Published in final edited form as: J Pediatr. 2021 September 01; 236: 86–94.e6. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2021.05.027.

Trajectories of systolic blood pressure in children: risk factors and cardiometabolic correlates

Wen Lun Yuan, PhDa,* , **Michael S Kramer, MD**b,c,d, **Navin Michael, PhD**e, **Suresh A** S adananthan, PhD^e, Mya T Tint, phD^{d,e}, Ling-Wei Chen, PhD^f, Wei Wei Pang, PhD^d, Sendhil S Velan, PhD^{e,g}, Keith M Godfrey, PhD^h, Yap-Seng Chong, MD^{d,e}, Mary FF Chong, PhD^{e,i}, **Jonathan TL Choo, MD**^j , **Lieng Hsi Ling, MD**k,l , **Johan G Eriksson, MD**d,e,m,n, **Yung Seng Lee, PhD**a,e,o

aDepartment of Paediatrics, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore

^bDepartment of Paediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, McGill University, Montreal, Canada

^cDepartment of Epidemiology, Biostatistics and Occupational Health, Faculty of Medicine, McGill University, Montreal, Canada

^dDepartment of Obstetrics & Gynaecology, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore

^eSingapore Institute for Clinical Sciences, Agency for Science, Technology, and Research (A*STAR), Singapore, Singapore

^fHRB Centre for Health and Diet Research, School of Public Health, Physiotherapy, and Sports Science, University College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland

^gSingapore Bioimaging Consortium, Agency for Science, Technology, and Research (A*STAR), Singapore, Singapore

hMedical Research Council Lifecourse Epidemiology Unit and National Institute for Health Research Southampton Biomedical Research Centre, University of Southampton and University Hospital, Southampton National Health Service Foundation Trust, Southampton, United Kingdom

ⁱSaw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore

^jKK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore, Singapore

^kDepartment of Medicine, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, Singapore

^lDepartment of Cardiology, National University Heart Centre, Singapore, Singapore

Reprint request: no reprint is requested

Address correspondence to:, Wen Lun Yuan, Department of Paediatrics, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, MD1-Tahir Foundation Building, Level 12, 12 Science Drive 2, Singapore, 117549, wenlun.yuan@inserm.fr.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures:

KMG has received reimbursement for speaking at conferences sponsored by companies selling nutritional products, and is part of an academic consortium that has received research funding from Abbott Nutrition, Nestec and Danone. The other authors declare no conflict of interest relevant to this article to disclose. The funder/sponsor did not participate in the work.

^mDepartment of General Practice and Primary Health Care, University of Helsinki and Helsinki University Hospital, Helsinki, Finland

ⁿFolkhälsan Research Center, Helsinki, Finland

^oKhoo Teck Puat-National University Children's Medical Institute, National University Hospital, National University Health System, Singapore, Singapore

Abstract

Objective—To identify systolic blood pressure (SBP) percentile trajectories in children and to describe the early-life risk factors and cardiometabolic correlates of those trajectories.

Study design—Using age-, sex-, and height-specific SBP percentiles based on the American Academy of Pediatrics reference, we examined SBP trajectories using latent class mixed models from ages 3 to 8y (n=844) from GUSTO-study, a Singaporean mother-offspring cohort study. We analyzed associations between SBP trajectories and early-life risk factors using multinomial logistic regression and differences across trajectories in cardiometabolic outcomes using multiple linear regressions.

Results—Children were classified into one of four SBP percentile trajectories: "low increasing" (15%), "high stable" (47%), "high decreasing" (20%), "low stable" (18%). Maternal hypertension during early pregnancy was a predictor of the "high stable" and "low increasing" SBP trajectories. Rapid child weight gain in the first 2y of life was only associated with the "high stable" trajectory. Compared with children in the "low stable" trajectory, children in the "high stable" SBP trajectory had higher BMI z-scores, sum of skinfold thicknesses, waist circumference from ages 3 to 8y and abdominal adipose tissue (mL) at 4.5y (adjusted mean difference [95%CI]: superficial and deep subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue: 115.2[48.1,182.3] and 85.5[35.2,135.8]). Their fat mass (kg) (1.3[0.6,2.0]), triglycerides levels (mmol/L) (0.10[0.02,0.18]), HOMA1-IR (0.28[0.11,0.46]) at age 6y were also higher but not their arterial thickness and stiffness.

Conclusion—Reducing maternal BP during pregnancy and infant weight gain in the first 2y of life might help to prevent the development of high SBP.

