

1 **Associations of Appetitive Traits with Growth Velocities from Infancy to Childhood**

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12 **Short Title**

13 CEBQ and growth in infancy and childhood

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Several studies have reported associations between appetitive traits and weight gain during
20 infancy or childhood, but none have directly compared these associations across both age
21 periods. Here, we tested the associations between appetitive traits and growth velocities from
22 birth to childhood. Appetitive trait data were collected using the Children's Eating Behaviour
23 Questionnaire (CEBQ) in 149 children from the Cambridge Baby Growth Study at age 9-17
24 years. These participants also provided anthropometric measurements during infancy (birth,
25 3, 12, 18, and 24 months) and childhood (5 to 11 years). Standardized growth velocities (in
26 weight, length/height, BMI, and body fat percentage) for 0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24
27 months to childhood were estimated using individual linear-spline models. Associations
28 between each of the eight CEBQ traits and each growth velocity were tested in separate
29 multilevel linear regression models, adjusted for sex, age at CEBQ completion, and the
30 corresponding birth measurement (weight, length, BMI, or body fat percentage). The three
31 food-approach traits (*food responsiveness*, *enjoyment of food* and *emotional overeating*) were
32 positively associated with infancy and childhood growth velocities in weight, BMI, and body
33 fat percentage. By contrast, only one of the food-avoidant traits, *satiety responsiveness*, was
34 negatively associated with all growth velocities. Significant associations were mostly of
35 similar magnitude across all age periods. These findings reveal a broadly consistent
36 relationship between appetitive traits with gains in weight and adiposity throughout infancy
37 and childhood. Future interventions and strategies to prevent obesity may benefit from
38 measuring appetitive traits in infants and children and targeting these as part of their
39 programs.

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Childhood obesity is associated with a multitude of negative health implications. Weight
43 status in childhood tracks into adolescence and eventually adulthood. Children living with
44 obesity are at greater risk of continuing to do so later in life. This suggests that preventive
45 efforts are best targeted at the early years to maximise impact [1]. Appetitive traits are key
46 behaviours linked with obesity, which comprise a range of food-approach and food-avoidant
47 eating behaviors [2]. Characterising which appetitive traits are associated with greater
48 velocity of weight gain across key developmental phases in infancy and childhood could help
49 in identifying potential behavioural targets for interventions to prevent childhood obesity.

50 Appetitive traits are innate tendencies that are observable early in infancy and show
51 continuity and stability throughout childhood [3–5]. A number of psychometric instruments
52 have been developed to assess these traits in children [6,7]. One of the most comprehensive
53 psychometric measures is the Children’s Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (CEBQ) [2]. The
54 CEBQ is a validated parent-reported instrument composed of 35 items which are used to
55 calculate four ‘food-approach’ appetitive traits (*food responsiveness, enjoyment of food,*
56 *emotional overeating, and desire to drink*) and four ‘food-avoidant’ appetitive traits (*satiety*
57 *responsiveness, slowness in eating, emotional undereating, and food fussiness*). Although the
58 food-approach traits tend to increase with age and the food-avoidant traits tend to decrease
59 with age [2], these changes are relatively small and individual children tend to hold their
60 relative ranking in regards to appetite traits compared to their peers [3,5]. A growing body of
61 evidence underscores the substantial heritability of appetitive traits from birth onwards. For
62 example, during the exclusively milk fed period of life in infants, genetic influences already
63 account for approximately 53-84% of inter-individual variability in four appetitive traits [8].
64 This substantial proportion of genetic influence remain relatively stable with heritability
65 estimates ranging between 69-90% for all CEBQ traits except *emotional undereating* in

66 school aged-children [9]. However, as children mature and gain greater autonomy in their
67 dietary decisions, their ability to express their genetic predisposition for heightened appetite
68 may become more pronounced [9]. In an obesogenic and food permissive environment, this
69 predisposes to increased dietary energy intake and, consequently, risk for obesity [10].

