors and these early-life risk factors had an accumulative effect on overweight and  
246 obesity in children who were aged 6 years old. Particularly, there was a 7-fold increase  
247 in the risk of being overweight or obese at age 6 for children who had 4 or more risk  
248 factors, compared with children who had none.

249 Parental BMI and parental origin/ethnicity also confounded many of the associations  
250 studied and were strong risk factors for childhood obesity, as other investigations have  
251 revealed (Parikka et al. 2015). Parental overweight and obesity could influence the risk  
252 of obesity in their descendants due to shared genes and environmental factors within  
253 families (Whitaker et al. 1997; Williams et al. 2017). The association between parental  
254 origin/ethnicity and childhood obesity could be due genetic and cultural diversity in  
255 minority groups and those related to SES could result in differences in Energy balance-  
256 related behaviours. These groups are at higher risk of adopting an unhealthy diet,  
257 insufficient physical activity and sedentary behaviours, explaining differences found in  
258 overweight and obesity prevalence among these groups. Minorities groups (particularly,  
259 Roma/gypsies and Latin Americans) are more exposed to more vulnerabilities possibly  
260 leading to inadequate adaptation in obesogenic environments characterized by low levels  
261 of physical activity, high energy density diets and a sedentary lifestyle compared with  
262 non-vulnerable groups (Iguacel et al. 2017). Maternal educational level was used as an  
263 indicator of socioeconomic status because several studies found maternal educational  
264 level to be a reliable determinant of children's dietary behaviour and childhood obesity  
265 (van Ansem et al. 2014).

266 Along with our results, consistent evidence has been shown in previous studies regarding  
267 smoking during pregnancy as a risk factor for childhood overweight/obesity (Oken et al.  
268 2008). Via intrauterine, exposure to smoke results in prenatal undernutrition. This  
269 nutritional deprivation may lead to increased nutrient achievement later and finally

1 270 postnatal obesity (Oken et al. 2008). The pooled estimate from unadjusted odds ratios  
2 271 was higher to the adjusted estimate, suggesting maternal education and parental  
3 272 origin/ethnicity between smokers and non-smokers explained just partly the association.  
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6 273 Previous meta-analyses have showed that due to permanent alterations in metabolism  
7 274 excessive gestational weight gain is significantly associated with childhood  
8 275 overweight/obesity (Mamun et al. 2014; Tie et al. 2014). However, we did not find  
9 276 statically significant associations between an excessive gestational weight gain and  
10 277 offspring overweight, even though associations pointed to the expected directions  
11 278 (Sridhar et al. 2014). Part of the risk of an excessive gestational weight of childhood  
12 279 overweigh has been related to maternal pre-pregnancy BMI (Samura et al. 2016). Our  
13 280 models were adjusted for maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, which may be the result of this  
14 281 lack of significance as other studies have stated (Samura et al. 2016).  
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17 282 Concerning gestational age, we did not find any statistically significant association  
18 283 between gestational age and childhood obesity. In the literature, there is mixed evidence  
19 284 on whether gestational age is linked or not with childhood overweight/obesity (Heppe et  
20 285 al. 2013). Arguably infants born preterm usually compensate by engaging in rapid infant  
21 286 weight gain in early-life and this ‘catch-up’ growth is associated with an increased risk  
22 287 of childhood obesity. Attending previous investigations therefore, this association could  
23 288 be explained mainly due to early postnatal rapid infant weight gain and not directly  
24 289 because of gestational age (Cho and Suh 2016) but such result in not shown in our  
25 290 analysis.  
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28 291 Low and high birth weight have been associated with subsequent childhood obesity  
29 292 through increased leptin levels after catch-up growth during childhood and programming  
30 293 for lean mass respectively (Danielzik et al. 2004; Jornayvaz et al. 2016). Maternal glucose  
31 294 levels during pregnancy could also explain the association between birthweight and  
32 295 offspring of obesity. In fact, an excess of fetal insulin, due to maternal hyperglycaemia,  
33 296 might work as a growth hormone for the fetus and can also alter the expression of  
34 297 hypothalamic neurotransmitter leading to an increase in the appetite and later obesity  
35 298 (Guillmann 2003). However, we did not find statically significant associations between  
36 299 high birth weight and future overweight in children. In our analysis, only one child  
37 300 weighted five kg and most children who were categorized as high birthweight weighted  
38 301 around four kg, which could partially explain the lack of significance. Despite this lack  
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302 of significance, results pointed to the expected directions and higher ORs in children who  
303 weighted more than 4 kg at birth were observed.