Keywords

latent class mixed model; adiposity; maternal hypertension; rapid weight gain; GUSTO

Introduction

Hypertension is the leading risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (CVD) and accounted for 44% of all non-communicable disease-related deaths globally in $2016¹$. Evidence suggests that the association between hypertension and CVD is stronger in Asians than in Caucasians⁶. Asians represent about half of the world's population and thus comprise a major CVD global burden. Studies in mid-childhood suggest that high BP tracks into adulthood⁷ and leads to adverse cardiometabolic outcomes^{8–11}. BP trajectory, i.e. BP changes over time, was previously described in overall¹² or by sex and ethnicity^{13, 14}. Different BP trajectories have been reported from mid-childhood to adulthood^{8, 9, 15, 16} but early childhood contribution in is lacking. One challenge in studying BP in childhood is its

spontaneous increase with growth as children age. In most studies tracking childhood BP, growth was either not controlled or only poorly controlled for. The American Association of Pediatrics (AAP) has incorporated height as a marker of body size, in addition to age and sex, when estimating BP percentiles²⁰. The resulting reference has been used globally for the diagnosis of elevated BP and hypertension (HTN) in children and adolescents.

Singapore is a multi-ethnic country comprising Chinese, Malay and Indian ethnic groups, who collectively represent 80% of the world's Asian population. Studying BP trajectories in this population could provide new insights into the development of hypertension in Asians. In the present study, we identify systolic BP (SBP) percentile trajectories in Singaporean children aged 3 to 8y. To further investigate the determinants and the health implications of the BP trajectories, we also examine the associations of pre-, peri- and postnatal risk factors with those trajectories and describe their correlations with several cardiometabolic outcomes.

Population and Methods

Study population

The Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) is a multi-ethnic mother-offspring cohort study. A detailed study description has been published previously²¹. Briefly, pregnant women aged 18y who attended their first-trimester ultrasound scan at one of Singapore's two major public maternity units (National University Hospital (NUH) or KK Women's and Children's hospital (KKH)) between 2009 and 2010, were recruited. Institutional review board approval for the study was granted by both the National Healthcare Group Domain Specific Review Board (reference D/09/21) and SingHealth Centralized Institutional Review Board (reference 2009/280/D). Informed written consent was obtained from the women for themselves and their child.

A study flow chart is shown in Figure 1 **online**. Children with at least three encounters with successful BP measurements from age 3 to 8y were used in the main analysis $(n=844)$.

Blood pressure measurement in children

From age 3 to 8y, BP was measured yearly by trained research staff using the DINAMAP CARESCAPE™ V100 (GE Healthcare, Milwaukee, WI), with an appropriate cuff size. The measurement was taken in a quiet environment from the right upper arm in a seated position, with legs uncrossed and the arm resting at heart level, after a five-minute rest. Two BP measurements were taken; if the second systolic or diastolic blood pressure differed from the first by >10 mmHg, a third measurement was taken. BP readings in moving or crying children were discarded. The two lowest BP readings were averaged and the highest BP was discarded to account for child anxiety.

Age-, sex-, and height-specific SBP percentiles were derived using the AAP BP reference¹⁷. DINAMAP devices have been reported to be inaccurate for measuring DBP in children^{22, 23}. Given that DBP has a weaker tendency to track than $SBP⁷$ and a lower predictive value for adult adverse health outcomes²⁴, we did not further analyse DBP measurements.

Pre- and perinatal characteristics

At the recruitment visit, maternal educational attainment, ethnicity, pre-pregnancy weight and household income were collected through interviewer-administered questionnaires. At 24 or 36 months, paternal height was measured and diagnosis for hypertension was self-reported. Offspring sex, birth weight, and maternal BP before 20 weeks' gestation were extracted from the maternity hospital record. Gestational age (GA) was calculated based on first trimester ultrasound scans or hospital record. Sex- and GA-specific birth weight z-scores were derived²⁵. Information on maternal pregnancy hypertensive disorders were collected from hospital records. From maternal BP before 20 weeks' gestation, mothers were classified as having normal BP (SBP<120 and DBP<80 mmHg), elevated BP (120 SBP 129 and DBP<80 mmHg), or HTN (130 SBP or 80 DBP mmHg). Maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) was calculated based on self-reported pre-pregnancy weight and the height measured at 26-28 weeks' gestation. The WHO classification for Asian populations was applied (underweight: <18.5; normal weight 18.5-22.9; overweight 23-24.9; and obese 25.0 kg/m^2).

At 26-28 weeks' gestation, maternal active smoking was defined as a plasma cotinine level 3.0 ng/mL 26 or self-reported active smoking in an interviewer-administered questionnaire. At the same clinic visit, a two-hour 75-g oral glucose tolerance test was performed in the mothers (further details in Appendix 1 **online**). Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) was defined using WHO 1999 definition.

Postnatal (before age 3y) child characteristics

Duration of any breastfeeding (exclusive or non-exclusive) was estimated through answers to interviewer-administered questionnaires at postnatal week three and at every threemonth interval from months 3 to 12. At 18 months, mothers responded to a validated self-administered and semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire²⁷ concerning their offspring's dietary intake during the past month. Subsequently, overall offspring dietary quality was assessed using the Diet Quality Index (DQI) (Appendix 1 online)²⁸. Rapid weight gain in the first 2y of life was defined as a change of \rightarrow +0.67SD (upward centile crossing through at least one of the growth charts centile bands) of age- and sex-specific weight z-scores at age 2y and birthweight z-scores.