70 Accumulating evidence supports the relevance of CEBQ traits to obesity risk in childhood.
71 Longitudinal studies report that a more avid appetite is prospectively associated with faster
72 growth in childhood (aged 6 to 10 years), indexed by higher body mass index (BMI) [11–14],
73 fat mass index (FMI), and fat-free mass index (FFMI) [11]. On the other hand, food avoidant
74 appetitive traits are associated with subsequent lower childhood growth in children aged 4 to
75 10 years (BMI [15–17], FMI, and FFMI [11,16]). Similar findings have been reported
76 regarding appetitive traits measured during infancy using the Baby Eating Behaviour
77 Questionnaire (BEBQ) at 3 months and their subsequent association with infant weights and
78 BMI up to 15 months of age [18–20]. Conversely, adiposity could also influence appetitive
79 traits, where children of higher adiposity may develop increasingly avid appetite [21]. It is
80 suggested that appetite plays a more important role in adiposity (than does adiposity in
81 appetite development) particularly in early infancy, while the relationship becomes more
82 complex during childhood [22]. To date, however, most studies, both cross-sectional and
83 longitudinal, have focused on BMI as an index of adiposity [21], which fails to differentiate
84 between lean and fat mass [23].

85 Recent studies have reported a relationship between appetitive traits and dietary intakes, with
86 possible consequences for growth. In the PANIC study (n=406 children; aged 6-8 years),
87 *enjoyment of food* and *food responsiveness* were positively associated with intakes of
88 nutrient-dense and protein-rich foods, assessed by 4-day food records, whereas *satiety*
89 *responsiveness* and *food fussiness* were negatively associated with those food intakes [24]. In

90 the Generation XXI study (n=3,879 children; 7-10 years), higher *enjoyment of food* and lower
91 *satiety responsive* and *food fussiness* were associated with a higher diet quality, as evaluated
92 by the Healthy Eating Index [25]. However, there are no data on the links between appetitive
93 traits and growth from birth with consideration of both infancy and childhood growth
94 trajectories.

95 Therefore, the present study aimed to assess the association between appetitive traits, as
96 assessed by the CEBQ in children aged 9-17 years (mean age 12.5±1.4 years), and growth
97 patterns during both infancy and childhood (in weight, length/height, BMI, and body fat
98 percentage). We hypothesized that appetitive traits would show similar associations with
99 growth in both infancy and early childhood.

100 **Methods**

101 **Study population**

102 The Cambridge Baby Growth Study (CBGS) is a birth cohort of infants born between 2001
103 and 2009 to mothers recruited from the Rosie Maternity Hospital, Cambridge, England.

104 Mothers aged 16 years and older and able to give consent were eligible to participate, where
105 all experiments were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

106 Routine data on infant sex, ethnicity, and gestational age were collected at birth, and the
107 mode of breastfeeding was reported by parents at the three-month clinic visit. Self-reported
108 maternal educational attainment was categorized into high (university degree or higher),
109 intermediate (vocational education or diploma), or low (high school education or less).

110 Anthropometry of the child was assessed repeatedly during infancy (at birth, 3, 12, 18 and 24
111 months) and at one childhood clinic visit (at 5 to 11 years). The CEBQ was administered by
112 post in 2018 to assess the children's present appetitive traits. At the time, the children were
113 aged between 9 to 17 years old, with a mean age of 12.5±1.4 years. The sampling frame for

114 this analysis was the 149 children who had growth velocities calculated at both infancy and
115 childhood, and completed the CEBQ (Figure 1).

116 **Appetitive traits**

117 The CEBQ is a validated parent-reported questionnaire with a robust factor structure, internal
118 reliability, and test-retest reliability [2]. It was administered to children aged 9 to 17, with a
119 mean age of 12.5 ± 1.4 years. The CEBQ comprises eight subscales (traits) ascertained by 35
120 items answered using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). *Food*
121 *responsiveness* (5 items) and *enjoyment of food* (4 items) indicate the child's likelihood and
122 enthusiasm of eating in response to food cues. *Desire to drink* (3 items) indicates the child's
123 preference to consume beverages, typically sweetened drinks. *Emotional overeating* (4 items)
124 and *emotional undereating* (4 items) indicate eating tendencies in response to intense
125 emotions. *Satiety responsiveness* (5 items) indicates the child's perception of feelings of
126 fullness. *Slowness in eating* (4 items) and *food fussiness* (6 items) indicate speed of eating or
127 lack of interest in food in response to its visual presentation, texture or taste, respectively
128 [2,3]. A mean score was calculated for each subscale, with higher scores indicative of greater
129 expression of that appetitive trait.

