The Impact of Familial, Behavioural and Psychosocial Factors on the SES Gradient for Childhood Overweight in Europe
A Longitudinal Study

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42 **Abstract**

43 BACKGROUND: In highly developed countries, childhood overweight as well as many

44 overweight-related risk factors is negatively associated with socioeconomic status (SES).

45 OBJECTIVE: To investigate the longitudinal association between parental SES and childhood

46 overweight, and to clarify whether familial, psychosocial or behavioural factors can explain

47 any SES gradient.

48 METHODS: The IDEFICS baseline and follow-up surveys are used to investigate the

49 longitudinal association between socioeconomic status (SES), familial, psychosocial and

50 behavioural factors, and the prevalence of childhood overweight. 5 819 children (50.5 %

51 boys, 49.5 % girls) were included.

52 RESULTS: The risk for being overweight after two years at follow-up in children that were

53 non-overweight at baseline rises with a lower SES. For children who were initially overweight

54 a lower parental SES carries a lower probability for a non-overweight weight status at follow-

55 up. The effect of parental SES is only moderately attenuated by single familial, psychosocial

56 or behavioural factors; however, it can be fully explained by their concerted effect. Most

57 influential of the investigated risk factors were feeding / eating practices, parental BMI,

58 physical activity behaviour, and proportion of sedentary activity.

59 CONCLUSION: Prevention strategies for childhood overweight should focus on actual

60 behaviours while acknowledging that these behaviours are more prevalent in lower SES

61 families.

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66 **INTRODUCTION**

67 Childhood overweight and obesity is associated with several somatic and psychosocial

68 health-related factors later in life including higher prevalence of comorbidities [1-5], higher

69 mortality rates [5], lower educational attainment [6], and developmental delays [7]. In highly

70 developed countries, childhood overweight and obesity is negatively associated with

71 parental socio-economic status, i.e. overweight and obesity are more prevalent in children

72 from families with low socioeconomic status [8, 9]. This negative SES gradient of childhood

73 obesity indicates SES differences in energy-related behaviours and other psychosocial and

74 familial risk factors, and it is often suggested that, where such a gradient is present,

75 prevention measures should be specifically targeted at low social classes[10]. Parental SES is

76 not directly influencing a child's weight status. A multitude of behavioural factors within the

77 family context has been explored. This is especially true for food-related behaviours[11-13], but

78 also physical activity, sleep, media consumption[14, 15], and, albeit much rarer, psychosocial

79 factors like e.g. lack of social networks have been shown to be associated with childhood

80 obesity[16]. Although familial clustering of overweight and obesity is well established[17], the

81 underlying causes are unknown. They might be driven by genetics, a shared environment,

82 social role modelling, or a combination thereof. Concise research on intermediate factors

83 truly trying to explain the SES-obesity association of childhood obesity is scarce. One of the

84 first attempts is the study of Goisis and colleagues who found that smoking during

85 pregnancy, breastfeeding, early physical activity and dietary factors attenuates the income

86 gradient of childhood overweight and obesity in a UK nationally representative cohort

87 study.[18] However, more studies are needed to substantiate and further investigates these

88 findings.

89   In a previous study, we analysed the cross-sectional association between socioeconomic

90   status and overweight in the baseline survey of the IDEFICS study, a multi-centre European

91   cohort study on diet- and lifestyle-related diseases in children [19]. We found a negative SES

92   gradient in five of the eight IDEFICS survey centres (Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Estonia,

93   Spain) and a zero association for the other three centres (Cyprus, Hungary, Italy), and we

94   were able to link the presence and direction of the SES gradient to the degree of human

95   development in the survey centres [19]. For the present paper, we will be investigating data of

96   Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Estonia and Spain, since these five centres were shown to be

97   homogenous with regard to their cross-sectional SES-overweight association, allowing

98   pooling of the data.

99   The aim of the paper is two-fold: Firstly, we would like to investigate the impact of SES at

100 baseline on childhood overweight / obesity at follow-up, and secondly, we would like to

101 clarify whether familial, psychosocial and behavioural factors can explain any observed SES

102 gradient.