Offspring cardiometabolic outcomes from ages 3 to 8y

From age 3 to 8y, anthropometric measurements were assessed yearly (detailed methods in Appendix 1 online). BMI age- and sex-specific z-scores were calculated based on the WHO standards and references^{29, 30}. The sum of the subscapular and triceps skinfold thicknesses (SST) was calculated. Besides the routinely performed anthropometric assessment of all the participating children, consents were obtained at different time points from families who agreed to participate in more in-depth phenotyping evaluation (magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), quantitative magnetic resonance (QMR), blood sampling, vascular assessment).At age 4.5y, an abdominal MRI was performed on a subsample of GUSTO children $(n \approx 300)^{31}$. Subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissue (SAT) and visceral adipose tissue (VAT) compartments were identified. SAT was further divided into deep subcutaneous adipose tissue (DSAT) and superficial subcutaneous adipose tissue (SSAT).

At age 6y, blood samples were collected after an overnight fast in a subsample of GUSTO children (n≈500). Venous plasma glucose, insulin, triglycerides, cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein, creatinine were measured (detailed methods in Appendix 1 online). The homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA1 IR) was calculated as the ratio of fasting insulin to fasting glucose divided by 22.5.

At age 6y, about 500 children participated to a non-invasive vascular assessment. Carotid intima media thickness (cIMT) and carotid femoral pulse wave velocity (cfPWV) were assessed (detailed methods in Appendix 1 online).

Statistical analysis

T-tests and chi-square tests were used to compare baseline characteristics of included and non-included participants (**Table 1**). Similarly, as abdominal MRI, QMR, blood tests and vascular assessments were available only in sub-populations, we discussed differences between participants with and without these measurements.

SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8y were identified using latent class mixed models $(LCMM)$ for non-Gaussian outcomes³³. Detailed method was described in Appendix 2 **online**.

Based on existing literature regarding potential determinants of childhood BP, we analysed associations of SBP trajectories with antenatal/perinatal maternal smoking status and environmental tobacco exposure during pregnancy, GDM, BMI before pregnancy, BP before 20 weeks' gestation, ethnicity, age at delivery, parity, educational attainment and household income at recruitment, study center, paternal self-reported hypertensive status and BMI at 24-36 months, child birthweight z-scores, child sex and postnatal factors (any breastfeeding duration, DQI at 18 months, rapid weight gain between birth and age 2y) using multinomial logistic regression.

Only 6% ($n=46$) of mothers in our study were diagnosed with pre-eclampsia, eclampsia or pregnancy induced hypertension. This low proportion was not adequate to study the association between child SBP trajectories with these hypertensive disorders. Instead, we performed a sensitivity analysis after removing mothers diagnosed for these hypertensive disorders. Apart from these hypertensive disorders, it has been suggested that elevated maternal BP overall during pregnancy, and especially in early pregnancy, might be a good predictor of offspring SBP34, 35. Hence, maternal BP before 20 weeks' gestation was included as for a risk predictor of child SBP trajectories.

In a sensitivity analysis, we assessed the influence of different periods of rapid child weight gain (0-6, 6-12, 12-24 and 24-36 months) on the SBP trajectories. Because rapid weight gain in children with lower birth size may lead to higher BP in mid-childhood^{36, 37}, we also tested interactions between birth weight and rapid weight gain on SBP trajectories.

To better understand the health implications of the SBP trajectories, we compared cardiometabolic outcomes measured repeatedly from 3 to 8y (BMI z-scores, SST, WC) or only at age 4.5 (DSAT, SSAT, VAT) or 6y (fat mass, blood lipids and glucose levels, HOMA1-IR, cIMT, cfPWV) across SBP trajectories identified from LCMM, using linear regression adjusted for a priori confounders based on prior knowledge (study center, child sex, household income, maternal characteristics (ethnicity, educational attainment, HTN, active smoking and tobacco exposure during pregnancy, GDM, BMI before pregnancy and parity) and paternal HTN and BMI at 24-36 months).

For logistic and linear regression models, missing values were assumed to be missing at random and handled using multiple imputations $(n=20)^{38}$ (except for outcomes). Among the 844 children, missing values were present in following variables breastfeeding (n=36), maternal educational attainment (n=6), household income (n=51), pre-pregnancy BMI $(n=51)$, GDM $(n=40)$, maternal HTN $(n=26)$, maternal active smoking $(n=91)$, tobacco exposure during pregnancy (n=40), paternal HTN (n=171) and BMI (n=90). Twenty independent datasets were generated using the Markov Chain Monte Carlo method. LCMM was performed using the package "lcmm" in R software³⁹ (version 3.4.3; R Core Team (2017). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL [https://www.R-project.org/.](https://www.R-project.org/)). Analyses were performed using SAS (version 9.4; SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA) and R software.