130 **Growth parameters**

131 Anthropometry was performed by trained research nurses at (mean \pm SD) '3 months' (3.2 ± 0.3
132 months), '12 months' (12.5 ± 0.5 months), '18 months' (18.5 ± 0.5 months), '24 months'
133 (24.2 ± 0.4 months), and 'childhood' (9.5 ± 1.1 years; range 5 to 11 years). Weight was
134 measured to the nearest 1 gram during infancy and 0.1 kilogram during childhood.
135 Length/height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm. Skinfold thickness was measured in
136 triplicate at four body sites (triceps, subscapular, flank, and quadriceps). Total body fat mass
137 was estimated during infancy using validated equations (fat mass in kilograms =

138 $2.167 + 0.512 * \text{weight in kilograms} + 0.041 * \text{triceps skinfold (SF) in millimeters} +$
139 $0.008 * \text{subscapular SF in millimeters} + 0.011 * \text{flank (suprailiac) SF in millimeters}$
140 $+ 0.002 * \text{age at visit in days} - 0.074 * \text{length in centimeters} - 0.037 * \text{sex (1=male; 0=female)}$
141 [26]. At the childhood visit, whole-body dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) was used
142 to assess total body fat mass [27].

143 Growth parameters were weight, length/height, BMI (calculated by dividing weight in
144 kilograms by height in meters squared), and body fat percentage (calculated by dividing total
145 fat mass in kilograms by body weight in kilograms, and then multiplying by 100). Weight,
146 length/height, and BMI values were converted to age- and sex-standardized z-scores by
147 comparison to the British 1990 growth reference [28,29], using the Stata zanthro package.
148 For body fat percentage, at each age, internally derived z-scores were calculated as the
149 standardized residuals of linear regression models that included age and sex as covariates.
150 Measurements at birth and 3 months of age were additionally adjusted for gestational age.

151 **Growth velocities**

152 Linear-spline multilevel models at the individual level (also known as piecewise linear
153 models) were performed to estimate growth velocities (expressed as change in z-score per
154 month) during each growth interval for weight, length/height, BMI, and body fat percentage.
155 Knot points were chosen at 3 months and 24 months based on visual inspection of the data, as
156 previously described [27], giving three growth intervals: 0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24
157 months to childhood.

158 **Statistical analysis**

159 Univariate distributions for all variables were presented as means and standard deviations for
160 continuous variables and as frequency and percentages for categorical variables. To test the
161 associations of growth velocities with each CEBQ trait, multivariable linear regression

162 models were performed. The models included the combined growth intervals for weight,
163 length/height, BMI, or body fat percentage, and as covariates: sex, age at CEBQ completion,
164 and the corresponding standardized birth measurements (weight, length, BMI, or body fat
165 percentage). Given that there might be age range-specific associations between the eating
166 behaviour and growth, we wanted to assess the heterogeneity across the age groups. To do
167 this, we used a post-estimation Wald test between the growth velocities estimated in each of
168 0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24 months to childhood.

169 All tests were two sided and performed using Stata version 16 (StataCorp, College Station,
170 TX) or R version 3.6.2 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). *P*
171 values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

172 **Results**

173 **Sample characteristics**

174 Descriptive characteristics of the 149 children with data on CEBQ and anthropometric
175 measurements during both infancy and childhood are summarized in Table 1, compared to
176 excluded children (*n* = 1436). The included and excluded samples were similar for all
177 characteristics, except for maternal education, which was lower in the excluded sample.

178 Correlations between the CEBQ traits among all children who collected such data (*n* = 411)
179 are shown in Supplementary Table 1. The food-approach appetitive traits (*food*
180 *responsiveness*, *enjoyment of food*, *emotional overeating*, and *desire to drink*) showed
181 variable weak to moderate positive intercorrelations (*r* = 0.05 to 0.56) as did the food-
182 avoidant appetitive traits (*satiety responsiveness*, *slowness in eating*, *emotional undereating*,
183 and *food fussiness*) (*r* = 0.09 to 0.49). The correlations between the food-approach and food-
184 avoidant appetitive traits were mostly negative, except for positive correlations between

185 *emotional overeating* and *emotional undereating* ($r = 0.36$) and between *desire to drink* and
186 *emotional undereating* ($r = 0.17$).

