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Neurocognitive and Health Correlates of Overweight and Obesity among Ten- Year-Old Children Born Extremely Preterm

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Abstract

Objective—To assess the relationship between overweight (BMI percentile 25 and <95) and obesity (BMI ≥95 percentile) and developmental and health outcomes at 10 years of age in a cohort of individuals born extremely preterm (.

Study design—This was an observational cohort study of children born EP and then assessed at age 10 years for neurocognitive function and parent-reported behavior and health outcomes. Participants included 871 10-year-olds. To describe the strength of association between overweight or obesity and outcomes, we used logistic regression models adjusting for confounders. Neurocognitive function, academic achievement, parent-reported health outcome surveys, and height and weight were measured.

Results—BMI category at 10 years of age was not associated with differences in intelligence, language, or academic achievement. Parents of children with obesity were more likely to report their child had asthma (odds ratio (OR): 2.2; 95% confidence interval (CI): 1.4, 3.5), fair/poor

Data Statement Data will be made available on request.

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general health (OR: 3.2; 95% CI: 1.4, 7.5), and decreased physical function (OR: 1.7; 95% CI: 1.1, 2.9), but less likely to have physician diagnosed Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) (OR: 0.5; 95% CI: 0.3, 0.97) or an individualized education plan (IEP) (odds ratio: 0.6; 95% CI: 0.4, 0.99).

Conclusion—Among children born extremely preterm, an elevated BMI, compared with normal or low BMI, is not associated with a difference in neurocognitive function. However, asthma, fair/ poor general health, and decreased physical function were more prevalent among study participants with obesity, and ADHD and IEPs were less prevalent.

Keywords

overweight; obesity; extremely preterm; neurocognitive outcomes; asthma

Infants born extremely preterm () and infants with extremely low birth weight (ELBW) often exhibit growth delay during the first several postnatal months.^{1,2} As a result of more rapid growth in infancy, children born EP often attain weights similar to those of full-term normal birth weight peers.^{3,4} Children born EP who exhibit greater growth during infancy have better cognitive outcomes in childhood,^{5,6} but are also more likely to develop obesity.^{5,7,8}

Childhood obesity is associated with worse school performance^{7,9} and decreased cognitive functioning, $8,10,11$ outcomes for which preterm infants are already at high risk.^{12,13} A potential mechanism for this association is suggested by the observation that in preclinical models, overfeeding is associated with brain inflammation¹⁴ and neurocognitive impairment. 15,16 Another correlate of childhood obesity is asthma.5,17,18 Potential explanations for this association include overlapping environmental, developmental, and behavioral risk factors as well as obesity-induced immune dysregulation, contributing to asthma risk.¹⁹

Given the potential trade-offs associated with rapid infant weight gain after discharge from neonatal intensive care, it is important to know whether individuals born EP who become overweight or obese are more or less likely to have impaired cognitive functioning or other adverse outcomes. In this study, we evaluated the null hypothesis that in a cohort of children born EP, cognitive function does not differ for those children who are overweight or obese at 10 years of age, as compared with those who are healthy weight.

Methods

We evaluated a total of 1506 infants born before the 28th week of gestation and enrolled in the Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborn (ELGAN) study during the years 2002- 2004. The ELGAN study is a multi-center prospective, observational study of EP infants.²⁰ From the original ELGAN cohort, 1198 (80%) children survived to 10 years of age. Because the primary aim of this second phase of the ELGAN study involved relationships between inflammation and outcomes during childhood, 966 surviving members of the EGLAN cohort from whom we had collected blood spots during the first postnatal month for measurement of inflammation-related proteins were actively recruited for a second follow-up evaluation at 10 years of age between February 2012 and April 2015. Height and weight were obtained on 90% (n=871) of these children. These children are the subjects of this report.

Anthropometric data were unable to be collected on some children with severe cerebral palsy $(n=6)$, when home visits were conducted and a scale was unavailable $(n=5)$, or when parents did not consent for measurements (n=4). In three children, the reason for missing height and weight measurements was not recorded. Enrollment and consent procedures for this follow up study were approved by the institutional review boards of all participating institutions.

Maternal characteristics for this infant sample, including pre-pregnancy height and weight (converted to body mass index [BMI]), were self-reported within a few days of the delivery. Perinatal characteristics, including reason for preterm delivery, were obtained by maternal chart review shortly after the mother's discharge.

The birth weight Z-score is the number of standard deviations the infant's birth weight is above or below the median weight of infants at the same gestational age.^{21,22} Data reported by Yudkin et al were used for reference because this data set excluded infants born after pregnancies with growth-restricting conditions. Chronic lung disease (bronchopulmonary dysplasia) was defined as supplemental oxygen use at 36 weeks postmenstrual age. Patients discharged home on oxygen prior to 36 weeks postmenstrual age were included as having chronic lung disease.