Results

Baseline characteristics of the included and non-included participants are summarized in Table 1. The ethnicity distribution was 57% Chinese, 26% Malay and 17% Indian. Mothers with a secondary education or below were 30% of mothers. One-fourth of mothers were classified as obese and two-thirds were normotensive in early pregnancy. Only 10% of the fathers reported having been diagnosed with hypertension. Compared with non-included children, the 844 included children were more likely to be boys (52% vs 45%), their mean birth weight was higher $(3.1\pm0.4\text{kg} \text{ vs } 3.0\pm0.5\text{kg})$ and they were breastfed for longer (42%) vs 53% were breastfed for three months or less). Mothers in the subsamples of children with QMR data and vascular assessment, had lower rate of hypertension than their counterparts (data not shown). Children with blood tests and abdominal MRI were more likely to have siblings compared with children without blood tests (data not shown).

SBP trajectories

Based on the AAP reference, four SBP percentile trajectories were identified (Figure 2): "low increasing" (comprising 15% of the children), "high stable" (47%), "high decreasing" (20%) and "low stable" (18%).

Early-life predictors of SBP trajectories

Non-adjusted and adjusted associations of pre-, peri- and postnatal risk factors with SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8y are shown in **Table 2 online & 3**, respectively. Compared with the unadjusted associations, those adjusted remained similar with reduced magnitude. We then described only the adjusted associations. Children of mothers classified

as hypertensive during their early pregnancy were more likely to be in the "low increasing" and "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory than in the "low stable" one. Children of smoking mothers during pregnancy were less likely to be in the "low increasing" SBP percentile trajectory. Children who underwent a rapid weight gain from birth to age 2y were more likely to be classified in the "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory. These associations remained for children in the "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory after removing mothers diagnosed with hypertensive disorders during pregnancy (**Table 4 online**). When considering narrower periods of rapid weight gain, only rapid weight gain in the first 6 months of life was associated with the "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory, although the magnitude of the association was higher between 12 to 24 months (OR[95% CI]: 1.66[1.07,2.58] from 0 to 6 months vs 1.08[0.50,2.35] from 6 to 12 months, 2.09[0.89,4.92] from 12 to 24 months and 1.47[0.63,3.43] from 24 to 36 months). No interactions were observed between birth weight and rapid weight gain during the studied age periods. No associations were observed between SBP trajectories and other pre-, peri- or postnatal factors.

Cardiometabolic outcomes across SBP trajectories between ages 3 to 8y

Comparisons of BMI z-scores, SST and WC across SBP trajectories from ages 3 to 8y are presented in Figure 3, 4 & 5 **online**. Children in the "high stable" SBP trajectory had higher BMI z-scores, SST and WC over time compared with children in the "low stable" one. Children in the "high decreasing" trajectory had also a higher BMI z-scores than children in the "low stable" trajectory. The magnitude of this difference remained stable over time and, lower than the one between children in the "high stable" and "low stable" trajectory. No differences in SST and little differences were observed in WC between children in the "high decreasing" trajectory and children in the "low stable" trajectory. Increasing differences in BMI z-scores, SST and WC were notable from 5y between children in the "low increasing" trajectory and children in the "low stable" one.

Comparisons of cardiometabolic outcomes across SBP trajectories at 4.5 and 6y are summarized in **Table 5**. Compared with children in the "low stable" SBP trajectory, children in the "high stable" SBP trajectory consistently had higher SSAT and DSAT at age 4.5y and fat mass at age 6y. Compared with children in the "low stable" SBP trajectory, children in the "high stable" SBP trajectory had higher fasting plasma glucose, insulin, HOMA1-IR and triglycerides at age 6y. Children in the "low increasing" trajectory had higher fasting plasma glucose and triglycerides at age 6y than children in the "low stable" trajectory. No differences in LDL cholesterol, total cholesterol, creatinine, hs-CRP, cIMT and cfPWV at age 6y were observed among the SBP trajectories.

Discussion

Nearly half of our GUSTO sample aged 3 to 8y was classified in a "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory. The two most prominent early-life predictors of being in the "high stable" SBP percentile trajectory were a mother with high BP during her early pregnancy and rapid postnatal weight gain from birth to age 2y, and particularly in the first 6 months of life. No associations with sociodemographic characteristics, breastfeeding and toddler's

Using the LCMM method, we identified four SBP percentile trajectories: low increasing" (15% of the children), "high stable" (47%), "high decreasing" (20%) and "low stable" (18%). Using a similar latent growth modelling approach, three previous studies have examined BP trajectories in children^{8, 9, 15, 40}. Two to four SBP trajectories have been identified in these studies. Only one previous study has adjusted for the child's height when analyzing latent BP trajectories¹⁵ and only one study included three-year-old children⁴⁰.