103

104 **METHODS**

105 The IDEFICS study is a multi-centre population-based intervention study on childhood

106 obesity that was carried out in selected regions of eight European countries comprising

107 Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Spain and Sweden [20, 21]. The study was

108 set up in pre- and primary school settings in control and intervention regions in each of

109 these countries. Two major surveys (baseline (T0) and follow-up (T1)) were conducted in

110 pre-schools and primary school classes (1st and 2nd grades at baseline). The baseline survey

111 (September 2007 - May 2008) reached an overall response proportion of 51% (ranging from

112 41% to 66% in the single countries) and included 16.220 children aged 2 to 9 years. The

113 follow-up survey (September 2009 - May 2010) was conducted two years later, and follow-

114 up was organised such that the schools were visited in the exact same month as they were

115 visited in the baseline survey. The follow-up survey at T1 reached an overall response

116 proportion of 68% (ranging from 49% to 84% in the single countries) and included 11.038

117 children aged 4 to 11 years. The general design of the IDEFICS study has been described

118 elsewhere [20, 21].

119

120 The present study only includes children from the centres in which a social gradient for

121 overweight and obesity was established previously [19] i.e. from Belgium, Germany, Sweden,

122 Estonia and Spain (N=6,497 children), for whom full information on the socioeconomic

123 factors is available. This was the case for 5 819 children (50.5 % boys, 49.5 % girls).

124 In both surveys, self-administered questionnaires have been filled in by the parents to

125 gather information on the children's behaviours, parental attitudes and on the social

126 environment of the children. The questionnaire was developed in English, translated to the

127 respective languages and back translated to English to minimize any heterogeneity due to

128 translation problems. Different language versions were available in the centres, and help

129 was offered to those parents who felt they were not able to fill in the questionnaire by

130 themselves.

131 Anthropometric indicators in the children were assessed in the framework of a physical

132 examination. Weight was determined using a TANITA BC 420 SMA with the children being in

133 a fasting status and wearing only underwear. Standing height was measured with the

134 children's head in a Frankfort plane using a stadiometer SECA 225. As in the weight

135 measurement, the children were wearing only underwear, all hair ornaments were removed.

136 Within both surveys, in random subsamples of participating children additional

137 measurements have been carried out [20]. In the baseline survey, accelerometer

138 measurements are available for 46% of the children. 24 hour dietary recalls have been done

139 in 67.5% of the children. The methodology of these measurements is described below.

140

141 ***Variables included in this study***

142 **Familial factors**

143 For assessing the **socioeconomic status (SES)** of the children, we employed an additive SES

144 indicator comprising a) equivalized household income (net income of the household

145 equivalized to the number of household members using the OECD square root scale[22] and

146 adjusted for median equivalized income of the respective country), b) parental educational

147 level (maximum ISCED level of the parents[23]), and c) parental level of occupational position

148 (maximum level of the parents using the European Socioeconomic Classification (ESeC), a

149 modified Erikson-Goldthorpe-Portocarero Schema[24]). Cronbach's alpha for the three

150 indicators was 0.67. We scaled the indicators to the interval [1,5] and summed them up. The

151 SES score ranges from 3 (lowest SES) to 15 (highest SES). The construction of the indicator is

152 described in detail in our previous work [19]. Baseline descriptive data of the SES indicator and

153 its components in the five countries can be found in Supplementary Table A1.

154

155 The **familial clustering** of overweight and obesity was assessed using self-reported parental

156 BMI. This was assessed in the questionnaire by the question "What is your height and

157 weight? Please give information of parents with whom the child is living." Any numbers

158 could be given as answers. The parental BMI was calculated as weight (kg) / squared height

159 (m^2).

160 **Parental feeding practices** were assessed using an abridged version of the Pre-schooler

161 Feeding Questionnaire (PFQ) developed by Baughcum and colleagues [25]. Items with highest

162 factor loadings were selected relating to the five constructs that were hypothetically related

163 to childhood overweight: *difficulty in child feeding* (it is a struggle to get child to eat, child

164 has poor appetite; Cronbach's alpha 0.79), *concern about child overeating or being*

165 *overweight* (have to stop child from eating too much, think about putting child on a diet to

166 keep him/her from becoming overweight, worried child is eating too much; Cronbach's

167 alpha 0.82), *pushing the child to eat more* (make child eat all the food on the plate, use food

168 child likes as a way to get child to eat healthy; Cronbach's alpha 0.39), *structure during*

169 *feeding interaction* (child watches TV at meals (reversed item), parent sits down with child

170 during mealtime; Cronbach's alpha 0.43), and *age-inappropriate feeding* (parent feeds child

171 her-/himself if child does not eat enough).

