

Adiposity, psychomotor and behaviour outcomes of children born after maternal bariatric surgery

Van De Maele, Karolien; Bogaerts, Annick; De Schepper, Jean; Probyn, Steven; Ceulemans, Dries; Guelinckx, Isabelle; Gies, Inge; Devlieger, Roland

Published in:
International Journal of Pediatric Obesity

DOI:
[10.1111/ijpo.12749](https://doi.org/10.1111/ijpo.12749)

Publication date:
2021

Document Version:
Accepted author manuscript

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):
Van De Maele, K., Bogaerts, A., De Schepper, J., Probyn, S., Ceulemans, D., Guelinckx, I., Gies, I., & Devlieger, R. (2021). Adiposity, psychomotor and behaviour outcomes of children born after maternal bariatric surgery. *International Journal of Pediatric Obesity*, 16(5), [e12749]. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijpo.12749>

Copyright

No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form, without the prior written permission of the author(s) or other rights holders to whom publication rights have been transferred, unless permitted by a license attached to the publication (a Creative Commons license or other), or unless exceptions to copyright law apply.

Take down policy

If you believe that this document infringes your copyright or other rights, please contact openaccess@vub.be, with details of the nature of the infringement. We will investigate the claim and if justified, we will take the appropriate steps.

Adiposity, psychomotor and behavior outcomes of children born after maternal bariatric surgery.

Karolien Van De Maele^{1,2,3}, Annick Bogaerts^{2,4}, Jean De Schepper¹, Steven Provyn⁵, Dries Ceulemans^{2,6}, Isabelle Guelinckx⁷, Inge Gies^{1,3} Roland Devlieger^{2,6}

Affiliations:

¹Pediatric Endocrinology, KidZ Health Castle, UZ Brussel, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Brussels, Belgium

²Research Unit Organ Systems, Department of Development and Regeneration, Catholic University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

³Research Unit GRON, Free University of Brussels, Jette, Belgium

⁴Centre for Research and Innovation in Care, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium

⁵Anatomical Research and Clinical Studies, Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB), Brussels, Belgium

⁶Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Hospital of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

⁷Department of Hydration & Health, Danone Research, Palaiseau, France

Address correspondence to: Roland Devlieger, MD, PhD - Research Unit Organ Systems - Department of Development and Regeneration. Catholic University of Leuven - Herestraat 49 - 3000 Leuven – Belgium. Tel: +32 16 34 42 00 - Fax: +32 16 34 42 05 - E-mail: Roland.Devlieger@uzleuven.be

Short title: Adiposity and behavior of children after maternal bariatric surgery.

Keywords: Maternal obesity, Pediatric obesity, Maternal bariatric surgery

24 **Abstract**

25 **Background:** Bariatric surgery before pregnancy can result in improved maternal fertility.
26 However, long-term data on the consequences at childhood age are currently lacking.

27 **Methods:** EFFECTOR is a prospective cohort study of children (aged 4 to 11 years) born to
28 mothers who underwent bariatric surgery (BS) before pregnancy (n= 36), controls with
29 overweight/obesity (OW/OB) matched on pre-pregnancy BMI (n=36) and normal weight
30 controls (NL) (n=35). We performed prospective collection of anthropometric data, data on
31 psychomotor development, school functioning and behavior (Strengths and Difficulties
32 Questionnaire (SDQ), Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL))

33 **Results:** The children born after bariatric surgery (BS) presented with the highest body weight
34 SDS (0.70 vs. 0.14 in OW/OB and -0.09 in NL; p=0.006).and BMI SDS (0.47 vs. -0.02 in
35 OW/OB and -0.42 in NL; p=0.01). A higher excess in body fat percentage and waist
36 circumference SDS were found in the BS group (5.7 vs. 1.4 in OW/OB and -0.1 in NL; p<0.001
37 and 0.61 vs. 0.16 in OW/OB and -0.15 in NL; p=0.04). The SDQ questionnaires revealed a
38 higher amount of overall problems in the BS offspring (11.1 vs. 7.5 in OW/OB and 8.1 in NL;
39 p = 0.03), with a higher Externalizing score at the CBCL (52.0 vs. 44.2 in OW/OB and 47.0 in
40 NL; p=0.03).

41 **Conclusion:** Maternal bariatric surgery does not appear to protect the offspring for childhood
42 overweight and obesity. Parents reported more behavior problems in these children, especially
43 externally of nature.

44

45 **Main manuscript**

46 **Introduction**

47 Current health care approaches fail to put a stop to the rising prevalence of overweight and
48 obesity, causing a pandemic in all age groups of society.¹ Since the WHO reports a worldwide
49 prevalence of 18% of overweight or obesity in children aged 5 to 19 years and this problem is
50 likely to persist into adulthood, the prevention of childhood obesity is crucial for future
51 generations.²⁻⁴

52 Maternal obesity during pregnancy is a known risk factor for childhood obesity and behavioral
53 problems.⁵⁻¹² It also increases the risk for fetal macrosomia, large-for-gestational-age infants
54 and pregnancy complications.^{6,13} Lifestyle-interventions during pregnancy do not always result
55 in sustainable weight loss nor improved neonatal outcomes.¹⁴ Therefore, bariatric surgery
56 before pregnancy has gained some more popularity since this can offer advantages for both
57 mother and child.¹⁵ However, certain birth and neonatal risks have been reported; such as a
58 higher prevalence of growth retardation in utero, congenital abnormalities, and premature
59 delivery.¹⁵

60 A substantial hiatus in the current literature is the lack of long-term outcomes in the offspring
61 of mothers who underwent bariatric surgery before pregnancy. The scarce available data is
62 heterogeneous and the focus has mainly been on short-term neonatal outcomes.^{16,17}

63 In order to counsel our patients in a correct way, we urgently need data on the long-term effects
64 of the surgery techniques that are currently used.¹⁸ In this study, we prospectively studied
65 growth and development of the offspring of mothers who underwent bariatric surgery before
66 pregnancy and compared them to the offspring of controls with a comparable pre-pregnancy
67 BMI and normal weight controls.