High maternal BP in early pregnancy was associated with the "high stable" and "high decreasing" SBP trajectories. Previous evidence has consistently shown that maternal BP during pregnancy, and particularly in the first trimester, is associated with higher offspring $BP^{34, 35}$. It has been suggested that higher maternal BP in early pregnancy could be a marker of maternal and placental maladaptation⁴¹, leading to fetal growth restriction and abnormal fetal vascular development that may subsequently affect childhood BP^{42} .

Consistent with previous studies, we found that rapid postnatal weight gain, particularly in the first 6 months of life, was associated with higher BP in childhood $36, 37, 43$. By contributing to greater adiposity at later ages, early rapid weight gain may lead to elevated BP^{44} .

Children in the "high stable" SBP trajectory had higher BMI z-scores, SST and WC from ages 3 to 8y but also more abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue at age 4.5y, higher fat mass, insulin resistance and triglycerides levels at age 6y compared with children in the "low stable" trajectory. These results are consistent with the robust association between elevated BP and overweight and obesity in children^{45, 46}. Compared with children in the "low stable" trajectory, children in the "high decreasing" trajectory had little to no differences in adiposity markers except for BMI z-scores. Children in the "high decreasing" trajectory had a slightly higher BMI z-scores than children in the "low stable" trajectory and the difference in their BMI z-scores remained stable over time. This could be protective of an increase in their blood pressure. Conversely, children in the "low increasing" SBP trajectory had a noteworthy increase in their BMI z-scores, SST and WC from 5y. It is plausible that these children encountered an early adiposity rebound contributing to an increasing blood pressure. Our cardiometabolic outcomes were measured concomitantly with BP. Hence, we cannot draw any firm conclusions on the temporal relationships and directionality of the observed associations. However, these findings provide some evidence that cardiometabolic outcomes and SBP are correlated over the same range of ages. Besides, from our post hoc analysis, other reported chronic health conditions (such as asthma or atopic symptoms) and their medications were not affecting our findings.

Our study has several other limitations. Globally, the AAP BP reference is often recommended for the interpretation of BP in children^{17, 19}. The AAP reference is based on BP values obtained by the auscultatory method, while BP was measured using an

Current BP references are descriptive, rather than prescriptive. That is, they describe the general population and use arbitrary cut off values to define hypertension, rather than being based on the risks of adverse health outcomes in childhood or adulthood. It is unclear, therefore, whether the distribution of BP should be similar in different populations. Finally, GUSTO children not included in our analysis were more often girls, were lighter at birth, breastfed for a shorter duration and had younger mothers. As these factors were not associated with SBP trajectories, selection bias is unlikely to have affected our findings. We cannot exclude selection bias of subjects in our analyses of abdominal MRI, QMR, blood tests and vascular assessment. Some of these sub-populations differed by either lower maternal hypertension rate during pregnancy or higher rate of primiparity which are associated with BP trajectories in our study. These differences might have reduced the magnitude of the observed associations in these sub-populations.

Our study is the first to explore latent BP trajectories from age 3y with a relatively large sample size. Unlike conventional models, latent growth modelling assumes that population is heterogeneous, and that multiple trajectories, rather than a single one, may better fit the entire population. Compared with studies using BP at a single time point to assess children's BP, we used longitudinal modelling. Owing to the inherent variability in BP, identifying a hypertensive child using BP measurement at a single time point is far from ideal. Our study is the first to use age-, height- and sex-specific SBP percentiles to monitor child BP, which better accounts for child growth. Finally, our findings are strengthened by the prospective design of our study and the comprehensive information collected on the participants' early-life predictors and later cardiometabolic status at multiples ages.

Conclusion

Our study adds to existing evidence that maternal blood pressure during pregnancy, child adiposity, and early childhood weight gain are all important contributors to children's blood pressure. Monitoring BP during pregnancy and infant weight gain might help prevent the development of later high BP. Because group-based approaches assign children to a latent group based on their highest estimated group-membership probability for each latent group, these latent classes should be considered as approximations of complex developmental patterns47. Further studies on BP trajectories are needed for an in-depth understanding of BP developmental patterns, using multiple approaches and particularly in Asians. As the GUSTO study is ongoing, cardiometabolic outcomes measured at later ages should help disentangle the implications of these SBP trajectories for later cardiometabolic health.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Funding/Support

This work was supported by the Singapore National Research Foundation under its Translational and Clinical Research (TCR) Flagship Programme and administered by the Singapore Ministry of Health's National Medical Research Council (NMRC) [Singapore - NMRC/TCR/004-NUS/2008, NMRC/TCR/012-NUHS/2014]; the Singapore Institute for Clinical Sciences, Agency for Science Technology and Research (A*STAR), Singapore; the UK Medical Research Council [MC_UU_12011/4 to KMG]; the National Institute for Health Research [NF-SI-0515-10042 to KMG] and Programme Early Nutrition eAcademy Southeast Asia([573651-EPP-1-2016-1-DE-EPPKA2-CBHE-JP to KMG].