172

173 **Psychological factors**

174 **Child's strength and difficulties** were assessed using the Strength and Difficulties

175 Questionnaire (SDQ) [26]. We assessed four of the five constructs of this questionnaire, namely

176 *emotional difficulties* (Cronbach's alpha 0.63)*, behavioural difficulties* (Cronbach's alpha

177 0.51)*, difficulties with peers* (Cronbach's alpha 0.54) and *pro-social behaviour* (Cronbach's

178 alpha 0.58).

179

180 **Behavioural factors**

181 The assessment of the child's **dietary behaviour** was based on parental report using one

182 computer-assisted 24-hour dietary recall combined with assessment of all school meals of

183 the particular day. Energy intake per day was calculated using country-specific information.

184 We excluded under- and over-reporters from the data by using adapted Goldberg cut-offs,

185 were Goldberg cutoff values[27] were recalculated for application in children using age- and

186 sex-specific reference values [28]. For our analyses, we adjusted intake by dividing energy

187 intake in calories by body mass in kg. Further details on the 24-hour dietary recall method

188 employed in the IDEFICS study can be found elsewhere[29].

189 Child's **physical activity** behaviour was assessed by two different methods. In the parental

190 questionnaire, the Outdoor Playtime Checklist (OPC) was employed [30]. From the OPC, we

191 derived the typical outdoor playtime in hours per week of the child. This measure had high

192 rank correlation with accelerometer measurements in a study in pre-school children in the

193 U.S. [30]. Moreover, we asked for the time, the child typically spends in a sports club per week.

194 This questionnaire information was complemented in a subsample of children by

195 accelerometer measurements. The accelerometer device (ActiGraph, Pensacola, FL, USA)

196 was placed on the right hip for three days (two weekdays, one weekend day) during waking

197 hours. The sampling interval (epoch) was set at 15 seconds. Accelerometer measurements

198 were considered to be valid if at least 3-day measurements with a minimum of 6 hours daily

199 wearing time were available. Periods of 20 minutes or more consecutive zero counts were

200 replaced by missing data before further analysis. For the analyses, we used an averaged

201 count per minute, and time spent in moderate or vigorous physical activity using the cut-offs

202 of Evenson [31]. Additionally, the accelerometer data were used to calculate the percentage of

203 time spend in sedentary activities of total accelerometer wear time. Child's **sedentary**

204 **behaviour** was assessed via parental questionnaire. The hours per week the child typically

205 spends using audio-visual media was assessed for weekdays and weekends separately and

206 averaged over the week. As a second indicator, the number of different media devices in the

207 child's bedroom was assessed using a closed question for the presence of five different types

208 of media devices (TV, Computer, Internet connection, Video / DVD player and

209 PlayStation / Game console).

210

211 ***Statistical methods***

212 Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing body mass in kilograms by squared body

213 height in meters. BMI of children was categorized into International Obesity Task Force

214 (IOTF) categories. For this, we interpolated the given categories for continuous age as

215 proposed by Cole et al. [32, 33] by using cubic splines, and categorized each child according to

216 his / her continuous age (measurement day-birthday) . For this paper, we built two

217 categories for weight status: a) IOTF underweight and IOTF normal weight and b) IOTF

218 overweight and IOTF obese.

219 To analyse the cross-sectional association of SES on the prevalence of overweight including

220 obesity, age-, and study centre-adjusted prevalence odds ratios (OR) were calculated using

221 logistic regression models.

222 For longitudinal effects, we analysed the impact of a putative risk factor at T0 on the change

223 of weight status from T0 to T1. For this, hazard ratios (HR) were calculated employing Cox

224 proportional hazard models with age at T1 as time-dependent covariate stratified by weight

225 status at T0. We included the study centres as random effects. Thus, for each weight status

226 we modelled the proportional effects of a factor on the risk of a change of this weight status

227 at any given age independent of study centre. By this approach, we also eliminated country

228 effects and possible intervention / control group effects. Using the same method, we

229 estimated the HR for familial, psychosocial and behavioural factors on a change from IOTF

230 underweight / IOTF normal weight at T0 to IOTF overweight / IOTF obesity at T1. We

231 adjusted the proportional hazard models by SES to explore whether any SES gradients can be

232   explained by the analysed risk factors. In a last step, we analysed the interplay of risk factors

233   on change of weight status in a multivariate model (model I). To ensure that our results were

234   not influenced by the choice of subsamples for accelerometer measurements and / or 24-

235   hour dietary recall, we analysed a second multivariate model where these variable were

236   excluded beforehand (model II). The model building for the two latter models was done

237   using best subset selection to eliminate any possible bias introduced by automated model

238   building procedures [34]. We reported the Wald statistics to judge the relative importance of

239   the single factors[35]. Statistical significances are reported based on a significance level of

240   $\alpha=0.05$.