187 **Associations between appetitive traits and growth velocities**

188 *Food-approach appetitive traits*

189 Figure 2 and Supplementary Table 2 show the associations between parent-perceived food-
190 approach appetitive traits at 9-17 years old and growth velocities at different intervals from
191 birth to childhood. *Food responsiveness* was positively associated with growth velocities in
192 weight and BMI at 0-3 months ($\beta=0.23$ UK z-score change/month for 1-unit increase in
193 Likert scale, $P=0.009$ and $\beta=0.28$ UK z score change/month, $P=0.005$, respectively) and 24
194 months to childhood ($\beta=0.22$ UK z-score change/month, $P=0.015$ and $\beta=0.18$ UK z score
195 change/month, $P=0.021$, respectively), and in body fat percentage at all growth intervals.
196 *Enjoyment of food* was positively associated with growth velocities in BMI and body fat
197 percentage at 0-3 months and 24 months to childhood, and in weight at 24 months to
198 childhood. *Emotional overeating* was positively associated with velocities in weight at 0-3
199 months and 24 months to childhood, and in body fat percentage at all ages. These food-
200 approach appetitive traits showed no evidence of heterogeneity across the different growth
201 periods (0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24 months to childhood). *Desire to drink* showed no
202 association with any growth velocity except with BMI only at 0-3 months.

203 *Food-avoidant appetitive traits*

204 Figure 3 and Supplementary Table 3 show the associations between parent-perceived food-
205 avoidant appetitive traits at 9-17 years old and growth velocities at different intervals from
206 birth to childhood. Of the food-avoidant appetitive traits, only *satiety responsiveness* was
207 negatively associated with velocities in weight (0-3 months: $\beta=-0.24$ UK z-score
208 change/month for 1-unit increase in Likert scale, $P=0.002$; 3-24 months: $\beta=-0.25$ UK z score

209 change/month, $P=0.002$; 24 months to childhood: $\beta=-0.34$ UK z-score change/month,
210 $P=8\times 10^{-6}$) and BMI (0-3 months: $\beta=-0.22$ UK z-score change/month, $P=0.013$; 3-24 months:
211 $\beta=-0.2$ UK z-score change/month, $P=0.019$; 24 months to childhood: $\beta=-0.25$ UK z-score
212 change/month, $P=2\times 10^{-4}$) at all ages, and in body fat percentage at 0-3 months and 24 months
213 to childhood. *Satiety responsiveness* was also negatively associated with height velocity at 3-
214 24 months and 24 months to childhood, but not at 0-3 months (Wald test P -heterogeneity =
215 0.047).

216 Discussion

217 In this study, we modelled associations between parent-reported food-approach and food-
218 avoidant appetitive traits with objectively measured growth velocities at different time points
219 across child development. Consistent with previous research, we showed that the food-
220 approach appetitive traits (i.e. *food responsiveness*, *enjoyment of food*, and *emotional*
221 *overeating*) were positively associated with gains in weight, BMI, and body fat percentage at
222 most ages. These relationships were not seen for length or child height. Furthermore, the
223 food-avoidant appetitive traits (i.e. *satiety responsiveness*) showed negative associations with
224 most growth velocities. The associations with growth velocities were predominantly
225 consistent in effect size across infancy and childhood.

226 Our findings are consistent with previous reports, which showed that greater expression of
227 *food responsiveness* and *lower satiety responsiveness* were associated with higher weight
228 gain in infancy [18,19] and higher BMI in childhood [12,14,15,20]. Although appetite and
229 satiety are partially controlled by neurologically dissociable systems, there is a considerable
230 interplay between the two [11]. This is supported by the negative correlations between some
231 food-approach and food-avoidant traits in our study and also in previous reports [2,30,31].
232 The positive association between *enjoyment of food* with gains in BMI seen in our study is
233 consistent with findings of an earlier systematic review that investigated prospective

234 associations between *enjoyment of food* with BMI z-score and percentile [21]. This aligns
235 with previous research showing that appetitive traits are considered to be innate
236 predispositions, which in obesogenic environments elevates the risk for rapid weight gain
237 [21,22].

238 Consistent with some earlier longitudinal studies [11,13,14], *emotional overeating* was
239 positively associated with BMI gains, however *emotional undereating* showed no association
240 with any growth velocity. Despite their different patterns of association with obesity,
241 *emotional overeating* and *emotional undereating* were positively correlated, which aligns
242 with previous data [2,32,33]. Both traits indicate eating behaviour reactions to emotions,
243 usually negative emotions such as stress or sadness [32,34].