68 **Methods**

69 **Study design**

70 The EFFECTOR-study is a **prospective cohort study** of the offspring of different maternal
71 cohort studies.(16) (Figure 1) The study obtained approval from the Ethics Committee UZ
72 Brussels and the Ethics Committee UZ Leuven/KU Leuven and was registered at
73 ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT02992106). A written informed consent was obtained from the parents
74 and each child received age-adjusted information through an assent. A total of 143 children
75 were included between June 2017 and March 2019. Overall participation rate of 48.6%
76 (143/294) was reached due to a large amount of lost-to-follow-up (107/294; because of missing
77 or changed contact details). The participation rate of parents who were actually reached was
78 76.5% (143/187). (Figure 2) The maternal and neonatal characteristics across the included
79 subjects and the ones that were lost-to-follow-up or refused to participate were comparable.

80 In total, 36 children born after maternal bariatric surgery (n= 36) could be studied (BS group).
81 Outcome data in these children were compared with two control groups: offspring of mothers
82 who had overweight or obesity (BMI \geq 25 kg/m²) at the start of pregnancy (n=71) (OW/OB
83 group) and offspring of mothers who had a normal BMI (BMI \geq 18.5 and \leq 25 kg/m²) at the
84 start of pregnancy (n=36) (NL group). In the latter group, we excluded one child from the
85 analysis because the parents did not complete the questionnaires. In order to have the best
86 matching control group regarding degree of obesity of the mother before and during pregnancy,
87 we selected the best 36 matching subjects in the OW/OB control group based on pre-pregnancy
88 maternal BMI and gender of the children (paired matching).

89 **Studied outcomes**

90 Maternal and neonatal data were used as secondary analysis from the originating, prospective
91 studies in the past.¹⁹ Standardized definitions were used for the outcomes and comorbidities.

92 The follow-up data were prospectively collected during a single home visit, which was
93 performed by the same trained pediatric physician. All anthropometric measurements were
94 performed according to the “International society for the advancement of kinanthropometry”.
95 ²⁰ BMI was calculated and expressed as SD score according to the national reference data. ²¹
96 Additional data were collected through parental questionnaires. A questionnaire on socio-
97 demographic characteristics and developmental milestones was specifically designed for the
98 study. The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and the Child Behavior Checklist
99 (CBCL) were used to screen for psychopathology. ^{22,23} The parental version of the Pediatric
100 Quality of Life Inventory (PEDS QL) was used to assess the quality of life. ²⁴ Age-specific and
101 standardized scores were used where applicable.

102 **Statistical analyses**

103 All statistical analysis were performed using SPSS version 25. Descriptive statistics were used
104 to describe the population characteristics according to the different subgroups. For continuous
105 variables, after testing for normality, one-way ANOVA tests with post-hoc testing were used
106 to investigate differences across the groups. Data are presented as mean \pm standard deviation.
107 Chi-Square tests were used for the comparison of categorical variables. Data are presented as
108 proportions. Additional Pearson Correlation as well as ANCOVA tests were performed.
109 Factorial ANOVA analyses were conducted on the main adiposity outcomes including a set of
110 confounders. The set of confounders consisted of the age of the children, maternal pre-
111 pregnancy BMI, the birth weight SDS, the original maternal cohort, the gender of the child,
112 maternal smoking behavior and maternal education level. These variables were chosen because
113 all of them have a known influence on the adiposity in children. **The F-ratio was reported as**
114 **indication for the goodness of fit of the model.** P values below 0.05 were considered statistically
115 significant.

116 **Results**

117 1. Maternal characteristics during pregnancy (Table1)

118 Despite having a comparable age, there were more nulliparous women in the normal weight
119 control group (NL) ($p=0.05$). There was no difference in the pre-pregnancy BMI of the women
120 after bariatric surgery (BS) compared to the women of the control group with
121 overweight/obesity (OW/OB) ($p=0.10$). The mean interval between surgery and pregnancy was
122 almost 4 years (mean 47.4 months; ranging from 2 to 113 months); 8/36 (22.2%) got pregnant
123 within the first year after the weight-loss procedure. The majority of the women underwent a
124 Gastric Bypass Surgery ($n=24$; 66.7%), the others underwent a LABG ($n=10$; 27.8%) or a
125 Scopinaro Procedure ($n=2$; 5.6%). **The difference in maternal BMI (pre-surgery to pre-**
126 **pregnancy) was comparable in all studied BS women.**

127 In the BS group, 21/36 (58.3%) women had GWG above the recommended 9 kg and a
128 significant higher percentage of BS women smoked during pregnancy (27.8% vs. 8.3% in
129 OW/OB and 8.6% in NL; $p=0.03$). On the other hand, more women in the OW/OB group had
130 arterial hypertension during pregnancy (38.9% vs. 19.4% in BS and 2.9% in NL; $p=0.001$).