241   All statistical analyses were done with SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary (NC), USA). The code is

242   available from the authors upon request.

243

244   ***Ethical issues***

245   All parents or legal guardians of the participating children gave written informed consent to

246   data collection, examinations, collection of samples, subsequent analysis and storage of

247   personal data and collected samples. Additionally, each child gave oral consent after being

248   orally informed about the modules by a study nurse immediately before every examination

249   using a simplified text. Study participants and their parents / legal guardians could consent

250   to single components of the study while abstaining from others. All procedures were

251   approved by the relevant local or national ethics committees by each of the five study

252   centres, namely from the Ethics Committee of the University Hospital Ghent (Belgium), the

253   Tallinn Medical Research Ethics Committee of the National Institutes for Health

254   Development (Estonia), the Ethics Committee of the University Bremen (Germany), the

255 Ethics Committee for Clinical Research of Aragon (Spain), and the Regional Ethical Review

256 Board of Gothenburg (Sweden).

257

258

259 **RESULTS**

260 Basic characteristics of the 5,819 included children (2,931 boys, 2,888 girls) can be found in

261 Table 1. The sample is well balanced regarding sex and country (ranging from 17.6% children

262 from Germany to 24.2% children from Sweden). At T0, the prevalence of overweight and

263 obese children was 12.3% (N=712). Two years later, at T1, this prevalence was 15.4%

264 (N=896). The proportion of children with a change of weight status from T0 to T1 was 5.5%

265 for underweight / normal weight at T0 to overweight / obesity at T1 (N=320; 6.3% of all

266 underweight / normal weight children at T0) and 2.4% for a change from overweight /

267 obesity at T0 to underweight / normal weight at T1 (N=140; 19.7% of all overweight / obese

268 children at T0).

269

270 >>>> Include Table 1 about here

271

272 Table 2 shows the influence of SES on the weight status and on the change of weight status

273 over time. Within the cross-sectional surveys, SES is associated with overweight / obesity at

274 both time points. The higher the socio-economic status, the lower the prevalence of

275 overweight / obesity. The SES gradient is slightly steeper at T1 (POR: 0.903 95%CI: 0.882-

276 0.925) than at T0 (POR: 0.919 95%CI: 0.896-0.944). SES is also protective against a change

277 from underweight / normal weight at T0 to overweight / obesity at T1 (HR: 0.938; 95% CI:

278   0.905-0.974) and bears a higher chance for a change from overweight / obesity at T0 to

279   underweight / normal weight at T1 (HR: 1.108; 95% CI 1.040-1.180).

280

281   >>>> Include Table 2 about here

282

283   The impact of single familial, psychosocial and behavioural factors on a change from IOTF

284   underweight / IOTF normal weight at T0 to IOTF overweight / IOTF obesity at T1 and on the

285   SES gradient of this change is displayed in Table 3. Statistically significant factors bearing a

286   higher risk of changing to overweight / obesity are parental BMI (maternal BMI: HR: 1.104;

287   95% CI: 1.080-1.127; paternal BMI: HR: 1.108; 95% CI: 1.073-1.143), child's difficulties with

288   peers (HR: 1.091; 95% CI: 1.015-1.173), parental concern for overweight or overeating (HR:

289   1.397; 95% CI: 1.281-1.523), age-inappropriate feeding (HR: 1.107; 95% CI: 1.041-1.178) and

290   percentage of sedentary activity (HR: 1.065; 95% CI: 1.030-1.102). Statistically significant

291   protective against such a weight change are reported difficulties in feeding (HR: 0.899; 95%

292   CI: 0.839-0.962), pushing the child to eat more (HR: 0.917; 95% CI: 0.847-0.994), physical

293   activity as expressed in average accelerometer counts per minute (HR: 0.999; 95% CI: 0.998-

294   1.000), daily MVPA in minutes (HR: 0.980; 95% CI: 0.972-0.987) or time spent in a sports club

295   (HR: 0.805; 95% CI: 0.744-0.871). These results hold also after adjustment by SES, which only

296   explains a small part of the observed single effects (data not shown).

297   The SES gradient (Raw HR for SES score: 0.938; 95% CI: 0.905-0.974) was most strongly

298   attenuated (change towards the 1) by maternal BMI (Adjusted HR for SES score: 0.960; 95%

299   CI: 0.924-0.998), followed by the physical activity behaviour of the child and the child's

300   strengths and difficulties.