304 Birth by caesarean section has been implicated in the development of childhood obesity  
305 (Yuan et al. 2016). A recent meta-analysis has reported children born by caesarean section  
306 are at higher risk of developing obesity in childhood and this association remained  
307 significant after accounting for major confounding factors (Kuhle et al. 2015). Despite  
308 these findings, we could not find any statistically significant association between birth by  
309 caesarean section and childhood obesity.

310 Breastfeeding has yielded inconsistent results in the literature. Some studies have reported  
311 breastfed children have lower risk of childhood obesity than those who have not been  
312 breastfed (Yan et al. 2014) while others have stated that evidence from these studies could  
313 be influenced by confounding factors and therefore breastfeeding would not be likely to  
314 be a protective factor for childhood obesity (Lefebvre and John 2014). Our study found a  
315 raw effect between not being exclusively breastfeed in the first 4 months and future  
316 childhood overweight. Nevertheless, this effect disappeared when adjusting for maternal  
317 BMI, maternal smoking during pregnancy and education, suggesting protective effect of  
318 breastfeeding against childhood obesity could be due to confounding variables.

319 Early rapid infant weight gain has been reported to be a risk factor of childhood obesity  
320 (Ong and Loos 2006), which is in line with the results of our study. This factor had an  
321 independent effect on obesity risk at 6y and remained statically significant after adjusting  
322 for confounding factors and exclusive breastfeeding for at least 4 months. Specifically,  
323 rapid infant weight gain from birth to 6 months of age was the strongest predictor of later  
324 risk of childhood overweight/obesity in our study.

325 Finally, we examined the cumulative effect of early-life risk factors found statically  
326 significant in our study (maternal smoking during pregnancy, non-exclusive breast  
327 feeding during the first 4 months, rapid infant weight gain from birth to 6 months of age,  
328 maternal BMI >25, paternal BMI >25 and Latin American/Roma origin) in childhood  
329 overweight and obesity. Children who accumulated more risk factors had higher risk of  
330 being overweight/obese at age 6. Particularly, there was a 7-fold increase in the risk of  
331 overweight in children with 4 to 6 risk factors, 5-fold in children with 3 risk factors and  
332 2-fold in children with 2 risk factors compared with children who had no risk factors and  
333 after adjusting for sex, age and maternal education. However, these effects were not

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334 observed at 2 and 4 years old, suggesting this tendency seems to become more  
335 pronounced over time, which have been suggested in other studies.(Robinson et al. 2015;  
336 Salsberry and Reagan 2005). These results are likely due to the combination in a same  
337 subject of both expression of genetic predisposition and being more time exposed to  
338 obesogenic environments. Furthermore, we hypothesized that children who tend to  
339 accumulate more early-life risk factors are probably more subject to socioeconomic  
340 vulnerabilities for a longer period, which may explain increased prevalence of  
341 overweight/obesity in these groups over time. Health behaviours related to obesity such  
342 as physical activity, diet or sleep and mental health can worsen due to stressful events and  
343 household dysfunction that might characterize ethnic minority and low SES groups  
344 (Iguacel et al. 2017).

345 Some limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Firstly, the CALINA study is not  
346 representative of Spanish population since Aragon covered a limited geographic area  
347 within the country and results might not be extrapolated to the whole population. Another  
348 limitation is reliance on self-report measures for parents (parental weight-height and  
349 education). Moreover, a selection bias cannot be precluded as there were participants  
350 (mainly children whose parents were originally from Eastern European countries, Africa  
351 and Latin America and had lower parental education) who did not complete all  
352 information required or did not continue the study at follow-up. Furthermore, some very  
353 important confounding factors such as dietary intake, income and parity were not reported  
354 and thus results must be interpreted with caution. Finally, some associations were not  
355 found to be statically significant maybe due to the small size of some groups studied (i.e.  
356 in children who weighted more than 4 kg at birth). A special strength of the study is that  
357 to our knowledge, this is the first paper investigating early-life risk factors and their  
358 accumulative effect at 2, 4 and 6 years old using a Spanish cohort in a 6 years follow-up.  
359 The prospective collection of data on a wide range of risk factors extending from  
360 pregnancy through infancy and the ability to adjust for confounding factors are also  
361 strengths of this study.