244 To our knowledge, the associations between the CEBQ traits and body fat percentage are
245 rarely explored. We found appetitive traits had stronger associations with body fat percentage
246 compared to other anthropometric measures. We observed associations of *food*
247 *responsiveness*, *enjoyment of food*, and *emotional overeating* (all food-approach traits) and
248 *satiety responsiveness* (a food-avoidant trait) with changes in body fat percentage. This might
249 suggest that prior studies employing BMI instead of adiposity measures could potentially
250 have underestimated the associations with appetitive traits. Furthermore, these findings could
251 indicate a distinct connection between appetitive traits and adiposity, as opposed to overall
252 body size and growth. There is indirect support for this hypothesis from other studies that
253 reported links between *food responsiveness* and liking of non-core foods, which tend to be of
254 higher caloric density [35,36], and between *emotional eating* with intakes of palatable
255 energy-dense foods [37] and sugar-sweetened drinks [38]. The strong association between
256 appetitive traits and body fat percentage underscores the potential of using eating behaviour
257 as a tool to differentiate between lean mass and fat mass in the context of childhood obesity.

258 A key insight in the present study is associations between appetitive traits and growth from
259 infancy to childhood. Although previous longitudinal studies showed similar findings on the
260 association between eating behaviour and growth during infancy or childhood [11–20], none
261 has investigated relationships spanning both age periods. Our findings suggest a broadly
262 consistent link between appetitive traits and various dimensions of growth across both
263 infancy and childhood. This highlights the potential of using appetitive traits for predicting
264 childhood obesity.

265 We found that *slowness in eating* and *food fussiness* were not associated with growth
266 velocity. This differs from the systematic review and meta-analysis by Kininmonth et al.,
267 which reported that *slowness in eating* was consistently negatively associated with adiposity
268 whereas *food fussiness* showed null associations [21]. It may be relevant to note that, in
269 general, *slowness in eating* declines with age in longitudinal studies, as children become
270 more proficient at eating [3], and we administered the CEBQ at relatively older ages than
271 other studies. The food-avoidant trait *food fussiness* indicates the innate tendency to be
272 selective about the foods a child is willing to try, often focusing on attributes such as texture
273 or presentation [39]. It tends to be most pronounced during late infancy and then reduces with
274 age as a result of repeated exposure to foods [39].

275 We acknowledge several limitations in our study. First, we administered the CEBQ at only
276 one time point that spanned a wide range of ages, and after the growth measurements. This is
277 challenging as appetitive traits are to some extent dynamic and the age at CEBQ
278 measurement influences the interpretation of the observed relationships. Furthermore, the
279 CEBQ has not been validated in older children (>14 years of age). However, there is
280 evidence that childhood appetitive traits track and show stability from infancy to childhood
281 [3–5]. Moreover, as children mature and attain increased autonomy in their food choices,

282 their ability to express genetic predisposition for heightened appetite might become more
283 evident [10]. Secondly, the single measurement of appetitive traits limited our ability to
284 assess their likely causal direction with growth. One key area of research in this field relates
285 to better understating the bidirectionality between eating behaviour and adiposity [21].
286 However, due to the single CEBQ measurement, the results presented in this study are not
287 able to disentangle directionality of the observed consistent associations. Furthermore, most
288 children in this study were of White European origin and were recruited from a single center,
289 which may reduce generalizability. That being said, the growth parameters of the CBGS
290 sample were comparable to the UK population-based growth references [29]. A key strength
291 of our study was the comprehensive range of anthropometric indicators included in the
292 analyses, including four skinfolds and DEXA scans. This allows for a more objective
293 understanding of the link between eating behaviors and adiposity development. These growth
294 data have been shown to have low relative intra-observer technical errors of measurements
295 [40]. Lastly, the CEBQ was parent-reported, and parental perceptions and social desirability
296 bias need to be taken into account.

297 **Conclusions**

298 This study shows positive and negative associations of food-approach and food-avoidant
299 appetitive traits at 9-17 years with growth velocities from birth to childhood, respectively.
300 Given the potentially stable appetitive traits suggested by several studies, this study suggests
301 the relevance of appetitive traits to growth velocities of adiposity-related traits, demonstrating
302 broadly consistent relationships from infancy to childhood. Future research is necessary to
303 determine the potential of mitigating the effects of appetitive traits in reducing risk for
304 childhood obesity.

305 **Abbreviations**

306 BEBQ: Baby Eating Behaviour Questionnaire; BMI: body mass index; CBGS: Cambridge
307 Baby Growth Study; CEBQ: Children's Eating Behaviour Questionnaire; DEXA: dual-
308 energy x-ray absorptiometry; FFMI: fat-free mass index; FMI: fat mass index; SF: skinfold.