131 2. Neonatal characteristics at birth (Table 1)

132 Mean gestational age at the moment of delivery and gender distribution was not different
133 between the groups. The BS neonates had the lowest birth weight SD score (-0.26 vs. 0.34 in
134 OW/OB and -0.09 in NL; $p=0.04$) and smallest birth height SD score (-0.18 vs. 0.36 in OW/OB
135 and 0.04 in NL; $p=0.04$). The prevalence of SGA after bariatric surgery and LGA in the OW/OB
136 control group were higher, however both not significant ($p = 0.13$ and $p = 0.08$). The prevalence
137 of macrosomia was highest in the OW/OB group (22.2% vs. 8.3% in BS and 2.9% in NL;
138 $p=0.03$). In the OW/OB group, there was one infant who presented with a congenital
139 abnormality (toxoplasmosis seroconversion during pregnancy with asymptomatic

140 ventriculomegaly). The percentage of women who initiated breastfeeding after childbirth was
141 the lowest in the BS group (41.7% vs. 66.7% in OW/OB and 91.4% in NL; $p < 0.001$).

142 3. Anthropometric measurements at follow-up (Table 2)

143 Because of the difference in recruitment period of the original maternal participants (Figure 1),
144 the BS children were significantly younger than the children of the other two groups (resp.
145 mean age 6.5 years vs. 10.8 years and 10.5 years) ($p < 0.001$).

146 The children in the BS group presented with the highest body weight and BMI SD scores (0.70
147 vs. 0.14 in OB and -0.09 in NL; $p = 0.006$ and 0.47 vs. -0.02 in OW/OB and -0.42 in NL; $p = 0.01$).
148 Weight SD did not correlate with birth weight SD ($R = 0.053$, $p = 0.59$). BS children showed the
149 highest relative weight gain, expressed as current body weight SD - birth weight SD. (0.97 vs.
150 -0.19 in OW/OB and 0.01 in NL; $p = 0.001$) (data not shown). The offspring of the BS group
151 also presented with the highest excess fat percentage and waist SD scores (5.7 vs. 1.4 in OW/OB
152 and -0.1 in NL; $p < 0.001$ and 0.61 vs. 0.16 in OB and -0.15 in NL; $p = 0.04$).

153 In order to explore the influence of maternal education level and smoking behavior on these
154 differences, regression analysis with variance analysis were performed. Maternal smoking
155 could be present or absent and the maternal education consisted of two levels (high school level
156 or higher). These only showed a significant effect on the excess of fat percentage measured by
157 BIA at childhood age. All effects were statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The main effect
158 for maternal smoking yielded an F ratio of $F(1,84) = 6.48$; $p = 0.01$ and the main effect for
159 maternal education level yielded an F ratio of $F(1,84) = 4.56$; $p = 0.04$. The interaction effect was
160 not significant $F(1,84) = 1.53$; $p = 0.22$.

161 4. Development and behavior (Table 3)

162 The lowest levels of education in both parents were observed in the BS group. There was a
163 trend towards a more frequently delayed milestones attainment in the offspring after BS (18.7%

164 vs. 8.8% in OW/OB and 6.1% in NL; $p = 0.23$) while no difference in attending special
165 education or repeating of a class were observed between the groups. The parents in all groups
166 reported a comparable amount of behavior or mental health problems in their children.

167 Analysis of the Strengths and Difficulties questionnaires revealed a higher amount of overall
168 problems in the BS group (11.1 vs. 7.5 in OW/OB and 8.1 in NL; $p = 0.03$). The overall problem
169 score ($p=0.1$) and the internalizing problems scale ($p=0.42$) at the CBCL did not differ across
170 the groups. However, the Externalizing score of the CBCL was the highest in the BS group
171 (52.0 vs. 44.2 in OW/OB and 47.0 in NL; $p=0.03$). The quality of life, questioned through the
172 PEDS-QL questionnaire, was comparable in all children ($p=0.50$).

173 **Discussion**

174 This study represents the first controlled long-term follow-up of children born after maternal
175 bariatric surgery. While these children have the lowest weight and BMI SD scores at birth, they
176 have the highest adiposity parameters at school age. Despite a comparable school career, their
177 parents reported more behavior problems, especially externally of nature. Maternal bariatric
178 surgery therefore does not appear to improve long-term outcome in the children.

179 Maternal and neonatal differences

180 Most differences found in the maternal characteristics during pregnancy are easily explained
181 by the nature of the recruited cohorts. The pre-pregnancy BMI is indeed a discriminatory
182 variable. As expected, GWG was inversely related to the maternal BMI at the start of
183 pregnancy.²⁵

184 Despite a similar age at inclusion, there were more nulliparous women in the normal weight
185 controls. Parity is a known risk factor for obesity and could therefore have contributed to the
186 overrepresentation in both the OW/OB and BS group. The women included in the normal
187 weight group were not matched for parity to the women with obesity. The exclusion criteria of

188 the original study also account for the absence of women with GDM in the group of women
189 with overweight/obesity.²⁶ Parity and GDM differences between the groups might have
190 influenced the adiposity outcomes at neonatal and childhood age.