### 362 *Conclusion*

363 Parental origin/ethnicity, parental overweight and obesity, smoking during pregnancy and  
364 rapid infant weight gain were important determinants of childhood overweight/obesity.  
365 All these risk factors have cumulative effects and tend to cluster in socially patterned

366 ways. However, these effects were not observed when children were 2 and 4 years,  
367 suggesting this tendency become more pronounced over time as children are more time  
368 exposed to these risk factors and the obesogenic environments. Therefore, the first year  
369 is critical for childhood obesity development, and its prevention. Strategies such as  
370 monitoring children with rapid infant weight gain, supporting attainment of a healthy  
371 parental weight and preventing smoking during pregnancy could be of importance for  
372 preventing childhood obesity.

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### 374 **Compliance with ethical standards**

### 375 **Conflict of interest**

376 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

377 **Research involving human participants** Ethical approval was obtained from the  
378 regional Committee of Ethics (Comité Ético de Investigación Clínica de Aragón,  
379 CEICA).

380 **Informed consent** Parents or legal guardians gave written informed consent for  
381 examinations for their children.

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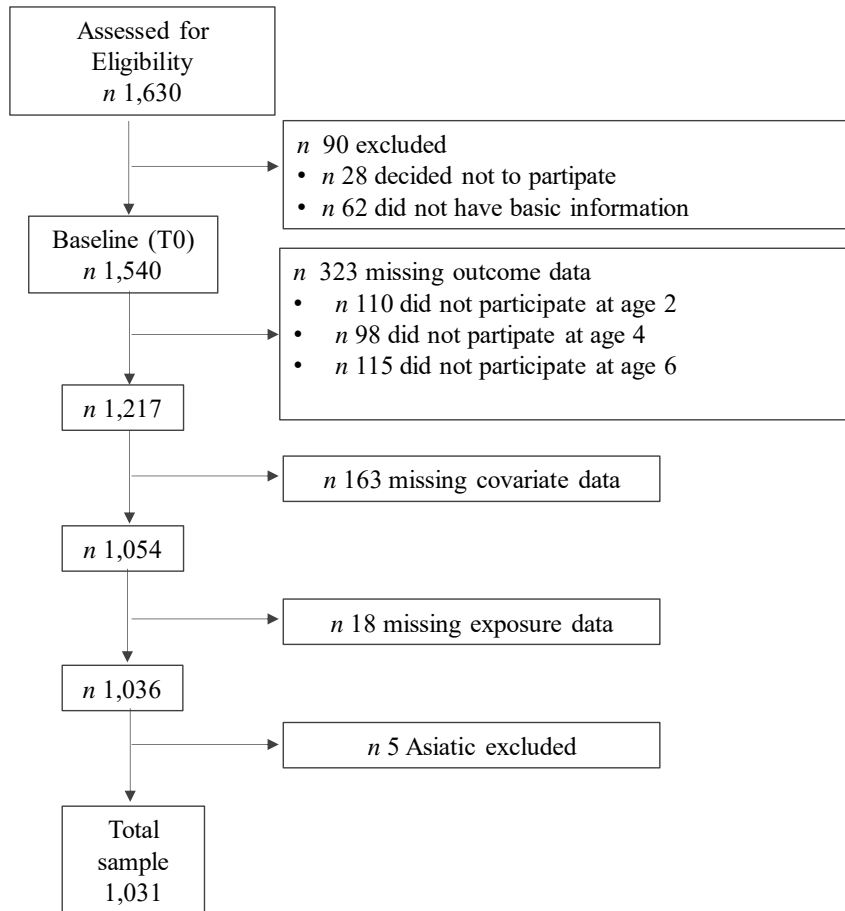
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**Figure 1.** Selection of the final study sample. Study population: children from different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain) examined from March 2009 to February 2010 and periodically re-examined 2, 4 and 6 years later.



**Table 1.** Descriptive characteristics of the study population stratified by children's weight status (underweight/normal vs overweight/obese) at last follow-up (6 years old). Study population: children from different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain) examined from March 2009 to February 2010 and periodically re-examined 2, 4 and 6 years later.