Abbreviations

References

- [1]. WHO. Global Health Observatory (GHO) data. 2016
- [2]. Rosner B, Cook NR, Daniels S, Falkner B. Childhood blood pressure trends and risk factors for high blood pressure: the NHANES experience 1988-2008. Hypertension. 2013; 62 :247–54. [PubMed: 23856492]
- [3]. Liang YJ, Xi B, Hu YH, Wang C, Liu JT, Yan YK, et al. Trends in blood pressure and hypertension among Chinese children and adolescents: China Health and Nutrition Surveys 1991-2004. Blood Press. 2011; 20 :45–53. [PubMed: 21047169]
- [4]. Peters H, Whincup PH, Cook DG, Law C, Li L. Trends in blood pressure in 9 to 11-year-old children in the United Kingdom 1980-2008: the impact of obesity. J Hypertens. 2012; 30 :1708– 17. [PubMed: 22828085]
- [5]. Sharma AK, Metzger DL, Rodd CJ. Prevalence and Severity of High Blood Pressure Among Children Based on the 2017 American Academy of Pediatrics Guidelines. JAMA Pediatr. 2018; 172 :557–65. [PubMed: 29710187]
- [6]. Kario K, Wang JG. Could 130/80 mm Hg Be Adopted as the Diagnostic Threshold and Management Goal of Hypertension in Consideration of the Characteristics of Asian Populations? Hypertension. 2018; 71 :979–84. [PubMed: 29686008]
- [7]. Chen X, Wang Y. Tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adulthood: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis. Circulation. 2008; 117 :3171–80. [PubMed: 18559702]
- [8]. Theodore RF, Broadbent J, Nagin D, Ambler A, Hogan S, Ramrakha S, et al. Childhood to Early-Midlife Systolic Blood Pressure Trajectories: Early-Life Predictors, Effect Modifiers, and Adult Cardiovascular Outcomes. Hypertension. 2015; 66 :1108–15. [PubMed: 26558818]
- [9]. Hao G, Wang X, Treiber FA, Harshfield G, Kapuku G, Su S. Blood Pressure Trajectories From Childhood to Young Adulthood Associated With Cardiovascular Risk: Results From the 23 Year Longitudinal Georgia Stress and Heart Study. Hypertension. 2017; 69 :435–42. [PubMed: 28093467]
- [10]. Sarganas G, Schaffrath Rosario A, Niessner C, Woll A, Neuhauser HK. Tracking of Blood Pressure in Children and Adolescents in Germany in the Context of Risk Factors for Hypertension. Int J Hypertens. 2018; 2018 8429891 [PubMed: 30356390]
- [11]. Zhang T, Li S, Bazzano L, He J, Whelton P, Chen W. Trajectories of Childhood Blood Pressure and Adult Left Ventricular Hypertrophy: The Bogalusa Heart Study. Hypertension. 2018; 72 :93–101. [PubMed: 29785961]
- [12]. Wills AK, Lawlor DA, Matthews FE, Sayer AA, Bakra E, Ben-Shlomo Y, et al. Life course trajectories of systolic blood pressure using longitudinal data from eight UK cohorts. PLoS Med. 2011; 8 e1000440 [PubMed: 21695075]
- [13]. Wang X, Poole JC, Treiber FA, Harshfield GA, Hanevold CD, Snieder H. Ethnic and gender differences in ambulatory blood pressure trajectories: results from a 15-year longitudinal study in youth and young adults. Circulation. 2006; 114 :2780–7. [PubMed: 17130344]
- [14]. Dekkers JC, Snieder H, Van Den Oord EJ, Treiber FA. Moderators of blood pressure development from childhood to adulthood: a 10-year longitudinal study. J Pediatr. 2002; 141 :770–9. [PubMed: 12461492]
- [15]. Kagura J, Adair LS, Munthali RJ, Pettifor JM, Norris SA. Association Between Early Life Growth and Blood Pressure Trajectories in Black South African Children. Hypertension. 2016; 68 :1123–31. [PubMed: 27672027]
- [16]. Zheng W, Mu J, Chu C, Hu J, Yan Y, Ma Q, et al. Association of Blood Pressure Trajectories in Early Life with Subclinical Renal Damage in Middle Age. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2018; 29 :2835–46. [PubMed: 30420422]
- [17]. Flynn JT, Kaelber DC, Baker-Smith CM, Blowey D, Carroll AE, Daniels SR, et al. Clinical Practice Guideline for Screening and Management of High Blood Pressure in Children and Adolescents. Pediatrics. 2017; 140
- [18]. Harris KC, Benoit G, Dionne J, Feber J, Cloutier L, Zarnke KB, et al. Hypertension Canada's 2016 Canadian Hypertension Education Program Guidelines for Blood Pressure Measurement,

Diagnosis, and Assessment of Risk of Pediatric Hypertension. Can J Cardiol. 2016; 32 :589–97. [PubMed: 27118292]

- [19]. Lurbe E, Agabiti-Rosei E, Cruickshank JK, Dominiczak A, Erdine S, Hirth A, et al. 2016 European Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. J Hypertens. 2016; 34 :1887–920. [PubMed: 27467768]
- [20]. Rosner B, Cook N, Portman R, Daniels S, Falkner B. Determination of blood pressure percentiles in normal-weight children: some methodological issues. Am J Epidemiol. 2008; 167 :653–66. [PubMed: 18230679]
- [21]. Soh SE, Tint MT, Gluckman PD, Godfrey KM, Rifkin-Graboi A, Chan YH, et al. Cohort profile: Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) birth cohort study. Int J Epidemiol. 2014; 43 :1401–9. [PubMed: 23912809]
- [22]. Lee CG, Park HM, Shin HJ, Moon JS, Hong YM, Kim NS, et al. Validation study of the Dinamap ProCare 200 upper arm blood pressure monitor in children and adolescents. Korean J Pediatr. 2011; 54 :463–9. [PubMed: 22253643]
- [23]. Wong SN, Tz Sung RY, Leung LC. Validation of three oscillometric blood pressure devices against auscultatory mercury sphygmomanometer in children. Blood Press Monit. 2006; 11 :281– 91. [PubMed: 16932037]
- [24]. Sun SS, Grave GD, Siervogel RM, Pickoff AA, Arslanian SS, Daniels SR. Systolic blood pressure in childhood predicts hypertension and metabolic syndrome later in life. Pediatrics. 2007; 119 :237–46. [PubMed: 17272612]
- [25]. Mikolajczyk RT, Zhang J, Betran AP, Souza JP, Mori R, Gulmezoglu AM, et al. A global reference for fetal-weight and birthweight percentiles. Lancet. 2011; 377 :1855–61. [PubMed: 21621717]
- [26]. Benowitz NL, Bernert JT, Caraballo RS, Holiday DB, Wang J. Optimal serum cotinine levels for distinguishing cigarette smokers and nonsmokers within different racial/ethnic groups in the United States between 1999 and 2004. Am J Epidemiol. 2009; 169 :236–48. [PubMed: 19019851]
- [27]. Lim HX, Toh JY, Tan KH, Chong YS, Yap F, Godfrey KM, et al. Validation of a semiquantitative FFQ for 18-month-old toddlers: the Growing Up in Singapore Towards Healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) study. Public Health Nutr. 2019; 22 :1990–2000. [PubMed: 30940257]
- [28]. Chen LW, Fung SM, Fok D, Leong LP, Toh JY, Lim HX, et al. The Development and Evaluation of a Diet Quality Index for Asian Toddlers and Its Perinatal Correlates: The GUSTO Cohort Study. Nutrients. 2019; 11
- [29]. Group WHOMGRS. WHO Child Growth Standards based on length/height, weight and age. Acta Paediatr Suppl. 2006; 450 :76–85. [PubMed: 16817681]
- [30]. de Onis M, Onyango AW, Borghi E, Siyam A, Nishida C, Siekmann J. Development of a WHO growth reference for school-aged children and adolescents. Bull World Health Organ. 2007; 85 :660–7. [PubMed: 18026621]
- [31]. Sadananthan SA, Tint MT, Michael N, Aris IM, Loy SL, Lee KJ, et al. Association Between Early Life Weight Gain and Abdominal Fat Partitioning at 4.5 Years is Sex, Ethnicity, and Age Dependent. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2019; 27 :470–8. [PubMed: 30707510]
- [32]. Chen LW, Tint MT, Fortier MV, Aris IM, Shek LP, Tan KH, et al. Body composition measurement in young children using quantitative magnetic resonance: a comparison with air displacement plethysmography. Pediatr Obes. 2018; 13 :365–73. [PubMed: 29024557]
- [33]. Muthen B, Shedden K. Finite mixture modeling with mixture outcomes using the EM algorithm. Biometrics. 1999; 55 :463–9. [PubMed: 11318201]
- [34]. Miliku K, Bergen NE, Bakker H, Hofman A, Steegers EA, Gaillard R, et al. Associations of Maternal and Paternal Blood Pressure Patterns and Hypertensive Disorders during Pregnancy with Childhood Blood Pressure. J Am Heart Assoc. 2016; 5
- [35]. Staley JR, Bradley J, Silverwood RJ, Howe LD, Tilling K, Lawlor DA, et al. Associations of blood pressure in pregnancy with offspring blood pressure trajectories during childhood and adolescence: findings from a prospective study. J Am Heart Assoc. 2015; 4