191 The prevalence of arterial hypertension, a risk factor for decreased birth weight, was as expected
192 higher in the subgroup of women with overweight and obesity^{13,27}, explaining in part the lower
193 prevalence of LGA infants than expected in this OW/OB group.

194 Children born after bariatric surgery, presented with the smallest weight and length SDS at
195 birth. Although not significant, a tendency towards a higher prevalence of SGA after bariatric
196 surgery and LGA in the control group with overweight/obesity was observed, in line with
197 previous studies.^{13,15}

198 The higher prevalence of smoking in the group after bariatric surgery fits with the increase in
199 substance use seen after bariatric surgery and lower education level.²⁸ It has been suggested
200 that this group of patients are vulnerable to the transfer of “food addiction” to other addictive
201 behavior after the surgical procedure.^{29,30}

202 The rates of breastfeeding initiation were the lowest in women who underwent bariatric surgery.
203 We know that a higher pre-pregnancy BMI is associated with a decreased breastfeeding
204 intention and initiation due to a combination of anatomical, sociocultural and psychological
205 factors.³¹⁻³³

206 Childhood anthropometry and adiposity

207 The age difference at evaluation between the groups is an inevitable consequence of the timing
208 of recruitment in the original cohorts. We included the children in chronologic order, starting
209 with the oldest. Age related SD-scores for the anthropometric and behavior measurements were
210 therefore used.

211 In our study, children born after bariatric surgery had the highest body weight and BMI SD
212 scores at evaluation. In contrast, a Canadian study previously reported a decreased prevalence
213 of childhood obesity after maternal bariatric surgery ^{16,34}, however using a different design, by
214 using siblings as controls. The mean maternal pre-pregnancy BMI in these studied children
215 decreased respectively from 46.5 to 30.6 kg/m² and from 48.0 to 31.0 kg/m². ^{16,34}Therefore, the
216 reported decrease in prevalence of childhood obesity after maternal BS might be explained by
217 a dose-response association between the maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and the risk on childhood
218 obesity. ⁷ In our BS group, the mean BMI before surgery was 43.0 kg/m² and declined to 29.5
219 kg/m² before pregnancy. The research group from Karolinska University in Stockholm,
220 Sweden, used register data on childhood BMI before and after bariatric surgery with partly
221 sibling controls. ³⁵ They could not find a decrease in the prevalence of childhood obesity,
222 moreover reported an increased risk for obesity in 10-year old girls of which a larger proportion
223 was born SGA. ³⁵ Subsequently, we also found the highest gain in SD score for weight in the
224 SGA subgroup (data not shown). Therefore, a probable predisposition for an early adiposity
225 rebound following their smaller birth weight and length might also play a role. ^{36,37}

226 Childhood behavior

227 Overall, milestones achievement, the children's educational level and reported repeats of a class
228 are comparable across the groups. In all the groups, parents reported pathologies associated
229 with an impact on neurologic or psychosocial functioning of the children. These figures are
230 comparable with the prevalence of mental disorders at childhood age. ³⁸

231 Despite the comparable education attendance, some differences appeared in the behavior
232 questionnaires. After bariatric surgery, the overall problem score in the children was higher
233 compared to their peers in the two control groups. The results of the CBCL revealed more
234 externalizing problems in this group of children, meaning parents observed more aggressive
235 and rule-breaking behavior. The behavior in this group of children remains understudied until

236 now, so caution is needed when interpreting these results. An association between maternal
237 obesity during pregnancy and behavioral difficulties in their offspring has been reported by
238 recent studies respectively at the age of 4, 5, 7 and 9-11 years old.^{8-11,39} A longitudinal
239 American study showed higher externalizing behavior in boys at the age of 9-11 years when
240 the mother had a higher pre-pregnancy weight.³⁹ Similar increase in externalizing problems has
241 been reported by other authors as well.^{10,40} However, based on our own cross-sectional results,
242 we have no proof for causality. We did find that the mothers of the BS group had a lower
243 education level compared to the others. This might also contribute since a lower maternal
244 education level correlates with behavior problems in her children.⁴¹

245 All of the above findings regarding the anthropometrics and behavior outcomes in the group of
246 children after bariatric surgery makes us think about the role of bariatric surgery before
247 pregnancy. The offspring of the normal weight control group still have the most favorable
248 growth and development profile. It seems as if the bariatric surgery cannot undo all ‘evil’ since
249 it does not tackle the multifactorial causes of obesity. Therefore, clinicians should always
250 outweigh the benefits for the pregnancy to the possible adverse effects for the children on the
251 longer run before performing bariatric surgery. **Emphasis should be made on performing pre-**
252 **conceptual counselling before surgery, improving the lifestyle of women after bariatric surgery**
253 **and giving advice to postpone a pregnancy until two years after surgery. In addition, future**
254 **research and clinical practice should aim to provide a regular, prospective follow-up for body**
255 **composition and psychomotor development of children born after maternal pre-pregnancy**
256 **bariatric surgery.**

257 Strengths

258 This is the first study to show that, although bariatric surgery seems to improve neonatal
259 outcomes, long-term childhood outcomes might be worse. The strength of the study is its
260 pioneering nature, since there is no other long-term data available compared to matched cases

261 with overweight/obesity and cases with normal weight. The number of children in each group
262 is satisfactory, taken into account that all data was collected in a standardized manner during a
263 home visit and there is an average difference of 10 years between the original and follow-up
264 study.