	N (%)	EXCESS BODY WEIGHT AT 6 YEARS OLD		P-value
		Underweight/normal weight (n 706) %	Overweight/obese (n 325) %	
<b>Categorical variables</b>	N (%)			
<b>Sex of the child</b>				
Male	555 (53.8%)	68.1	31.9	0.783
Female	476 (46.2%)	68.9	31.1	
<b>Maternal Education</b>				
Missing	10 (1.0%)	80.0	20.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Low	258 (25.1%)	58.1	41.9	
Medium	349 (33.9%)	71.3	28.7	
High	414 (40.2%)	72.2	27.8	
<b>Paternal Education</b>				
Missing	19 (1.9%)	73.7	26.3	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Low	534 (32.0%)	59.7	40.3	
Medium	431 (41.8%)	71.5	28.5	
High	251 (24.3%)	74.5	25.5	
<b>Maternal BMI</b>				
<25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	754 (73.1%)	72.8	27.2	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
25-<30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	534 (18.0%)	58.6	41.4	
≥30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	431 (8.8%)	52.7	47.3	
<b>Paternal BMI</b>				
<25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	412 (40.0%)	78.9	21.1	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
25-<30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	534 (45.8%)	63.8	36.2	
≥30 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	431 (14.3%)	54.4	45.6	
<b>Parental origin/Ethnicity</b>				
Spanish Roma (Gypsy)	29 (2.8%)	27.6	72.4	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Eastern European	40 (3.9%)	62.5	37.5	
Latin American	55 (5.3%)	47.3	52.7	
African	39 (3.8%)	69.2	30.8	
Non-gypsy Spaniard	868 (84.2%)	71.4	28.6	
<b>Maternal smoking during pregnancy</b>				
Yes	200 (19.4%)	59.0	41.0	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
No	831 (80.6%)	70.8	29.2	
<b>Gestational weight gain</b>				
Excessive	225 (21.8%)	63.1	36.9	<b>0.036</b>
Insufficient	456 (44.2%)	65.5	27.6	

Adequate	350 (33.9%)	66.9	33.1	
<b>Gestational age</b>				
<37 weeks	63 (6.1%)	72.9	27.1	0.413
37-42 weeks	968 (93.9%)	70.2	29.8	
<b>Birth weight</b>				
<2.5 kg	66 (6.4%)	68.2	31.8	0.247
2.5-<4 kg	918 (89.0%)	69.1	30.9	
≥4 kg	47 (4.6%)	57.4	42.6	
<b>Cesarean section</b>				
Yes	236 (22.9%)	70.8	29.2	0.508
No	795 (77.1%)	70.5	29.5	
<b>Exclusive breastfeeding<sup>c</sup></b>				
No	568 (55.1%)	65.4	34.5	<b>0.033</b>
Yes	463 (44.9%)	71.8	28.2	
<b>Rapid infant weight gain</b>				
Yes	307 (29.8%)	56.4	43.6	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
No	717 (70.2%)	74.5	25.5	

BMI, Body Mass Index; SD, Standard Deviation.

Statistical analyses were undertaken using t-Student (for continuous variables) and chi-square tests (for categorical variables).

<sup>a</sup> Exclusive breastfeeding was defined as giving breast milk at the only infant food source for at least 4 months with no other liquids or food given.

**Table 2.** Associations between early-life risk factors and excess body weight in children at 6 years old (reference: non-overweight).

Results from the binary logistic regression models: odds ratios (OR), 99% confidence intervals (CI) are shown. Study population: children from different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain) examined from March 2009 to February 2010 and periodically re-examined 2, 4 and 6 years later.