301

302   >>>> Include Table 3 about here

303

304   The results of the multivariate models are displayed in Table 4. In model I, which contains all

305   investigated variables, three variables are protective to weight status change from T0 to T1.

306   This concerns difficulties in feeding (HR: 0.842; 95% CI: 0.755-0.940) daily MVPA (HR: 0.976;

307   95% CI: 0.958-0.955) and time spent in a sports club (HR: 0.847; 95% CI: 0.758-0.946). A

308   higher risk for weight status change from T0 to T1 carry parental BMI, age-inappropriate

309   feeding (HR: 1.295; 95% CI: 1.172-1.430) and time spent in sedentary activities (HR: 1.125;

310   95% CI: 1.018-1.244). The hazard rate for accelerometer average count per minute, which

311   was below 1 in the bivariate model (Table 3), is at 1.006 (95% CI: 1.003-1.009) in the

312   multivariate model.

313   Similar results were obtained in model II that does not include the variables that are only

314   available in subsamples (accelerometer, 24-hour dietary recall). Here, pro-social behaviour

315   as a further protective factor was included in the model (HR: 0.900; 95% CI: 0.824-0.984).

316   The HRs for SES were closer to unity and no longer statistically significant in both

317   multivariate models (model I: HR for SES: 0.987; 95% CI: 0.930-1.048; model II: HR for SES:

318   0.997; 95% CI: 0.954-1.023).

319

320   >>>> Include Table 4 about here

321

322

323   **DISCUSSION**

324   This paper investigated the longitudinal association of familial, psychosocial and behavioural

325   factors with childhood overweight and their interplay with socio-economic status. In our

326 study, a low parental SES in non-overweight children is a risk factor for the development of

327 overweight or obesity two years later. This effect of parental SES is only moderately

328 attenuated by single familial, psychosocial or behavioural factors; however, it can be fully

329 explained by the concerted effect of such factors. Most influential factors for the

330 development of overweight or obesity were feeding / eating practices, parental BMI, the

331 child's physical activity behaviour, and time spent with audio-visual media, which was

332 surprisingly protective in our study. For the child's strengths and difficulties single effects

333 were found which were no longer significant in multivariate models. We also found that, vice

334 versa, for children who were initially overweight a lower parental SES carried a lower

335 probability to change back to a non-overweight weight status. For this case, the effect of

336 most behavioural factors was simply reversed (see supplementary table A3).

337 The findings from our study confirm the results from the literature regarding the high and

338 independent impact of parental BMI on the risk for overweight of the offspring [36]. Our

339 results regarding the association of parental feeding practices with overweight in children

340 differ from the result obtained in the original study by Baughcum and colleagues [25]. In their

341 cross-sectional study surprisingly only two of the five investigated factors were associated

342 with childhood overweight. In our study, we found a longitudinal effect of four factors on

343 the risk of a non-overweight child to develop overweight or obesity in one of the

344 multivariate models. Two of the investigated factors, pushing the child to eat more as well as

345 difficulties in child feeding, were not risk-elevating factors as hypothesized by Baughcum et

346 al [25], but were protective. However, other longitudinal studies also found overeating to be

347 positively and picky eating to be negatively associated with BMI [38]. Moreover, it is likely that

348 the child's BMI is influencing parental feeding practice, thus confounding any cross-sectional

349 associations [39]. Previous studies have linked children's strengths and difficulties with

350   childhood overweight [40, 41]. However, effects have been found to be rather small. A

351   longitudinal study showed that the effect of weight status on later Strength and Difficulties

352   Questionnaire (SDQ) score might be larger than the effect of SDQ score on weight change [42].

353   In our study, a higher score on the SDQ subscale peer problems in non-overweight children

354   was statistically significant related to the risk of developing overweight at T1. Previous cross-

355   sectional studies have repeatedly shown associations between objectively measured

356   physical activity with weight status in children [43, 44]. However, the rare longitudinal studies

357   show ambiguous results [45-47], and association might be bidirectional [48]. In our study, both

358   average counts per minute (cpm) and daily MVPA in minutes contributed to the hazard of

359   becoming overweight at T1 in children that were non-overweight at T0, and these variables

360   were also able to explain part of the SES gradient of the overweight risk, albeit the hazard

361   ratio for average cpm was a risk factor in the multivariate model. A possible explanation

362   could be non-linearity in either the MVPA-obesity association or proportion of sedentary

363   activities-obesity association, or even both. We also included questionnaire data on physical

364   activity in our models Time spent in a sports club showed a protective effect in addition to

365   the accelerometer-derived data. This variable was the one with the second highest influence

366   in the model without accelerometer data indicating that this information might be valuable

367   in studies were collection of objective physical activity data is not feasible. We found no

368   effect of time spent outdoors on weight status. The proportion of sedentary activity derived

369   from accelerometer data was a risk factor for obesity in the bivariate as well as the

370   multivariate model. This is very similar to the results of Mitchell and colleagues [49], however

371   the raw effect (Table 3) does not disappear when adjusted by physical activity and other

372   confounders (Table 4).