265 Limitations

266 The age difference across the groups is the most limiting factor of our current study. With the
267 use of SD scores and the fact that the majority of the children were pre-pubertal, we are
268 convinced that groups are comparable. However, since we do not have information on the
269 growth trajectories, some caution is needed. Because of the single study visit and cross-
270 sectional design, we also might have missed possible confounders. Another limiting factor are
271 the differences in maternal education level and smoking behavior across the groups. The choice
272 for the paired matching on pre-pregnancy BMI differs from a matching on pre-surgery BMI,
273 the pre-pregnancy BMI of the mothers in the overweight/obesity group was insufficient to
274 match on pre-surgery BMI.

275 Conclusion

276 We presented pioneering long-term growth and development data on the offspring born after
277 maternal bariatric surgery. Although presenting with the smallest birth weight, these children
278 had the highest weight and BMI at childhood age. Despite a comparable school career, their
279 parents reported more behavior problems, especially externally of nature. These findings stress
280 the importance of the prevention of obesity in women of childbearing age to prevent them from
281 needing bariatric surgery before pregnancy.

282

- 283 **List of abbreviations**
- 284 BIA: Bioelectrical impedance analysis
- 285 BMI: Body Mass Index
- 286 BS: Bariatric Surgery group
- 287 CBCL: Child Behavior Checklist
- 288 GDM: Diabetes Mellitus Gravidarum
- 289 GWG: Gestational Weight Gain
- 290 LABG: Laparoscopic Adjustable Gastric Banding procedure
- 291 NICU: Neonatal Intensive Care Unit
- 292 NL: Normal Weight Control group
- 293 OW/OB: Control group with Overweight/Obesity
- 294 PEDSQL: Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory
- 295 SDS: Z-score according to Belgian growth data
- 296 SDQ: Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire
- 297

298 **Figures and tables legends:**

- 299 • Figure 1: This figure provides an overview of the study design.
- 300 • Figure 2: This figure contains a flow chart of the inclusion process.
- 301 ○ Footnote for figure 2: Flow of inclusion: All eligible study subjects did receive
- 302 a letter by mail. One to two weeks later, they received a text-message.
- 303 Afterwards we tried to contact them at least twice by phone call and left at
- 304 least one message on their voicemail. When the phone number was no longer
- 305 in use, a second letter was sent by mail.
- 306 • Table 1: Cohort characteristics during pregnancy and at birth
- 307 • Table 2: Body composition children
- 308 • Table 3: Psychomotor development and behavior outcomes

309 **Contributors' Statement**

310 Drs. Van De Maele conceptualized and designed the study, performed data collection,
311 supervised the analyses and reviewed and revised the manuscript.

312 Prof. De Schepper, Prof. Bogaerts, Prof Probyn, Dr Ceulemans and Mrs Guelinckx critically
313 reviewed and revised the manuscript.

314 Prof. Gies and Prof. Devlieger conceptualized and designed the study, drafted the initial
315 manuscript and reviewed and revised the manuscript.

316 All authors approved the final manuscript as submitted and agree to be accountable for all
317 aspects of the work.

318

319 **Conflict of Interest**

320 The authors have no potential conflicts of interest to disclose.

321

322

323

324 **References**

- 325 1. Afshin A, Forouzanfar MH, Reitsma MB, et al. Health Effects of Overweight and Obesity in
326 195 Countries over 25 Years. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;377(1):13-27.
- 327 2. Ward ZJ, Long MW, Resch SC, Giles CM, Cradock AL, Gortmaker SL. Simulation of Growth
328 Trajectories of Childhood Obesity into Adulthood. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;377(22):2145-2153.
- 329 3. World Health Organization. Fact Sheet on Obesity and Overweight. (Fact Sheet 311).
330 <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en/>. Published 2016. Updated June
331 2016. Accessed 17/02/2017, 2017.
- 332 4. Schwarzenberg SJ, Georgieff MK. Advocacy for Improving Nutrition in the First 1000 Days to
333 Support Childhood Development and Adult Health. *Pediatrics*. 2018;141(2):e20173716.
- 334 5. Woo Baidal JA, Locks LM, Cheng ER, Blake-Lamb TL, Perkins ME, Taveras EM. Risk Factors for
335 Childhood Obesity in the First 1,000 Days: A Systematic Review. *Am J Prev Med*.
336 2016;50(6):761-779.
- 337 6. O'Reilly JR, Reynolds RM. The risk of maternal obesity to the long-term health of the
338 offspring. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 2013;78(1):9-16.
- 339 7. Heslehurst N, Vieira R, Akhter Z, et al. The association between maternal body mass index
340 and child obesity: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Med*. 2019;16(6):e1002817.
- 341 8. Daraki V, Roumeliotaki T, Koutra K, et al. Effect of parental obesity and gestational diabetes
342 on child neuropsychological and behavioral development at 4 years of age: the Rhea mother-
343 child cohort, Crete, Greece. *Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2017;26(6):703-714.
- 344 9. Menting MD, van de Beek C, de Rooij SR, Painter RC, Vrijkotte TGM, Roseboom TJ. The
345 association between pre-pregnancy overweight/obesity and offspring's behavioral problems
346 and executive functioning. *Early Hum Dev*. 2018;122:32-41.
- 347 10. Mina TH, Lahti M, Drake AJ, et al. Prenatal exposure to maternal very severe obesity is
348 associated with impaired neurodevelopment and executive functioning in children. *Pediatr*
349 *Res*. 2017;82(1):47-54.
- 350 11. Mikkelsen SH, Hohwü L, Olsen J, Bech BH, Liew Z, Obel C. Parental Body Mass Index and
351 Behavioral Problems in Their Offspring: A Danish National Birth Cohort Study. *Am J*
352 *Epidemiol*. 2017;186(5):593-602.
- 353 12. Whitaker RC. Predicting Preschooler Obesity at Birth: The Role of Maternal Obesity in Early
354 Pregnancy. *Pediatrics*. 2004;114(1):e29.
- 355 13. Devlieger R, Benhalima K, Damm P, et al. Maternal obesity in Europe: where do we stand and
356 how to move forward?: A scientific paper commissioned by the European Board and College
357 of Obstetrics and Gynaecology (EBCOG). *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2016;201:203-208.
- 358 14. Flynn AC, Dalrymple K, Barr S, et al. Dietary interventions in overweight and obese pregnant
359 women: a systematic review of the content, delivery, and outcomes of randomized
360 controlled trials. *Nutr Rev*. 2016;74(5):312-328.
- 361 15. Johansson K, Stephansson O, Neovius M. Outcomes of pregnancy after bariatric surgery. *N*
362 *Engl J Med*. 2015;372(23):2267.
- 363 16. Smith J, Cianflone K, Biron S, et al. Effects of maternal surgical weight loss in mothers on
364 intergenerational transmission of obesity. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;94(11):4275-4283.
- 365 17. Adams TD, Hammoud AO, Davidson LE, et al. Maternal and neonatal outcomes for
366 pregnancies before and after gastric bypass surgery. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2015;39(4):686-694.
- 367 18. Chu L, Howell B, Steinberg A, et al. Early weight loss in adolescents following bariatric surgery
368 predicts weight loss at 12 and 24 months. *Pediatr Obes*. 2019;14(8):e12519.