<b>EXCESS BODY WEIGHT (OVERWEIGHT AND OBESITY) AT 6 YEARS OLD</b>							
<i>Early-life risk factors</i>			<b>Raw OR<sup>a</sup></b>		<b>OR adjusted for confounding factors<sup>b</sup></b>		<b>Confounding factors</b>
	N	%	<b>OR<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>99% CI</b>	<b>OR<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>99% CI</b>	
<i>Parental origin/ethnicity</i>							
<i>Spanish Roma (gypsy)</i>	29	2.8	<b>6.83</b>	2.28-20.45	<b>4.87</b>	2.00-11.81	Maternal education, maternal BMI, breastfeeding, maternal smoking during pregnancy
<i>Eastern European</i>	40	3.9	1.51	0.64-3.60	1.44	0.69-2.98	
<i>Latin American</i>	55	5.3	<b>2.79</b>	1.35-5.76	<b>3.22</b>	<b>1.79-5.77</b>	
<i>African</i>	39	3.8	1.13	0.45-2.83	1.12	<b>0.52-2.40</b>	
<i>Non-gypsy Spaniard</i>	868	84.2	1.00	-	<b>1.00</b>		
<i>Maternal BMI</i>							
<i>Overweight</i>	186	18.0	<b>1.90</b>	1.22-2.95	<b>1.91</b>	1.38-2.66	Maternal education, ethnicity/origin, and maternal smoking during pregnancy
<i>Obese</i>	91	8.8	<b>2.41</b>	1.35-4.32	<b>2.20</b>	1.41-3.42	
<i>Normal weight/underweight</i>	754	73.1	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Paternal BMI</i>							
<i>Overweight</i>	472	45.8	<b>2.12</b>	1.43-3.16	<b>2.19</b>	1.59-3.00	Paternal education and ethnicity/origin
<i>Obese</i>	147	14.3	<b>3.12</b>	1.00-2.10	<b>3.05</b>	<b>2.00-4.64</b>	
<i>Normal weight/underweight</i>	412	40.0	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Maternal smoking during pregnancy</i>							
<i>Yes</i>	200	19.4	<b>1.68</b>	1.11-2.55	<b>1.59</b>	1.03-2.43	Maternal education and ethnicity/origin
<i>No</i>	831	80.6	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Gestational weight gain</i>							
<i>Excessive</i>	225	21.8	1.18	0.80-1.73	1.13	0.65-1.97	Maternal BMI, maternal smoking during pregnancy, maternal education, gestational age
<i>Insufficient</i>	456	44.2	0.77	0.51-1.15	0.76	0.51-1.14	

	<i>Adequate</i>	350	33.9	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Gestational age</i>								Maternal smoking during pregnancy and maternal education
	<i>&lt;37 weeks</i>	62	6.1	0.87	0.37-2.07	0.84	0.35-2.01	
	<i>≥37 weeks</i>	969	93.9	1.00	-	1.00	-	Maternal BMI and gestational weight gain
<i>Cesarean section</i>								
	<i>Yes</i>	227	21.0	0.99	0.61-1.59	0.85	0.52-1.40	
	<i>No</i>	804	78.0	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Birth weight</i>								Maternal smoking during pregnancy and maternal BMI
	<i>&lt;2.5 kg</i>	66	19.5	1.04	0.51-2.11	0.71	0.23-2.16	
	<i>≥4 kg</i>	47	7.4	1.65	0.75-3.62	1.27	0.47-3.47	
	<i>2.5-&lt;4 kg</i>	918	73.1	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Exclusive breastfeeding<sup>c</sup></i>								Ethnicity/origin, maternal education, maternal BMI, maternal smoking during pregnancy and breastfeeding
	<i>No</i>	463	45.0	<b>1.34</b>	1.01-1.82	1.20	0.82-1.75	
	<i>Yes</i>	568	55.0	1.00	-	1.00	-	
<i>Rapid infant weight gain</i>								Birth weight, breastfeeding, maternal BMI, paternal BMI, maternal education and ethnicity/origin
	<i>Yes</i>	217	21.1	<b>2.30</b>	1.54-3.47	<b>3.29</b>	2.00-5.41	
	<i>No</i>	814	78.9	1.00	-	1.00	-	

BMI, Body Mass Index; OR, Odds Ratio; CI, Confidence Interval

<sup>a</sup> All analyses were adjusted for sex and age at measurement.

<sup>b</sup> Analyses were additionally adjusted for the possible confounders of each factor.

<sup>c</sup> Exclusive breastfeeding was defined as giving maternal milk as the only infant food source with no other liquids or food given for at least four months.



**Table 3.** Associations between combined effects of early-life risk factors and excess body weight in children at 6 years old (reference: non-overweight).

Results from the binary logistic regression models: odds ratios (OR), 99% confidence intervals (CI) are shown.

Study population: children from different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain) examined from March 2009 to February 2010 and periodically re-examined 2, 4 and 6 years later.

<b>EXCESS BODY WEIGHT (OVERWEIGHT AND OBESITY) AT 6 YEARS OLD</b>			
	<b>M1<sup>a</sup></b>		
<b>Significant risk factors</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>99% CI</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Latin American or gypsy origin	<b>3.20</b>	1.60-6.39	<0.001
Maternal BMI $\geq$ 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	<b>1.93</b>	1.27-2.92	<0.001
Paternal BMI $\geq$ 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	<b>2.17</b>	1.44-3.28	<0.001
Maternal smoking	<b>1.61</b>	1.01-2.59	0.009
Non-exclusive breastfeeding <sup>b</sup>	1.16	0.79-1.71	0.309
Rapid infant weight gain	<b>2.29</b>	1.54-3.42	<0.001

BMI, Body Mass Index; OR, Odds Ratio; CI, Confidence Interval; M1, model 1.

Statistically significant results are shown in bold font.

<sup>a</sup> All analyses were adjusted for sex and age at measurement, maternal and paternal education and all early risk factors in the respective column.

<sup>b</sup> Exclusive breastfeeding was defined as giving maternal milk as the only infant food source with no other liquids or food given for at least four months.

**Table 4.** Association between the accumulation of early life risk factors and excess body weight in children aged 2, 4 and 6 years old (reference: non-overweight) for the three models \*. Results from the binary logistic regression models: odds ratios (OR) and 99% confidence intervals (CI) are shown. Study population: children from different localities in the region of Aragon (Spain) examined from March 2009 to February 2010 and periodically re-examined 2, 4 and 6 years later.

EXCESS BODY WEIGHT (OVERWEIGHT AND OBESITY) AT 6 YEARS OLD										
Number of early-life risk factors <sup>a</sup>	At 2 y <sup>b</sup>				At 4 y <sup>b</sup>			At 6 y <sup>b</sup>		
	N	OR	99% CI	P-value	OR	99% CI	P-value	OR	99% CI	P-value
4-6	99	0.92	0.29-2.86	0.852	1.39	0.53-3.67	0.378	<b>7.33</b>	3.01-17.84	<0.001
3	235	0.79	0.30-2.08	0.540	1.08	0.47-2.50	0.801	<b>5.02</b>	2.28-11.04	<0.001
2	325	1.40	0.58-3.39	0.322	1.23	0.56-2.72	0.488	<b>2.72</b>	1.26-5.88	0.001
1	265	0.73	0.28-1.87	0.390	0.85	0.37-1.93	0.603	0.97	0.42-2.23	0.920
0	107	1.00			1.00			1.00		

Statistically significant results are shown in bold font.

<sup>a</sup> The total number of early-life risk factors was calculated by adding up the numbers of early-life risk factors the child was exposed to: maternal smoking during pregnancy; not being exclusively breastfed during the first 4 months, rapid infant weight gain, maternal BMI >25 BMI, paternal BMI >25 BMI, and Latin American or gypsy origin. The total number of early-life risk factors ranged from 0 (the child had none of the early-life risk factors) to 6 (the child had all six early-life risk factors) and was divided into five categories (four to six risk factors, three risk factors, two risk factors, one risk factor and no risk factors).

<sup>b</sup> Models were adjusted for sex and age at measurement, maternal and paternal education.

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The authors' contributions were as follows: I. I carried out the statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript along with G. R., L. E., J. F.-A., I. L., I. I., L. A. M., G. R., and M. P. S., collected the data, supervised the data procedure and read and critically reviewed the manuscript.



## GENUD Research Group


Growth, Exercise, NUtrition and Development

**Universidad Zaragoza**

Dear Editor-in-chief,

Enclosed you will find a revision of our manuscript, **“Early-life risk factors and their cumulative effect as predictors of overweight in Spanish children”**. Changes in the manuscript have been highlighted using a red font.

This manuscript contains material that is original and not previously published in text or on the Internet, nor is it being considered elsewhere until a decision is made as to its acceptability by the International Journal of Public Health Editorial Review Board.



Isabel Iguacel Azorín

GENUD (Growth, Exercise, NUtrition and Development) Research Group, Faculty of Health Sciences; University of Zaragoza, Edificio del SAI, C/Pedro Cerbuna s/n, 50009 Zaragoza, Spain

**Editorial comments:**

Although statement on regional ethics committee approval for this study is provided, the full name of the regional ethics committee that approved the study should be provided in the manuscript.

**Answer:** Thank you. We have included in the manuscript the full name of the regional ethics committee:

“Ethical approval was obtained from the regional Committee of Ethics (Comité Ético de Investigación Clínica de Aragón, CEICA)”.

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