373   The current study has several limitations. First of all, the data of the study stems from a

374   multi-centre intervention study [50] which could have potentially influenced weight status at

375   follow-up. For the sake of statistical power, we decided to include the intervention regions in

376   our study, and we statistically controlled for a possible effect by including study centre as

377   random effect. Secondly, we cannot rule out selection bias due to nonresponse. In the

378   IDEFICS study, we observed selection with regard to weight status at baseline [51]. This should

379   not influence our results, since we restricted ourselves to underweight and normal weight

380   children. A further selection bias can have been introduced within this paper due to the

381   number of missing values, and measurements only performed in sub-samples. This holds

382   especially for the multivariate models presented in Table 4. Although the subsamples were

383   selected randomly, the parents could refuse any single procedure of the surveys. We found

384   only little differences in SES scores of the children included in Model 1 (mean SES score =

385   10.61) versus Model II (mean SES score = 10.70), compared to a mean SES score of 10.46 in

386   the overall sample.

387   With the exception of the accelerometer measurements all of the investigated familial,

388   psychosocial and behavioural factors including the social indicators of the study were

389   gathered by parental self-report, which might have influenced the results. Most of the

390   derived variables stem from well-known validated instruments [25, 30, 52-54], however the

391   reliability as measured by Cronbach's alpha for some of the sub-scales is very low. We only

392   included multi-scales that had similar Cronbach's alpha values with our data as those

393   published by the scale authors or by other previous papers. Nevertheless, especially two of

394   the feeding / eating practices (pushing the child to eat more, structure during meals) have

395   extremely low values and should be interpreted with caution. Both sub-scales did not enter

396   the multivariate models. While SES is often used as a putative confounder in validation

397 studies, the validity of self-reported social indicators themselves is largely understudied. The

398 energy intake of the child assessed by 24-hour dietary recall is only derived from a single day

399 of reporting. Although the validity of the instrument in general appears to be high [55], the

400 restriction to a single day of reporting implies that the variable we used, energy intake, is

401 only valid on group level, but not necessarily on individual level [56]. This very well might

402 explain the lack of association between energy intake and risk of overweight in our study.

403 A particular strength of the study is the fact that the data was gathered in a standardized

404 way in all participating centres. The BMI measurement followed a strictly standardized

405 procedure and was taken with the children being in a fasting status. Children not in fasting

406 status were generally excluded from the database, and we had only 70 (1.2%) documented

407 cases were very small amounts (like e.g. a cookie) had been eaten in the last 8 hours prior to

408 the examination. Quality control procedures, like e.g. central trainings and external site

409 visits, ensured comparability of measurements across centres. Height and weight

410 measurements in the IDEFICS survey centres have an intra- and inter-observer reliability of

411 more than 99% in each of the study centres [57]. Moreover, the questionnaire data on physical

412 activity behaviour is supplemented by objective data from accelerometer measurements in a

413 subsample of children. In a separate validation study, the accelerometer measurements

414 (counts per minutes) in small children show a high correlation with energy expenditure

415 derived by doubly labelled water measurements [58].

416 Another advantage of our study is the strict longitudinal approach. We are able to

417 disentangle cause and effect and rule out any reverse causation that might otherwise have

418 biased the results.

419 In our study, the association of SES and childhood overweight was fully explained by familial,

420 psychological and behavioural factors. This result suggests that prevention measures do not

421 inevitably have to target specific social groups. Although, it is true that obesity-prone

422 behaviour is more prevalent in low SES groups and that it takes tailored efforts in terms of

423 communication and measures to be successful in these groups [59, 60], it has to be kept in mind

424 that there is not a one-to-one association between the here investigated factors and SES

425 group. Moreover, specific attention to one group might lead to stigmatization and thus may

426 have unwanted side-effects [61]. An alternative intervention approach would be targeting

427 specific behaviours, e.g. age-inappropriate feeding, in the total population working with a

428 broad choice of culturally sensitive measures through different channels.

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