- 369 19. Van De Maele K, Gies I, Devlieger R. Effect of bariatric surgery before pregnancy on the
370 vascular function in the offspring: protocol of a cross-sectional follow-up study. *BMJ Paediatr*
371 *Open*. 2019;3(1):e000405.
- 372 20. Norton K, Whittingham N, Carter L, Kerr D, Gore C, Marfell-Jones M. *International Standards*
373 *for Anthropometric Assessment*. Underdale, SA, Australia: International Society for the
374 Advancement of Kinanthropometry; 1996.
- 375 21. Roelants M, Hauspie R. Flemish Growth Charts.
376 <https://www.vub.ac.be/groecurven/index.html>. Published 2004. Accessed 20/03/2019.
- 377 22. Warnick EM, Bracken MB, Kasl S. Screening Efficiency of the Child Behavior Checklist and
378 Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire: A Systematic Review. *Child and Adolescent Mental*
379 *Health*. 2008;13(3):140-147.
- 380 23. Goodman R, Ford T, Simmons H, Gatward R, Meltzer H. Using the Strengths and Difficulties
381 Questionnaire (SDQ) to screen for child psychiatric disorders in a community sample. *Int Rev*
382 *Psychiatry*. 2003;15(1-2):166-172.
- 383 24. Varni JW, Burwinkle TM, Seid M, Skarr D. The PedsQL 4.0 as a pediatric population health
384 measure: feasibility, reliability, and validity. *Ambul Pediatr*. 2003;3(6):329-341.
- 385 25. Rasmussen KM, Catalano PM, Yaktine AL. New guidelines for weight gain during pregnancy:
386 what obstetrician/gynecologists should know. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2009;21(6):521-526.
- 387 26. Guelinckx I, Devlieger R, Mullie P, Vansant G. Effect of lifestyle intervention on dietary habits,
388 physical activity, and gestational weight gain in obese pregnant women: a randomized
389 controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2010;91(2):373-380.
- 390 27. Bramham K, Parnell B, Nelson-Piercy C, Seed PT, Poston L, Chappell LC. Chronic hypertension
391 and pregnancy outcomes: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2014;348:g2301.
- 392 28. Conason A, Teixeira J, Hsu CH, Puma L, Knafo D, Geliebter A. Substance use following
393 bariatric weight loss surgery. *JAMA Surg*. 2013;148(2):145-150.
- 394 29. Müller A, Leukefeld C, Hase C, et al. Food addiction and other addictive behaviours in
395 bariatric surgery candidates. *Eur Eat Disord Rev*. 2018;26(6):585-596.
- 396 30. Odom J, Zalesin KC, Washington TL, et al. Behavioral predictors of weight regain after
397 bariatric surgery. *Obes Surg*. 2010;20(3):349-356.
- 398 31. Marshall NE, Lau B, Purnell JQ, Thornburg KL. Impact of maternal obesity and breastfeeding
399 intention on lactation intensity and duration. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2019;15(2):e12732.
- 400 32. Turcksin R, Bel S, Galjaard S, Devlieger R. Maternal obesity and breastfeeding intention,
401 initiation, intensity and duration: a systematic review. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2014;10(2):166-
402 183.
- 403 33. Keely A, Lawton J, Swanson V, Denison FC. Barriers to breast-feeding in obese women: A
404 qualitative exploration. *Midwifery*. 2015;31(5):532-539.
- 405 34. Kral JG, Biron S, Simard S, et al. Large maternal weight loss from obesity surgery prevents
406 transmission of obesity to children who were followed for 2 to 18 years. *Pediatrics*.
407 2006;118(6):e1644-1649.
- 408 35. Willmer M, Berglind D, Sørensen TI, Näslund E, Tynelius P, Rasmussen F. Surgically induced
409 interpregnancy weight loss and prevalence of overweight and obesity in offspring. *PLoS One*.
410 2013;8(12):e82247.
- 411 36. Kerkhof GF, Willemsen RH, Leunissen RW, Breukhoven PE, Hokken-Koelega AC. Health profile
412 of young adults born preterm: negative effects of rapid weight gain in early life. *J Clin*
413 *Endocrinol Metab*. 2012;97(12):4498-4506.
- 414 37. Singhal A. Long-Term Adverse Effects of Early Growth Acceleration or Catch-Up Growth. *Ann*
415 *Nutr Metab*. 2017;70(3):236-240.
- 416 38. Ogundele MO. Behavioural and emotional disorders in childhood: A brief overview for
417 paediatricians. *World J Clin Pediatr*. 2018;7(1):9-26.
- 418 39. Dearnorff J, Smith LH, Petito L, Kim H, Abrams BF. Maternal Prepregnancy Weight and
419 Children's Behavioral and Emotional Outcomes. *Am J Prev Med*. 2017;53(4):432-440.