- [36]. Taine M, Stengel B, Forhan A, Carles S, Botton J, Charles MA, et al. Rapid Early Growth May Modulate the Association Between Birth Weight and Blood Pressure at 5 Years in the EDEN Cohort Study. Hypertension. 2016; 68 :859–65. [PubMed: 27550918]
- [37]. Belfort MB, Rifas-Shiman SL, Rich-Edwards J, Kleinman KP, Gillman MW. Size at birth, infant growth, and blood pressure at three years of age. J Pediatr. 2007; 151 :670–4. [PubMed: 18035150]
- [38]. Graham JW, Olchowski AE, Gilreath TD. How Many Imputations are Really Needed? Some Practical Clarifications of Multiple Imputation Theory. Prevention Science. 2007; 8 :206–13. [PubMed: 17549635]
- [39]. Proust-Lima C, Philipps V, Liquet B. Estimation of Extended Mixed Models Using Latent Classes and Latent Processes: The R Package lcmm. Journal of Statistical Software. 2017; 78 :1–56.
- [40]. Lee JW, Kim N, Park B, Park H, Kim HS. Blood pressure trajectory modeling in childhood: birth-cohort study. Clin Hypertens. 2020; 26 2 [PubMed: 31956424]
- [41]. Redman CW, Sargent IL. Placental stress and pre-eclampsia: a revised view. Placenta. 2009; 30 (Suppl A) :S38–42. [PubMed: 19138798]
- [42]. Jaddoe VW, de Jonge LL, Hofman A, Franco OH, Steegers EA, Gaillard R. First trimester fetal growth restriction and cardiovascular risk factors in school age children: population based cohort study. BMJ. 2014; 348 g14 [PubMed: 24458585]
- [43]. Perng W, Rifas-Shiman SL, Kramer MS, Haugaard LK, Oken E, Gillman MW, et al. Early Weight Gain, Linear Growth, and Mid-Childhood Blood Pressure: A Prospective Study in Project Viva. Hypertension. 2016; 67 :301–8. [PubMed: 26644238]
- [44]. Kotsis V, Stabouli S, Papakatsika S, Rizos Z, Parati G. Mechanisms of obesity-induced hypertension. Hypertens Res. 2010; 33 :386–93. [PubMed: 20442753]
- [45]. Paradis G, Lambert M, O'Loughlin J, Lavallee C, Aubin J, Delvin E, et al. Blood pressure and adiposity in children and adolescents. Circulation. 2004; 110 :1832–8. [PubMed: 15381642]
- [46]. Huang RC, Burrows S, Mori TA, Oddy WH, Beilin LJ. Lifecourse Adiposity and Blood Pressure Between Birth and 17 Years Old. Am J Hypertens. 2015; 28 :1056–63. [PubMed: 25600223]
- [47]. Aris IM, Oken E. Childhood adiposity trajectories: discerning order amongst the chaos. Am J Clin Nutr. 2019; 110 :1049–50. [PubMed: 31504113]

Figure 1. Study flow chart

Figure 2.

Sex-, age- and height-specific SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8 years, results from LCMM. 95% confidence intervals are represented with shades. "High stable" SBP trajectory is represented by a dashed line, the "high decreasing" trajectory by a dotted line, the "low increasing" trajectory by a solid line and the "low stable" trajectory by a dotted-dashed line.

Figure 3.

Comparisons of age- and sex-specific BMI z-score (SD) across SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8 years (adjusted means difference [95%CI]).

Models were adjusted for study center, child sex, household income, maternal characteristics (ethnicity, educational attainment, HTN, active smoking and tobacco exposure during pregnancy, GDM, BMI before pregnancy and parity) and paternal HTN and BMI at 24-36 months. Abbreviations: LOW: low stable, HIGH: high stable, INC: low increasing, DEC: high decreasing.

Figure 4.

Comparisons of sum of skinfold thicknesses (mm) across SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8 years (adjusted means difference [95%CI]).

Models were adjusted for study center, child sex, household income, maternal characteristics (ethnicity, educational attainment, HTN, active smoking and tobacco exposure during pregnancy, GDM, BMI before pregnancy and parity) and paternal HTN and BMI at 24-36 months. Abbreviations: LOW: low stable, HIGH: high stable, INC: low increasing, DEC: high decreasing.

Figure 5.

Comparisons of waist circumference (cm) across SBP percentile trajectories from age 3 to 8 years (adjusted means difference [95%CI]).

Models were adjusted for study center, child sex, household income, maternal characteristics (ethnicity, educational attainment, HTN, active smoking and tobacco exposure during pregnancy, GDM, BMI before pregnancy and parity) and paternal HTN and BMI at 24-36 months. Abbreviations: LOW: low stable, HIGH: high stable, INC: low increasing, DEC: high decreasing.