Families willing to participate were scheduled for one visit during which all the measures reported here were administered. Although the child was tested, the parent or caregiver completed questionnaires regarding the child's medical status and behavior.

Anthropometric Data

Weight and height were obtained by study personnel. In order to obtain these measurements, all outer garments such as coats and shoes were removed. If children were unable to stand unsupported, either a wheel chair scale or the difference of the parent's weight plus child's weight and the parent's weight alone was utilized for weight measurements. As a substitute for height in these patients, the child's length was measured while lying down. BMI was then calculated using the following formula: BMI = Weight (in kilograms)/Height (in meters).² BMI Z-scores and percentiles for age and sex were then determined centrally by the study statistician, using the Statistical Analysis Software program based on current CDC growth charts.23,24

Neurocognitive measures

Neurocognitive ability was assessed with the School-Age Differential Ability Scales-II (DAS-II), Oral and Written Language Scales (OWLS), Developmental NEuroPSYchological Assessment-II (NEPSY-II), and the Wechsler Individual Achievement Test-III (WIAT-III). The Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory (PedsQL) Measurement Model is a modular approach that was used to measure health-related quality of life. Details on the specific subsets of these tests can be found in Appendix 1 (available at www.jpeds.com).

Statistical Analyses

We evaluated the null hypothesis that at age 10 years, neither a BMI percentile between 85 and just less than 95 (overweight) nor a 10-year BMI percentile of 95 or above (obese) is associated with any cognitive, executive, communication or social dysfunction, achievement limitation, or unfavorable parent-reported health outcome. The reference group used was children in this cohort with BMI percentile at 10 years <85. We began by assessing correlates of these BMI percentile groups, including the maternal demographics, pregnancy and newborn characteristics, and educational history at age 10 years.

To allow for the differences in age at the time of the assessment, and to facilitate a comparison of our findings to those reported for children presumably born very near term, we used Z-scores based on distributions of values reported for the historical normative samples that are described by the authors of the assessments we used.²⁵⁻²⁷ We created logistic regression models of the risk of a score one or more standard deviations below the normative mean of each assessment. These models, which included potential confounders (including infant's sex and birth weight Z-score <-1 , as well as maternal characteristics of Hispanic ethnicity, education 12 years, single marital status, and pre-pregnancy BMI <25 and 25 to <30), allowed us to calculate odds ratios (and 95% confidence intervals) of each 10-year characteristic associated with a BMI percentile between 85 and <95 or 95. Similar data analysis was also performed excluding children with BMI percentile <5 (underweight).

Results

The children not seen at 10-year follow-up were more likely than those assessed to have a mother who had less formal education, was not married, and was eligible for governmentprovided (public) health care insurance. The children who returned for the assessment were similar in the frequency of neonatal complications to those not evaluated at age 10, except that those who were assessed at age 10 were more likely to have had chronic lung disease than those not assessed (Table I; available at www.jpeds.com). There were few notable differences between those with BMI available at 10 years and those without measurements. (Table 2; available at www.jpeds.com).

Sample characteristics

A higher percentage of women who identified as Hispanic and, who at the time of delivery, were less than 21 years of age, had a child who was overweight or obese at 10-years (Table 3; available at www.jpeds.com). The higher the mother's pre-pregnancy BMI, and the higher the newborn's birth weight Z-score, the higher the prevalence of obesity.

Childhood neurodevelopmental outcomes

Cognitive—Children across the three categories of BMI percentiles had similar prevalences of low and very low scores on measures of IQ, academic achievement, language, working memory, and most indicators of executive function (Table 4 and Figure 1).

Health Outcomes—Children who were overweight had a lower prevalence of physiciandiagnosed Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) (OR: 0.5; 95% CI: 0.3, 0.97)

than normal or underweight peers, and those who were obese were less likely to be prescribed an ADHD medication (OR: 0.5; 95% CI: 0.3, 0.97) (Table 5 and Figure 2). Overweight children were also less likely to have an individual education plan (OR: 0.6; 95% CI: 0.4, 0.99). In contrast, children who were obese had a higher prevalence of an asthma diagnosis and were more likely than their peers to be prescribed a drug for asthma symptoms (OR: 2.2; 95% CI: 1.4, 3.5). Parents of children who were obese were also more likely than parents of healthy weight children to report that their child's quality of life was very low in the physical function domain (OR: 1.7; 95% CI: 1.1, 2.9) and that their child's general health was "fair" to "poor" as opposed to "good" or better (OR: 3.2; 95% CI: 1.4, 7.5). BMI groups did not differ in the number of school days missed for respiratory illness, surgery, or other illness.

Analyses excluding children with BMI below the fifth percentile—Only 34 children (3.9%) had a BMI percentile <5 (underweight). Analyses that excluded these underweight children produced findings similar to those of analyses involving the entire sample.

Discussion

In this cohort of 10-year-old children born extremely preterm, the health and neurodevelopmental outcomes of children who were overweight or obese were similar to those of peers with a healthy weight, except that children who were obese were more likely to have asthma, fair/poor general health, and decreased physical function, but were less likely to have ADHD or an IEP. The combined prevalence of overweight and obesity in this cohort of children born extremely preterm was 24%, lower than the 35% of children in the US, studied from 1999-2010.²⁸ Only 4% of the cohort was underweight $(5^{th} percentile).$

Epidemiologic studies of the relationship of obesity to cognitive function provide conflicting results. In a large population-based sample of school-aged children, overweight was associated with worse cognitive functioning.11 However, in another sample of school-aged children, drawn from the United States, Holland, and Australia, no association was found between BMI, modeled as a continuous variable, and cognitive function.²⁹ The current study adds that in a sample of infants born EP, there also does not appear to be a cross-sectional relationship between BMI and neurocognitive function at 10 years of age.

Our finding, that children born with EP who had obesity at 10 years of age were less likely to have been diagnosed with ADHD or have an IEP, is consistent with prior studies.³⁰ Both low birth weight and intrauterine growth restriction seen in infants born EP have been shown to be risk factors for ADHD.³¹⁻³³ Birth weight z-score was adjusted in our analysis, but interestingly, more recent research on the temporal relationship between obesity and ADHD would suggest that ADHD symptoms in childhood are an independent risk factor for obesity later in life.34,35 Similarly, our finding that children with obesity were more likely to have asthma is also congruent with previous studies in samples unselected for prematurity.^{18,36,37} Low birth weight has been associated with asthma, and excess body mass later in life may amplify the asthma risk.³⁸ The reason for the links between obesity and asthma remain obscure, but likely explanations for the link between obesity and asthma invoke

inflammatory phenomena (eg, with roles for adiponectin, 39 the gut microbiome, 40 or Th17 cells^{41}). Others have also reported an association between increasing child BMI and parents' perception of poor general health of their children.18,42,43

The strengths of this study include the relatively large and diverse sample of children whom were born EP and followed until age 10 years. We broadly assessed neurocognitive and academic function and controlled for many relevant confounders. The assessment was done by examiners who were unaware of the study objectives. The primary limitation of this study is that direct measures of health, such as pulmonary function testing, were not obtained. Parents fail to report physician-diagnosed asthma in about 25% of cases.⁴⁴ Obesity is associated with metabolic and cardiovascular complications, which were not assessed in this sample. In addition, the measure of adiposity fat that we used, ie, BMI, is a relatively crude measure of body fat, although the correlation of BMI and body fat in prepubertal children is high.^{45,46} This was also a cross-sectional study, and as such, did not assess timing of excess weight gain and how the timing may contribute to the presence of overweight/obesity and the described associated outcomes at 10 years.

Contrary to our hypothesis, children born extremely preterm who are overweight or obese at 10 years of age had similar neurocognitive skills and abilities as their peers with healthy weights. Despite a higher prevalence of parent-reported asthma, decreased physical functioning, and fair/poor general health among children who are obese in the ELGAN cohort, this study provides tentative reassurance that children born EP who then go on to be overweight or obese in childhood do not have worse neurocognitive outcomes than their healthy weight peers and in fact have a lower prevalence of ADHD.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

Acknowledgments available at www.jpeds.com (Appendix 2).

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Appendix 1 - Neurocognitive assessments

General cognitive ability (or IQ) was assessed with the School-Age Differential Ability Scales–II (DAS-II) Verbal and Nonverbal Reasoning scales.25 Expressive and receptive language skills were evaluated with the Oral and Written Language Scales (OWLS), which assess semantic, morphological, syntactic, and pragmatic production and comprehension of elaborated sentences.²⁶

Attention and executive function were assessed with both the $DAS-II²⁵$ and the NEPSY- II (A Developmental NEuroPSYchological Assessment-II).²⁷ The DAS-II Recall of Digits Backward and Recall of Sequential Order measured verbal working memory, while the

NEPSY-II Auditory Attention and Response Set measured auditory attention, set switching and inhibition, the NEPSY-II Inhibition and Inhibition Switching measured simple inhibition and inhibition in the context of set shifting, respectively, and the NEPSY-II Animal Sorting measured visual concept formation and set shifting.

Speed of processing was assessed with NEPSY-II Inhibition Naming, which provides a baseline measure of processing speed and has no inhibitory component. Visual perception and motor function were assessed with NEPSY-II Arrows and Geometric Puzzles & Visuomotor Precision and Fingertip Tapping respectively. Academic Function was assessed with The Wechsler Individual Achievement Test-III (WIAT-III [C]) which provides standard scores in word recognition and decoding, spelling, and numeric operations.⁴⁷

The Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory™ (PedsQL™) Measurement Model is a modular approach to measuring health-related quality of life (HRQOL) in healthy children and adolescents and those with acute and chronic health conditions. The PedsQL Measurement Model integrates seamlessly both generic core scales and disease- specific modules into one measurement system.48 The 23-item PedsQL Generic Core Scales were designed to measure the core dimensions of health: physical functioning (8 items), emotional functioning (5 items), social functioning (5 items), and school functioning (5 items). For ease of interpretability, items are reversed scored and linearly transformed to a 0-100 scale, so that higher scores indicate better HRQOL.

Appendix 2: Study Group Members

The authors gratefully acknowledge the contributions of their subjects, and their subjects' families, as well as those of their colleagues listed below.

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Figure 1.

Forest plots of odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals of a Z-score –1 on each DAS-II and NEPSY-II neurocognitive assessment at age 10 associated with BMI centile at 10 years 85 to $<$ 95 (left panel) and $\,$ 95 (right panel). The reference group is children from the same cohort with BMI centile at 10 years <85. Odds ratios are adjusted for maternal Hispanic ethnicity, education 12 years, single marital status, and pre-pregnancy BMI < 25 and 25 to < 30; and child's sex and birth weight Z-score < −1. Statistically significant items are bolded.

Figure 2.

Forest plots of odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals of several educational and health characteristics associated with BMI centile at 10 years 85 to < 95 (left panel) and $\frac{95}{2}$ (right panel). The reference group is children from the same cohort with BMI centile at 10 years <85. Odds ratios are adjusted for maternal Hispanic ethnicity, education 12 years, single marital status, and pre-pregnancy BMI < 25 and 25 to < 30; and child's sex and birth weight Z-score < −1. Statistically significant items are bolded.

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Table 1

online. Characteristics of children who were eligible for follow up (had some or all follow-up tests/examinations at 2 years) and were seen at 10 years and online. Characteristics of children who were eligible for follow up (had some or all follow-up tests/examinations at 2 years) and were seen at 10 years and those eligible for follow up but not seen at 10 years. These are column percents. those eligible for follow up but not seen at 10 years. These are column percents.

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 * Eligible at 10 years are the 1198 children who survived to 10-years Eligible at 10 years are the 1198 children who survived to 10-years **
Seen at 10 years are the 871 children for whom a BMI centile could be calculated (weight and height were collected). Seen at 10 years are the 871 children for whom a BMI centile could be calculated (weight and height were collected). $\rm \textit{W}$ Grades 3 and 4

 $\vec{r}_{\mbox{Yudkin standard}}$ Yudkin standard

 t^2 1000 × [(weight day 28 - weight day 7)/weight day 7]/21 $t^{\prime\prime}$ 1000 × [(weight day 28 - weight day 7)/weight day 7]/21

 $t_{\mbox{\scriptsize Stage}}$ IIIa, IIIb, or perforation $\stackrel{\star}{*}$ Stage IIIa, IIIb, or perforation

 $\sqrt[4]{t}$ Receiving O₂ at 36 weeks PCA ${}^{t}\!{\mathcal{L}}$ Receiving O₂ at 36 weeks PCA

Table 2

online. Characteristics of children who had and did not have measures of weight and height at 10 years. These are **column** percents.

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Table 3

online. Sample characteristics among children classified by BMI centile at 10 years. These are row percents. online. Sample characteristics among children classified by BMI centile at 10 years. These are row percents.

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Table 4

Distribution of intelligence, executive function, language, achievement test scores in each category of BMI centile at 10 years. These are column percents. Distribution of intelligence, executive function, language, achievement test scores in each category of BMI centile at 10 years. These are column percents.

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The percent of children classified by BMI centile at 10 years who also had the listed health or quality of life characteristics. These are column percents. The percent of children classified by BMI centile at 10 years who also had the listed health or quality of life characteristics. These are column percents.

* Gross motor function classification system Gross motor function classification system