- 420 40. Pugh SJ, Hutcheon JA, Richardson GA, et al. Gestational weight gain, prepregnancy body
421 mass index and offspring attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder symptoms and behaviour at
422 age 10. *BJOG*. 2016;123(13):2094-2103.
- 423 41. de Laat SAA, Huizink AC, Hof MH, Vrijkotte TGM. Socioeconomic inequalities in psychosocial
424 problems of children: mediating role of maternal depressive symptoms. *Eur J Public Health*.
425 2018;28(6):1062-1068.

426

427

Table 1: Cohort characteristics during pregnancy and at birth

	Bariatric surgery N= 36	Control group with Overweight/Obesity N= 36	Control group with normal weight N= 35	Overall p-value
Maternal characteristics pregnancy				
Age (years)	30.2 ± 4.2	29.5 ± 3.7	29.5 ± 3.6	0.67
Parity	1 ± 1	1 ± 1	0 ± 1	0.05
Pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m ²)	29.5 ± 5.0	31.2 ± 3.3	21.8 ± 1.8	<0.001**
Gestational Weight Gain (kg)	10.9 ± 8.7	11.0 ± 6.2	14.8 ± 4.0	0.02*
Interval surgery-pregnancy (months)	47.4 ± 37.1	N/A	N/A	N/A
Gestational Age at Delivery (weeks)	38.7 ± 2.2	38.8 ± 2.6	39.1 ± 1.2	0.74
Complications				
- Gestational Diabetes	2/36 (5.6%)	0/36	0/35	0.13
- Arterial Hypertension	7/36 (19.4%)	14/36 (38.9%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.001**
- Pre-eclampsia	2/36 (5.6%)	2/36 (5.6%)	0/35	0.36
- Macrosomia (= > 4000g)	3/36 (8.3%)	8/36 (22.2%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.03*
	3/36 (8.3%)	2/36 (5.6%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.60

- Premature delivery (<37 weeks)				
Cesarean Section (%)	8/36 (22.2%)	8/36 (22.2%)	4/35 (11.4%)	0.75
Smoking (%)	10/36 (27.8%)	3/36 (8.3%)	3/35 (8.6%)	0.03*
Neonatal characteristics				
Gender	17 Female 19 Male	17 Female 19 Male	18 Female 17 Male	0.92
Birth weight (kg)	3.2 ± 0.6	3.5 ± 0.7	3.3 ± 0.4	0.08
Birth weight SDS	-0.26 ± 1.02	0.34 ± 1.02	-0.09 ± 0.96	0.04*
Birth length (cm)	49.4 ± 2.9	50.4 ± 4.0	50.3 ± 1.8	0.33
Birth length SDS	-0.18 ± 0.89	0.36 ± 0.86	0.04 ± 0.94	0.04*
Small For Gestational Age (%)	6/36 (16.7%)	1/36 (2.8%)	3/35 (8.6%)	0.13
Large For Gestational Age (%)	2/36 (5.6%)	7/36 (19.4%)	2/35 (5.7%)	0.08
NICU admission (%)	4/36 (11.1%)	6/36 (16.7%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.16
Congenital abnormalities (%)	0/36	1/36 (2.8%)	0/35	0.37
Breastfeeding initiation	15/36 (41.7%)	24/36 (66.7%)	32/35 (91.4%)	$<0.001^{**}$

429 Data are presented as mean \pm standard deviation or number (proportions). * P-value below
 430 0.05; ** P-value below 0.001. Abbreviations: **BMI** body mass index; **SDS** Z-score according
 431 to Belgian growth data; **NICU** Neonatal Intensive Care Unit