309 **Data availability**

310 The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the
311 corresponding author on reasonable request.

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431 Author Contributions

432 FRD, DIO, KKO, and AS conceptualized and designed the study, interpreted analyses, and
433 reviewed and revised the manuscript; IAH, LO, and CJP designed the data collection
434 instruments, coordinated and supervised data collection, and reviewed and revised the
435 manuscript; TSC conducted data verification steps and data analyses, assisted with
436 interpretation of analyses and reviewed and revised the manuscript; and all authors approved
437 the submitted manuscript and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

438 Competing interests

439 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

440 Ethics declarations

441 Written informed consent was provided by mothers and the study was approved by the local
442 Cambridge research ethics committee.

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456 **Acknowledgements and Rights Retention Pilot**

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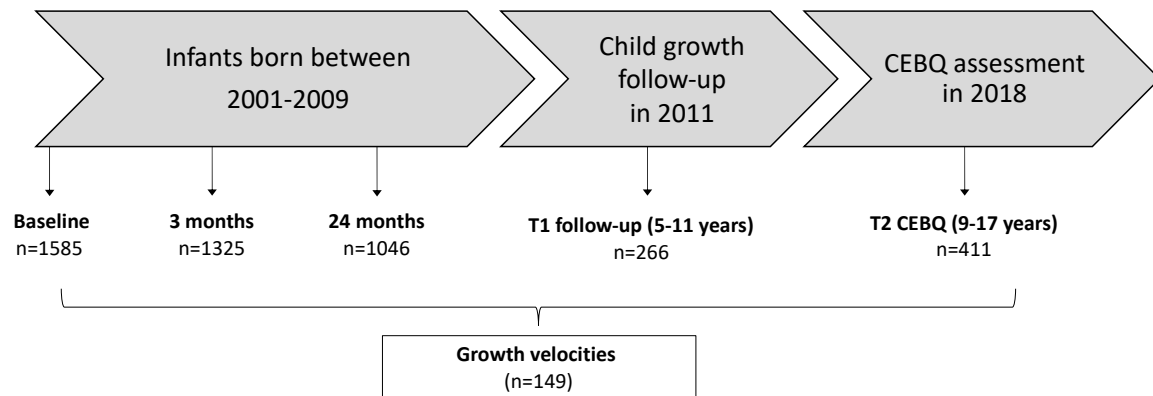
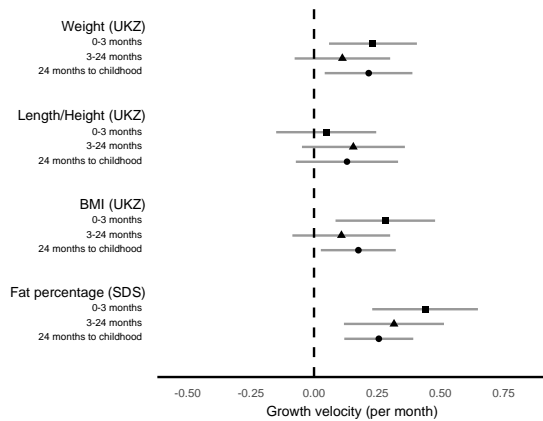


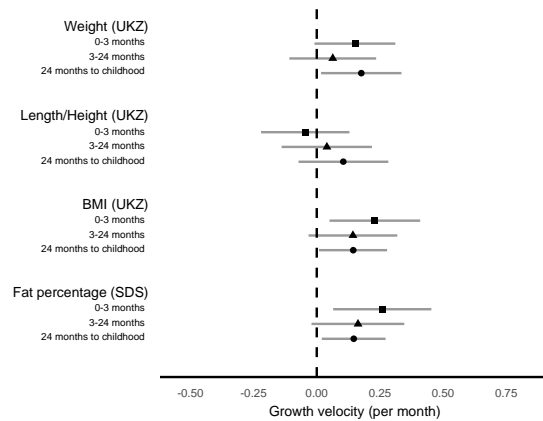
Figure 1. Flow diagram showing numbers of participating infants and children.

CEBQ, Child Eating Behaviour Questionnaire; T, time.

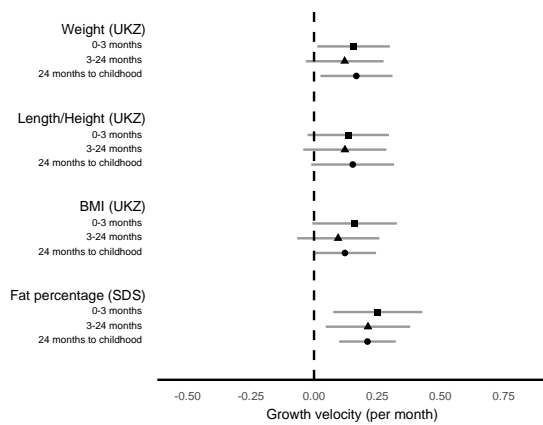
A, Food Responsiveness



B, Enjoyment of Food



C, Emotional Overeating



D, Desire to Drink

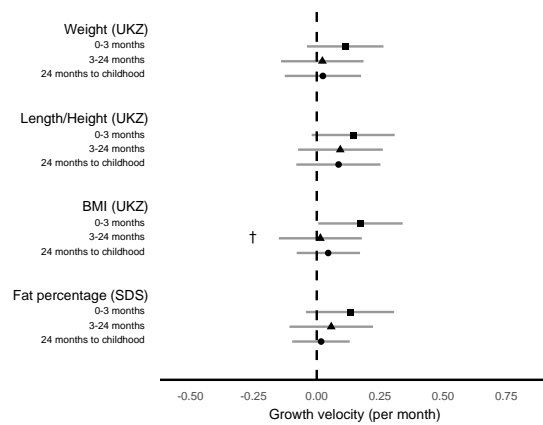
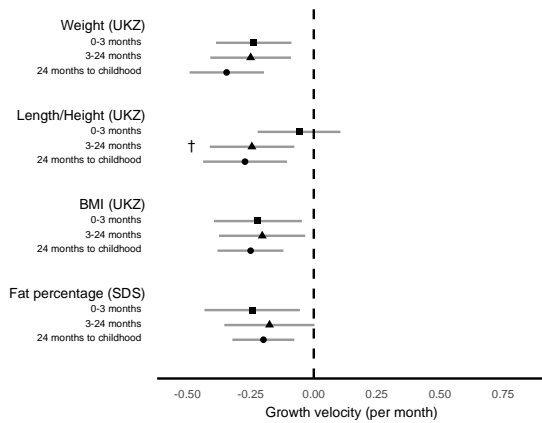


Figure 2. Associations between the food-approach appetitive traits (A, food responsiveness; B, enjoyment of food; C, emotional overeating; D, desire to drink) and individual-level growth velocities (UK z-score/month for 1-unit increase in Likert scale) for weight, length/height, BMI, and (standard deviations of) body fat percentage. All models were adjusted for sex, age at the questionnaire completion, and birth measurements (weight, length/height, BMI, or body fat percentage). Error bars display the 95% confidence intervals of each estimate.

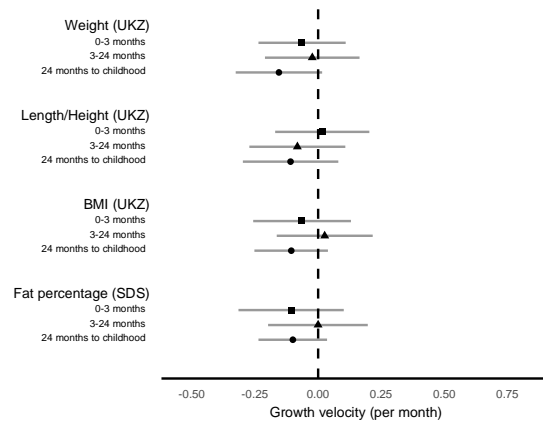
†Associations with growth velocities at 0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24 months to childhood (5 to 11 years) were statistically heterogenous (Wald test $P < 0.05$).

UKZ, UK z-score; SDS, standard deviation score.

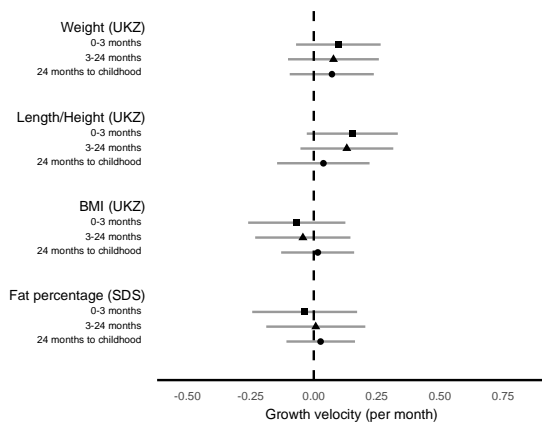
A, Satiety Responsiveness



B, Slowness in Eating



C, Emotional Undereating



D, Food Fussiness

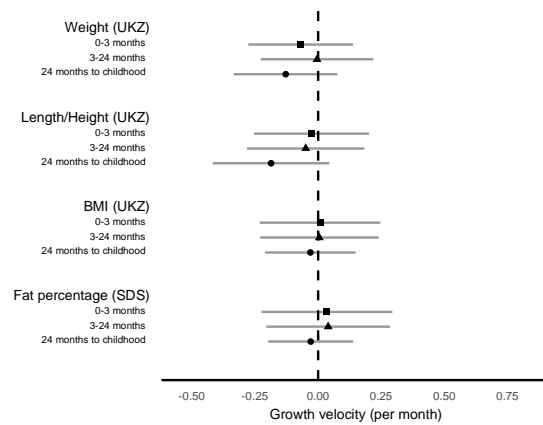


Figure 3. Associations between the food-avoidant appetitive traits (A, satiety responsiveness; B, slowness in eating; C, emotional undereating; D, food fussiness) and individual-level growth velocities (UK z-score/month for 1-unit increase in Likert scale) for weight, length/height, BMI, and (standard deviations of) body fat percentage. All models were adjusted for sex, age at the questionnaire completion, and birth measurements (weight, length/height, BMI, or body fat percentage). Error bars display the 95% confidence intervals of each estimate.

†Associations with growth velocities at 0-3 months, 3-24 months, and 24 months to childhood (5 to 11 years) were statistically heterogenous (Wald test $P < 0.05$).

461 UKZ, UK z-score; SDS, standard deviation score.
462

Table 1. Characteristics of the included analysis sample and excluded CBGS children

Characteristic	Mean (SD)	
	Analysis sample (n=149)	Excluded children (n=1436)
Boys, No. (%)	63 (42.3)	750 (52.5)
Ethnicity, No. (%)		
European	114 (97.4)	912 (95.9)
Asian	3 (2.6)	18 (1.9)
Black	-	11 (1.2)
Other	-	10 (1.0)
Missing/not specified	32	485
Maternal educational level, No. (%)		
High	61 (41.0)	414 (28.8)
Intermediate	16 (10.7)	267 (18.6)
Low	72 (48.3)	755 (52.6)
Maternal age at birth, years	33.7 (4.2)	33.5 (4.3)
Gestational age, weeks	40.1 (1.4)	39.8 (1.6)
Exclusive breastfeeding, weeks	5.9 (4.3)	4.9 (4.3)
Age 0 months		
Weight, kg	3.5 (0.4)	3.5 (0.5)
Length/height, cm	51.4 (2.3)	51.4 (2.6)
Body fat percentage	13.9 (4.4)	13.3 (5.5)
Age 3 months		
Weight, kg	6.1 (0.8)	6.2 (0.8)
Length/height, cm	61.2 (2.7)	61.1 (2.6)
Body fat percentage	23.5 (3.7)	23.8 (3.5)
Age 24 months		
Weight, kg	12.6 (1.3)	12.6 (1.5)
Length/height, cm	87.8 (3.3)	87.8 (3.5)
Body fat percentage	32.6 (1.9)	32.7 (2.0)
Childhood (5 to 11 years)		
Age (years)	9.5 (1.1)	9.5 (1.1)
Weight, kg	32.6 (7.0)	32.9 (6.9)
Length/height, cm	139.2 (8.9)	138.8 (9.0)
Body fat percentage	22.4 (7.9)	23.5 (8.4)
CEBQ traits ^a		
Age (years)	12.5 (1.5)	13.0 (0.9)
<i>Food responsiveness</i>	2.4 (0.8)	2.5 (0.9)
<i>Enjoyment of food</i>	4.0 (0.7)	3.9 (0.7)
<i>Emotional overeating</i>	1.9 (0.7)	2.1 (0.7)
<i>Desire to drink</i>	2.0 (0.7)	2.1 (0.8)
<i>Satiety responsiveness</i>	2.5 (0.7)	2.5 (0.7)
<i>Slowness in eating</i>	2.4 (0.8)	2.4 (0.8)
<i>Emotional undereating</i>	2.5 (0.7)	2.6 (0.8)
<i>Food fussiness</i>	2.5 (0.9)	2.7 (1.0)

463 CEBQ: Child Eating Behaviour Questionnaire; SD: standard deviation
464 ^aCEBQ subscale scores in 411 children.