432 **Table2: Body composition children**

	Bariatric surgery N= 36	Control group with Overweight/Obesity N= 36	Control group with normal weight N= 35	Overall p-value
Anthropometric characteristics children				
Age (years)	6.5 \pm 1.3	10.8 \pm 0.3	10.6 \pm 0.2	<0.001**
Gender	17 Female 19 Male	17 Female 19 Male	18 Female 17 Male	0.92
Weight SDS	0.70 \pm 1.27	0.14 \pm 0.99	-0.09 \pm 0.84	0.006*
Height SDS	0.64 \pm 0.92	0.33 \pm 0.97	0.42 \pm 0.81	0.35
BMI SDS	0.47 \pm 1.50	-0.02 \pm 1.01	-0.42 \pm 1.06	0.01*
Fat Percentage BIA (%)	23.4 \pm 5.2	21.9 \pm 6.3	20.2 \pm 4.4	0.61
Fat excess BIA † (%)	5.7 \pm 5.1	1.4 \pm 5.4	-0.1 \pm 4.1	<0.001**
Fat Percentage Slaughter Formula (%)	19.7 \pm 6.6	20.0 \pm 8.2	18.3 \pm 6.4	0.89
Waist SDS	0.61 \pm 1.54	0.16 \pm 1.09	-0.15 \pm 1.12	0.04*
Waist – to – hip Ratio	0.86 \pm 0.05	0.82 \pm 0.04	0.83 \pm 0.05	0.001**

Waist – to – height Ratio	0.47 ± 0.06	0.43 ± 0.05	0.41 ± 0.04	<0.001**
------------------------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	----------

433

434 Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation or number (proportions). * P-value below
 435 0.05; ** P-value below 0.001. Abbreviations: **BMI** body mass index; **SDS** Z-score according
 436 to Belgian growth data; **BIA** Bioelectrical impedance analysis

437 †Calculated to the 50th percentile for age- and gender-specific reference values.

438 **Footnote with supplementary Factorial ANOVA analyses:**

439 The set of confounders consisted of the age of the children, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, the
 440 birth weight SDS, the original maternal cohort, the gender of the child, maternal smoking
 441 behavior and maternal education level.

- 442 • Interaction of most influencing covariates on BMI SD score at childhood age

443 Only maternal pre-pregnancy BMI showed significant interaction to the dependent variable.

444 This effect was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The main effect for maternal pre-
 445 pregnancy BMI yielded an F ratio of $F(1,85)=6.55$; $p=0.01$.

- 446 • Interaction of most influencing covariates on waist SD score at childhood age

447 Only maternal pre-pregnancy BMI showed significant interaction to the dependent variable.

448 This effect was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The main effect for maternal pre-
 449 pregnancy BMI yielded an F ratio of $F(1,85)=4.67$; $p=0.03$.

- 450 • Interaction of most influencing covariates on waist to hip ratio at childhood age

451 No statistical significant interactions were found.

- 452 • Interaction of most influencing covariates on waist to height ratio at childhood age

453 Only maternal pre-pregnancy BMI showed significant interaction to the dependent variable.

454 This effect was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The main effect for maternal pre-

455 pregnancy BMI yielded an F ratio of $F(1,85)=4.87$; $p=0.03$.

456

Table 3: Psychomotor development and behavior outcomes

	Bariatric surgery N= 36	Control group with Overweight/Obesity N= 36	Control group with normal weight N= 35	Overall p-value
Parental Education level				
Mother High school as highest degree	20/36 (55.6%)	7/36 (19.4%)	5/35 (14.3%)	<0.001**
Father High school as highest degree	27/34 (79.4%)	16/32 (50.0%)	10/34 (29.4%)	<0.001**
Aberrant psychomotor development or functioning				
Special education	2/36 (5.6%)	5/36 (13.9%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.18
Reported repeat of a class	4/36 (11.1%)	2/36 (5.6%)	1/35 (2.9%)	0.36
Reported delayed milestones	6/32 (18.7%)	3/34 (8.8%)	2/33 (6.1%)	0.23
Reported mental health or neurological Problems	8/36 (22.2%)	10/36 (27.8%)	7/35 (20%)	0.73
Specific diagnosis	ADHD (n=2)	ADD (n=1)	ADHD (n=1)	

	Autism (n=1) Behavior problems (n=2) Chronic hydrocephalus (n=1) Dyslexia (n=1) High sensitivity (n=1)	ADHD (n=1) ADHD combined with autism (n=1) Autism (n=2) Behavior problems (n=1) Epilepsy (n=1) Gifted (n=1) Gilles de La Tourette (n=1) Selective mutism with dyscalculia (n=1)	ADHD combined with autism (n=1) Autism (n=2) Behavior problems (n=1) Dyslexia (n=1) Dyslexia with Dysorthography (n=1)	
Behavior Problems				
SDQ Total Difficulties (score)	11.1 ± 6.2	7.5 ± 5.9	8.1 ± 6.0	0.03*
CBCL Total problems (T-score)	53.3 ± 13.0	46.5 ± 11.6	47.9 ± 12.4	0.10
CBCL Externalizing problems (T-score)	52.0 ± 12.2	44.2 ± 10.2	47.0 ± 10.9	0.03*
CBCL Internalizing problems (T-score)	53.6 ± 11.2	49.5 ± 12.0	50.6 ± 12.1	0.42

Quality of life (Total PedsQL score)	80.2 ± 15.8	83.2 ± 11.9	84.0 ± 11.4	0.50
--------------------------------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	------

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation or number (proportions). * P-value below 0.05; ** P-value below 0.001. Abbreviations: **ADHD** Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder; **ADD** Attention Deficit Disorder; **SDQ** Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire; **CBCL** Child Behavior Checklist; **PedsQL** Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory