



Full length article

Ambient air pollution and childhood obesity from infancy to late childhood: An individual participant data meta-analysis of 10 European birth cohorts

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ABSTRACT

Ambient air pollution may contribute to childhood obesity through various mechanisms. However, few longitudinal studies examined the relationship between pre- and postnatal exposure to air pollution and obesity outcomes in childhood. We aimed to investigate the association between pre- and postnatal exposure to air pollution and body mass index (BMI) and the risk of overweight/obesity throughout childhood in European cohorts. This study included mother–child pairs from 10 European birth cohorts ($n = 37111$ (prenatal), 33860 (postnatal)). Exposure to nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) and fine particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter $< 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) was estimated at the home addresses during pre- and postnatal periods (year prior outcome assessment). BMI z-scores (continuous) and overweight/obesity status (categorical: $\text{zBMI} \geq +2$ (< 5 years) or $\geq +1$ (≥ 5 years) standard deviations) were derived at 0–2, 2–5, 5–9, 9–12 years. Associations between air pollution exposure and zBMI were estimated separately for each pollutant and cohort using linear and logistic longitudinal mixed effects models, followed by a random-effects meta-analysis. The overweight/obesity prevalence ranged from 12.3–40.5 % between cohorts at 0–2 years, 16.7–35.3 % at 2–5 years, 12.5–40.7 % at 5–9 years, and 10.7–43.8 % at 9–12 years. Results showed no robust associations between NO_2 exposure and zBMI or overweight/obesity risk. Exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ during pregnancy was associated with 23 % (95%CI 1.05;1.37) higher overweight/obesity risk across childhood, and higher zBMI and overweight/obesity risk at 9–12 years. Heterogeneity between cohorts was considerable (I^2 :25–89 %), with some cohort-specific associations; e.g., pre- and postnatal exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was associated with lower zBMI across age periods in UK cohorts (ALSPAC and BiB), while postnatal exposure to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and NO_2 was associated with higher zBMI in one Dutch cohort (Generation R). Overall, this large-scale meta-analysis suggests that prenatal $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ exposure may be associated with adverse childhood obesity outcomes, but provides no evidence to support an effect of postnatal air pollution exposure, although cohort-specific associations were observed.

1. Introduction

The worldwide prevalence of childhood obesity has quadrupled since the 1990s, when 65.1 million girls and 94.2 million boys in school-age were estimated to have obesity, with rates in constant rise (Phelps et al., 2024). Obesity is a multifactorial condition and consequence of a complex interaction between genes, lifestyle, social and psychological determinants (An et al., 2018a; González-Muniesa et al., 2017). Overweight and obesity in early life is associated with a higher risk of developing adult obesity, poorer health and lower quality of life (World Health Organization, 2016), which may persist into later life if not prevented. The identification of modifiable risk factors of these conditions represents an important opportunity for public health interventions (World Health Organization (WHO), 2021).

Exposure to combustion related pollutants, such as particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter $< 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) $< 10 \mu\text{m}$ (PM_{10}), as well as nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) is widespread, with approximately 56 % of the population worldwide (4.4 billion people) living in more polluted, urban areas (Worldbank, 2023). Long-term exposure to these pollutants, in particular to nitrogen oxides (NO_x), NO_2 (Malacarne et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021), and particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10}) (Parasin et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2024), may be associated with increased risk of overweight and obesity in children, as described in four systematic reviews published in the past four years. Several direct and indirect mechanisms have been proposed to explain these associations, including inflammation (Jerrett et al., 2014), decreased glucose utilization in skeletal muscles (Toledo-Corral et al., 2018), endocrine system disruption (Darbre, 2018), respiratory diseases and decreased lung function (Wang et al., 2019), besides changes in basal metabolism and appetite control of the central nervous system (McConnell et al., 2016). Indirectly, areas in which motorized road traffic and air pollution levels are high, with limited safe, recreational areas and/or visible smog, noise, for example, may lead to behavior changes in the population, which may discourage outdoor physical activities and, consequently, increase weight gain (An et al., 2018a; Tainio et al., 2021).

There are critical windows of exposure to air pollution, including pregnancy and birth to 1 year of age, which are associated with developmental disorders, cancer, obesity and other conditions in childhood (Spencer-Hwang et al., 2023); thus, it is possible that exposure to air pollutants during these periods may also have disproportionate impacts on child growth and adiposity. However, evidence is inconsistent.

Prenatal exposure to ambient air pollution has been associated with fetal growth restriction and low birth weight (Bekkar et al., 2020; Health Effects Institute, 2022; Hung et al., 2022; Pedersen et al., 2013), decreased weight and a reduced risk of being in a trajectory with accelerated body mass index (BMI) gain at the age of 4 (Fossati et al., 2020). In addition, prenatal exposure has been associated with variable changes in growth rates, with increases in the growth rate from the 3rd trimester of gestation up to 3 months of infancy and decreases between 6 months and 2 years in a study from the US (Ji et al., 2023). Others, however, did not find significant associations between prenatal traffic-related air pollution exposure and childhood adiposity in the first years of life (Frondelius et al., 2018; Starling et al., 2020). Regarding postnatal air pollution exposure, several longitudinal and cross-sectional studies have reported associations between exposure to pollutants, such as NO_2 , and higher weight in children and adolescents from China (Huang et al., 2019), the Netherlands (Bloemsma et al., 2019) and Spain (De Bont et al., 2019; Warkentin et al., 2023). A meta-analysis by Huang et al., using mainly cross-sectional studies, indicated that postnatal exposure to ambient air pollutants, especially particulate matter, was associated with increased risk of childhood obesity and weight gain (Huang et al., 2022); prenatal exposure was not assessed in this meta-analysis. Others have, however, reported null associations between postnatal air pollution exposure and weight outcomes in childhood (Alderete et al., 2017; Fioravanti et al., 2018).

The heterogeneous results in the literature point to the necessity of larger studies incorporating pre- and postnatal exposure windows, obesity outcomes across childhood, and different geographical settings. Previous studies on air pollution and childhood obesity were mainly conducted in single countries within a specific region or city and, up to now, no studies have evaluated and compared associations across multiple longitudinal cohorts using individual participant data. Meta-analysis of individual participant data from each trial may improve the quality and scope of derived information in comparison with meta-analysis using aggregate data from publications (Riley et al., 2023). Additionally, this method enables a better control over confounders included in the models, as these are chosen a priori and harmonized across different cohorts.

For these reasons, the aim of this study was to examine associations of pre- and postnatal air pollution exposure with childhood sex- and age-specific measures of body mass index (BMI) and overweight/obesity status, using harmonized individual participant data from 10 European

birth cohorts.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Study population

This study was part of the European Union-funded project LifeCycle, which aims to investigate the effect of diverse early life stressors on health throughout life. LifeCycle has established the EU Child Cohort Network, a Europe-wide network of pregnancy and childhood cohort studies with harmonized data of more than 250,000 mother–child dyads. More detail on the LifeCycle project and the EU Child Cohort Network can be found elsewhere (Jaddoe et al., 2020; Pinot de Moira et al., 2021).

We analyzed data from 10 European birth cohorts. Cohorts were eligible to participate if they had (i) available harmonized data on air pollution exposure estimates, (ii) harmonized data on weight and height measurements in at least one age period of interest and, (iii) harmonized data uploaded on a local server to undergo federated analysis through the DataSHIELD platform (Gaye et al., 2014). We restricted our study population in each cohort to singletons with at least one exposure estimate (pre- or postnatal) and one outcome at any age between 0 to 12 years. The following cohorts were included: ABCD [Amsterdam Born Children and their Development, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, period of enrolment: 2003–2004] (van Eijsden et al., 2011), ALSPAC [Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children, Bristol, UK, 1991–1992] (Fraser et al., 2013), BiB [Born in Bradford, Bradford, UK, 2007–2011] (McEachan et al., 2024; Wright et al., 2013), DNBC [Danish National Birth Cohort, Copenhagen greater area, Denmark, 1996–2002] (Olsen et al., 2001), EDEN [Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant, Nancy and Poitiers, France, 2003–2006] (Heude et al., 2016), Gen R [the Generation R Study, Rotterdam, the Netherlands, 2002–2006] (Kooijman et al., 2016), INMA [Infancia y Medio Ambiente, Sabadell, Gipuzkoa, Valencia, Spain, 2003–2008] (Guxens et al., 2012), MoBa [Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study, Oslo urban area, Norway, 1999–2008] (Magnus et al., 2016), NINFEA [Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente, Florence, Rome, Turin, Italy, 2005–2016] (Richiardi et al., 2007) and RHEA [RHEA Mother & Child Cohort Study, Crete, Greece, 2007–2008] (Chatzi et al., 2017) (Fig. 1, Table 1). Before enrolment, all participants signed an informed consent in accordance with each center's ethics committee (cohort-specific ethical approvals can be found in [Supplementary Text 1](#)). The flowchart of cohorts and participants can be

found in [Supplementary Fig. 1](#).

2.2. Air pollution exposure assessment

The assessment of air pollution exposure was performed at the mother's residential address during pregnancy and the address at the time of each outcome assessment in each cohort. This was done in accordance with a standardized protocol for harmonized urban environment stressor data across all cohorts, developed as part of the LifeCycle project (Jaddoe et al., 2020).

Mean annual concentrations of NO₂ (in µg/m³) and PM_{2.5} (in µg/m³) were calculated using spatial land-use regression (LUR) models developed as part of the European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects (ESCAPE) project (Eeftens et al., 2012; Sellier et al., 2014) for cohorts where local ESCAPE models were available: ABCD, BiB, EDEN (NO₂), Gen R, INMA, MoBa (Oslo region), NINFEA and RHEA cohorts. The median LUR model variance (R²) for PM_{2.5} in ESCAPE project was 71 %, with variations in different regions (e.g., Oslo, Norway – 74 % and Catalunya, Spain – 86 %), which was considered high to moderate, with differences due to local particularities, especially the data availability at each region. For NO₂ (EDEN) seasonalized LUR models accounted for 99 % of the variance of exposure (Sellier et al., 2014). For cohorts where local ESCAPE models were not available, we used air pollution models developed as part of the Effects of Low-Level Air Pollution: A Study in Europe (ELAPSE) project (de Hoogh et al., 2018): ALSPAC, DNBC (Copenhagen greater area) and EDEN (PM_{2.5}) cohorts. In ELAPSE, LUR model variance for PM_{2.5} on all available monitoring sites explained 62 % of spatial variation, and the NO₂ model on all available sites explained 59 % of the spatial variation of the measured air pollution concentrations. The ESCAPE and ELAPSE models followed a very similar procedure and thus were comparable. ESCAPE model was applied directly on the participants locations allowing estimates at point resolution. The ELAPSE model was mapped at a 100 × 100 m resolution across Europe (de Hoogh et al., 2018).

To obtain estimates for each relevant exposure period in each cohort and for each participant, temporal adjustment was conducted using background routine monitoring stations. Briefly, for each participant the nearest routine air quality monitoring from the home address was selected and daily time-series data was retrieved to fully cover the target period. The adjustment factor was calculated as the ratio of the pollutant concentration from the routine monitor of each day and the annual average during 2009 and 2010 (baseline years of ESCAPE and ELAPSE models, respectively), following the common methodology developed within ESCAPE project (Alemán et al., 2021; Ballvé et al., 2024; Cruells et al., 2024; Kogevinas et al., 2023; Pedersen et al., 2013).

In the LifeCycle project, average annual exposure to each pollutant was calculated for the entire pregnancy period (prenatal exposure) and for every year of life, from birth up to 12 years of age. For prenatal exposures, we considered whole-pregnancy exposure, not trimester-specific exposures, since there are no indications in the literature for trimester specific effects (e.g. (Laurent et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2017)) and since not all cohorts had available trimester-specific exposure data at the time of the analysis.

Postnatal exposure was defined as the weighted average exposure in the year preceding the outcome assessment (postnatal exposure), as in [Supplementary Text 2](#).

2.3. BMI and weight status outcomes

We used two weight-related outcomes based on BMI: (i) continuous BMI z-scores (zBMI) and (ii) categorical variables indicating weight status (normal weight (including underweight), overweight/obesity). Height (in cm), weight (in kg) and age of the offspring were either measured in the clinic/research center or self-reported by parents ([Supplementary Table 1](#)). BMI was calculated as weight (kg) divided by height squared (m)² (Woo & Daniels, 2019), and sex- and age-specific



Fig. 1. Map of the 10 included cohorts from the EU Child Cohort Network.

Table 1
Summary of the cohort characteristics.

Cohort	Country	City/area	Birth years	Age range of included children ^a	Number of included children ^b	
					Prenatal	Postnatal
ABCD [Amsterdam Born Children and their Development]	the Netherlands	Amsterdam	2003–2004	0–12 years	3753 (NO ₂) 3753 (PM _{2.5})	2690 (NO ₂) 2690 (PM _{2.5})
ALSPAC [Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children]	UK	Bristol	1991–1992	0–12 years	7874 (NO ₂) 7874 (PM _{2.5})	7874 (NO ₂) 7874 (PM _{2.5})
BiB [Born in Bradford]	UK	Bradford	2007–2011	0–5 years	4029 (NO ₂) 4031 (PM _{2.5})	4006 (NO ₂) 4020 (PM _{2.5})
DNBC [Danish National Birth Cohort]	Denmark	Copenhagen greater area	1996–2002	0–2, 5–12 years	4340 (NO ₂) 4340 (PM _{2.5})	3146 (NO ₂) 3146 (PM _{2.5})
EDEN [Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant]	France	Nancy and Poitiers	2003–2006	0–9 years	1186 (NO ₂) 1580 (PM _{2.5})	1185 (NO ₂) 1578 (PM _{2.5})
Gen R [the Generation R Study]	the Netherlands	Rotterdam	2002–2006	0–12 years	4345 (NO ₂) 4345 (PM _{2.5})	4334 (NO ₂) 4334 (PM _{2.5})
INMA [Infancia y Medio Ambiente]	Spain	Sabadell, Gipuzkoa, Valencia	2003–2008	0–12 years	1817 (NO ₂) 1812 (PM _{2.5})	1815 (NO ₂) 1802 (PM _{2.5})
MoBa [Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study]	Norway	Oslo urban area	1999–2008	0–9 years	7028 (NO ₂) 7053 (PM _{2.5})	6282 (NO ₂) 6282 (PM _{2.5})
NINFEA [Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente]	Italy	Florence, Rome, Turin	2005–2016	0–12 years	1961 (NO ₂) 1961 (PM _{2.5})	1765 (NO ₂) 1765 (PM _{2.5})
RHEA [RHEA Mother & Child Cohort Study]	Greece	Crete	2007–2008	0–5 years	357 (NO ₂) 357 (PM _{2.5})	356 (NO ₂) 356 (PM _{2.5})

^a Children with available harmonized data on air pollution exposure estimates and harmonized data on weight and height measurements in at least one age period of interest;

^b Children included in the analyses (complete cases, with no missing covariates), per cohort, by period and pollutant, with some exposure and outcome data.

zBMI were estimated according to the World Health Organization (WHO) reference curves (de Onis, 2007; WHO, 2006). zBMI values ± 5 standard deviations (SD) from the population median were excluded. Weight status was defined according to the WHO as follows: For children < 5 years: Normal weight (inclusive underweight) for $\text{zBMI} < +2\text{SD}$, overweight for $\text{zBMI} \geq +2$ and $\text{zBMI} < +3\text{SD}$, and obesity for $\text{zBMI} \geq +3\text{SD}$ (WHO, 2006). For children ≥ 5 years: Normal weight (inclusive underweight) for $\text{zBMI} < +1\text{SD}$, overweight for $\text{zBMI} \geq +1$ and $\text{zBMI} < +2\text{SD}$, and obesity for $\text{zBMI} \geq +2\text{SD}$ (de Onis, 2007). We considered weight status as overweight/obesity vs. normal weight. The age periods used for the outcome assessment were: 0–2, 2–5, 5–9 and 9–12 years, which represent key developmental periods (infancy, pre-school age, adiposity rebound, and early puberty). In cases when the child had multiple zBMI measurements within an age period, the latest available measurement within the period was used.

2.4. Confounders

We defined confounders that were known or a plausible risk factor associated with exposure to air pollution and childhood zBMI. We used Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs) to identify these confounders in pre- and postnatal periods along with potential colliders that should not be adjusted for (Supplementary Fig. 2). Prenatal analyses included child sex (male/female) and exact age (in months) at follow-up, maternal

educational level at birth (categories described below) as an indicator of individual-level socioeconomic status (SES), maternal pre-pregnancy BMI (self-report or clinical measurement, in kg/m^2), maternal smoking during pregnancy (yes/no), and area-level SES measured during pregnancy. In our DAGs, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI was considered to be a confounder rather than a mediator, as is common in studies with a similar research question (De Bont et al., 2020; Fioravanti et al., 2018; Fleisch et al., 2015, 2017; Frondelius et al., 2018; Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2019). For the postnatal analyses, we further included prenatal exposure to air pollution as a confounder in the case of weak-to-moderate correlation with postnatal exposure (correlation coefficient < 0.8). For the multi-city cohorts EDEN, INMA, and NINFEA, we further adjusted the models for city, and for ABCD, BiB, and Gen R, we further included self-reported mother's ethnicity in the models (Western origin/Non-western origin/Mixed). This was done based on previous findings on different levels of air pollution depending on the city in the EDEN, INMA and NINFEA cohorts and the great variability of ethnic origin within the study population of ABCD, BiB and Gen R cohorts, which may have had an effect on zBMI outcomes in these specific populations (De Hoog et al., 2011; Guxens et al., 2014; Schembri et al., 2015; West et al., 2013).

Two SES measures were included in this study: one individual-level (maternal education) and one area-level (area deprivation index). These measures, although correlated, can capture different constructs either of an individual's vulnerability to or potential for exposure to air pollution

(Hajat et al., 2015). Maternal education level was based on the highest ongoing or completed education at the time of delivery, and was coded according to the International Standard Classification of Education 97 (ISCED-97) in three categories: low (no education to lower secondary; ISCED-97 categories 0–2), medium (upper and post-secondary; ISCED-97 categories 3–4) and high (degree and above; ISCED-97 categories 5–6) (UNESCO, 2006). An area deprivation index was used as an indicator of prenatal area-level SES. This index was derived from country-specific indicators categorized into tertiles, where 1 means the least deprived area and 3 means most deprived area (Supplementary Text 3). This index was not available in MoBa.

As sensitivity analyses, we further included in the models two urban characteristics: a cohort-specific walkability index and population density. These two measures were selected based on the described association between various urban characteristics on air pollution levels and childhood zBMI. Countries with higher total population exhibit higher air pollution emissions per capita (with the opposite happening when looking at density in urban areas) (Castells-Quintana et al., 2021). City density is also associated with increases in childhood BMI (De Bont et al., 2020) and walkable cities are, on the other hand, related to lower childhood BMI (Vrijheid et al., 2020), as well as lower air pollution levels (Nieuwenhuijsen, 2021). The walkability index used in the current analysis included the average of the following four components capturing differences in the physical environment: (i) Land use Shannon's Evenness Index (calculated as the proportional abundance of each land use type multiplied by that proportion, divided by the logarithm of the number of land use types within a 300 m buffer), (ii) Facility richness (calculated as the number of different facility types (e.g. restaurants, shops, schools, medical centres) within a 300 m buffer divided by the maximum (ten) potential types (range 0–1), (iii) Population density and (iv) Connectivity index (described as the number of street intersections within a 300 m buffer) with a range of 0 (less walkable) to 1 (most walkable) (Binter et al., 2022; Frank et al., 2006). Each component was converted to deciles before entering to formula to have equal weight. These four indices were summed and divided by four, resulting in a walkability index ranging from 0 to 1. Population density was expressed as the number of inhabitants per km² at the home address and was calculated using the Global Human Settlement Layer (Global Human Settlement Layer, 2015) for all cohorts except MoBa for which local data were used (Robinson et al., 2018).

2.5. Statistical analysis

This study used harmonized data, which were analyzed remotely through DataSHIELD (dsBase package, version 6.1.0) (Gaye et al., 2014).

We used a two-stage individual participant data meta-analysis approach to evaluate associations between pre- and postnatal air pollution exposure and zBMI and overweight/obesity status (overweight/obesity vs. normal weight). First, associations were estimated separately for each cohort using linear and logistic mixed effects models with repeated measures of exposures and outcomes (child id was treated as random effect and confounders as fixed effects). Then, cohort-specific coefficients and standard errors were combined using random-effects meta-analysis to obtain overall association estimates. Common and random effects estimates were described for adjusted models; in the common effects model it is assumed that there is one true effect size underlying all the studies in the meta-analysis, and in the random effects model, it is allowed that true effect sizes differ from study to study (Borenstein et al., 2010). Given the heterogeneity between studies in the current meta-analysis, we have focused our results on the random effects estimates. All analyses were adjusted for the main confounders selected by the DAGs. Results are described as beta estimates (95 % confidence intervals (CI)), for zBMI for every 10 µg/m³ increase in air pollution levels, and odds ratios (OR) (95 % CI) for overweight/obesity status (vs. normal weight). Additionally, we examined between-study

heterogeneity using the I² statistic (%). We performed longitudinal analyses on the associations on overall zBMI across all age periods and stratified by age period (0–2, 2–5, 5–9 and 9–12 years). We conducted only single-pollutant analysis; due to the moderate-to-very-strong correlations between pollutants (Supplementary Fig. 3), two-pollutant models were not performed.

We performed several sensitivity analyses. First, in order to assess potential effect modification by sociodemographic characteristics, we repeated analyses stratifying by maternal education (low/medium/high), as indicator of individual-level SES, and by residential area-level deprivation index (low/medium/high) as indicator of area-level SES. Second, aiming to explore if associations between air pollution exposure and child weight outcomes are independent of urban characteristics, we further adjusted the models for walkability and population density (separately and together in the same model). Third, to detect whether highly influential cohorts affected the overall effect estimates or heterogeneity we excluded each cohort in turn using a “leave-one-out analysis” approach (Viechtbauer & Cheung, 2010).

3. Results

A total of 37111 (prenatal) and 33860 (postnatal) mother–child dyads in the 10 cohort studies from eight European countries were included in this study. As described in Table 2, mother–child pairs from the BiB cohort (UK) were most likely to live in a high deprivation area (84.3 %), and mother–child pairs from the INMA cohort (Spain) were least likely to live in a high deprivation area (12 %). Child overweight/obesity status varied between cohorts and age periods, with prevalence ranging between cohorts from 12.3 to 40.5 % at 0–2 years, 16.7–35.3 % at 2–5 years, 12.5–40.7 % at 5–9 years, and 10.7–43.8 % at 9–12 years. Full characteristics of cohorts are described in Supplementary Table 2. Full cohort characteristics showed to be very similar to the study population, with exception to maternal education, in which we see participants with lower educational level in the full cohorts of NINFEA, MoBa and DNBC, compared to the study population. This might be explained by the fact that the study population included mainly the urban areas of each cohort, aiming to estimate urban exposures (three major Italian cities (Florence, Rome, Turin) in the NINFEA cohort, Oslo urban area in the MoBa cohort, and Copenhagen greater area in the DNBC cohort). Also, in the full cohort of EDEN we observe a lower proportion of participants from Western origin, compared to the study population (study population included the urban areas of Nancy and Poitiers). Cohort-specific information on prenatal and postnatal air pollution weighted average exposure throughout the age periods, and other urban exposures, are described in Table 3. During pregnancy, higher NO₂ and PM_{2.5} levels were seen in the Italian cohort (NINFEA), and lower levels were seen in Greece (RHEA) and Norway (MoBa), compared to the other cohorts (Table 3). Correlation plots between air pollutants, by cohort and time of exposure (pre- and postnatal), are displayed in Supplementary Fig. 3.

Meta-analyses of the estimates from the 10 cohorts showed no evidence of an association between exposure to NO₂ during pre- and postnatal periods, and zBMI and overweight/obesity across childhood with overall estimates close to null (e.g., prenatal exposure to NO₂ and zBMI per increment of 10 µg/m³: random effects β(95 %CI) 0.01(–0.01; 0.02); postnatal exposure to NO₂ and zBMI per increment of 10 µg/m³: β(95 %CI) –0.01(–0.04; 0.02) (Fig. 2). The association of pre- and postnatal NO₂ exposure with zBMI and overweight/obesity status showed considerable heterogeneity between cohorts (I² range 25–74 %) (Fig. 2). Some cohort-specific associations were observed: For prenatal NO₂ exposure, a positive association was observed in ABCD (zBMI and overweight/obesity status) and negative, but non-significant, associations were observed for ALSPAC (zBMI and overweight/obesity status). For postnatal NO₂ exposure, negative associations were observed in BiB, EDEN and INMA (zBMI), ALSPAC (overweight/obesity) and RHEA (zBMI and overweight/obesity). In contrast, the Dutch Gen R cohort

Table 2

Study population characteristics – outcomes and covariates.

	ABCD	ALSPAC	BiB	DNBC	EDEN	Gen R	INMA	MoBa	NINFEA	RHEA
Total N										
Prenatal	3753	7874	4029 (NO ₂ , 4031 (PM _{2.5}))	4340	1186 (NO ₂ , 1580 (PM _{2.5}))	4345	1817 (NO ₂ , 1812 (PM _{2.5}))	7028 (NO ₂ , 7053 (PM _{2.5}))	1961	357
Postnatal	2690		4006 (NO ₂ , 4020 (PM _{2.5}))	3146	1185 (NO ₂ , 1578 (PM _{2.5}))	4334	1815 (NO ₂ , 1802 (PM _{2.5}))	6282	1765	356
Area-level deprivation^a – n (%)										
Low	1178 (22.34)	2711 (29.98)	302 (3.05)	3459 (54.46)	654 (38.88)	1302 (15.22)	939 (48.25)	–	774 (39.25)	161 (42.04)
Medium	571 (10.83)	3107 (34.35)	1255 (12.69)	1576 (24.81)	429 (25.51)	1786 (20.87)	773 (39.72)	–	662 (33.57)	122 (31.85)
High	3524 (66.83)	3226 (35.67)	8336 (84.26)	1316 (20.72)	599 (35.61)	5469 (63.91)	234 (12.02)	–	536 (27.18)	100 (26.11)
Missing	341 (6.07)	33 (0.36)	5 (0.05)	1863 (22.68)	40 (2.32)	72 (0.83)	6 (0.31)		481 (19.61)	515 (57.35)
Maternal education at birth – n (%)										
High	2909 (52.22)	1235 (14.46)	2528 (27.73)	4174 (68.63)	957 (55.87)	3473 (45.2)	668 (34.96)	7486 (85.71)	1665 (69.78)	283 (31.55)
Medium	1512 (27.14)	5906 (69.16)	1416 (15.53)	1070 (17.59)	656 (38.3)	3420 (44.51)	784 (41.03)	1169 (13.38)	641 (26.87)	458 (51.06)
Low	1150 (20.64)	1399 (16.38)	5174 (56.74)	838 (13.78)	100 (5.84)	790 (10.28)	459 (24.02)	79 (0.9)	80 (3.35)	156 (17.39)
Missing	43 (0.77)	537 (5.92)	780 (7.88)	2132 (25.96)	9 (0.52)	946 (10.96)	41 (2.1)	582 (6.25)	67 (2.73)	1 (0.11)
Maternal pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m²)^b – Median (P5, P95)										
22.2 (18.59, 30.85)	–	27.73 (20.57, 33.51)	21.72 (18.41, 28.71)	22.1 (18.14, 31.99)	22.66 (18.69, 32.35)	22.53 (18.68, 31.9)	–	21.34 (17.92, 29.06)	23.51 (18.81, 34.59)	
Missing	433 (7.71)	7874 (100.0)	5537 (55.94)	559 (6.81)	33 (1.92)	2088 (24.2)	18 (0.92)	9316 (100)	41 (1.67)	6 (0.67)
Maternal smoking during pregnancy – n(%)										
Yes	617 (10.99)	2024 (25.0)	1588 (16.07)	2083 (25.6)	433 (25.22)	1910 (25.95)	605 (31.43)	1561 (16.76)	196 (8.08)	283 (33.41)
Missing	2 (0.04)	980 (10.8)	19 (0.19)	76 (0.93)	5 (0.29)	1270 (14.72)	27 (1.38)	1 (0.01)	26 (1.06)	51 (5.68)
Maternal ethnicity - n(%)										
Western origin	3193 (57.26)	8329 (98.38)	4130 (41.7)	–	1474 (85.6)	4643 (56.98)	1829 (95.51)	–	–	891 (99.66)
Non-western origin	1650 (29.59)	137 (1.62)	5571 (56.3)	–	8 (0.47)	2704 (33.19)	86 (4.49)	–	–	3 (0.34)
Mixed	733 (13.15)	0 (0)	185 (1.87)	–	6 (0.35)	801 (9.83)	0 (0)	–	–	0 (0)
Missing	38 (0.68)	611 (6.73)	12 (0.12)	8214 (100)	234 (13.6)	481 (5.57)	37 (1.90)	9316 (100)	2453 (100)	4 (0.45)
Child sex – n (%)										
Male	2787 (49.64)	4579 (50.45)	5094 (51.46)	4194 (51.06)	898 (52.15)	4350 (50.41)	1006 (51.54)	4727 (50.74)	1264 (51.53)	478 (53.23)
Child age (months) – Median (P5, P95)										
0–2 years	14 (12, 20)	12 (12, 12)	0 (0, 23)	12 (12, 14)	12 (0, 15)	14 (4, 19)	14 (12, 18)	12 (1, 16)	12 (3, 18)	14 (2, 20)
2–5 years	44 (26, 54)	49 (31, 49)	51 (25, 59)	–	48 (35, 57)	37 (24, 47)	51 (48, 55)	36 (24, 36)	48 (48, 48)	49 (48, 57)
5–9 years	69 (61, 85)	99 (69, 103)	–	85 (79, 88)	66 (60, 70)	72 (68, 89)	93 (75, 106)	84 (60, 84)	84 (75.35, 93)	–
9–12 years	128 (120, 141)	140 (127, 141)	–	133 (130, 138)	–	116 (113, 122)	131 (111, 140)	–	122 (119, 129)	–
Child zBMI^c – Median (P5, P95)										
0–2 years	0.48 (–1.14, 2.04)	0.79 (–0.68, 2.29)	–0.37 (–2.31, 1.57)	0.3 (–1.47, 2.12)	0.36 (–1.57, 1.94)	0.55 (–1.15, 2.08)	0.42 (–1.2, 2.03)	0.25 (–1.32, 1.82)	0.05 (–2.11, 2.12)	0 (–1.77, 1.77)
2–5 years	0.27 (–1.26, 1.95)	0.61 (–0.84, 2.17)	0.46 (–1.18, 2.44)	–	0.14 (–1.37, 1.66)	0.37 (–1.19, 2.06)	0.51 (–0.95, 2.45)	0.43 (–1.31, 2.1)	0.08 (–1.85, 2.06)	0.59 (–1.07, 2.81)
5–9 years	0.11 (–1.34, 1.97)	0.24 (–1.56, 2.42)	–	–0.06 (–1.61, 1.51)	–0.01 (–1.39, 1.52)	0.36 (–1.04, 2.29)	0.71 (–1.03, 2.9)	–0.02 (–1.74, 1.67)	–0.02 (–1.9, 2.09)	–
9–12 years	0.02 (–1.66, 2.16)	0.36 (–1.52, 2.4)	–	–0.28 (–1.97, 1.42)	–	0.29 (–1.3, 2.31)	0.76 (–1.29, 2.71)	–	0.07 (–2.23, 1.91)	–
Child overweight/obesity status^d – n (%)										
0–2 years	1357 (28.7)	477 (40.49)	1003 (12.33)	1122 (25.1)	418 (25.32)	2107 (31.08)	510 (26.32)	1797 (20.96)	444 (21.38)	147 (17.21)

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

	ABCD	ALSPAC	BiB	DNBC	EDEN	Gen R	INMA	MoBa	NINFEA	RHEA
2–5 years	1014 (22.05)	358 (32.05)	2315 (29.96)	–	254 (16.67)	1646 (25.5)	502 (30.91)	1577 (28.4)	374 (19.63)	281 (35.26)
5–9 years	782 (18.57)	2111 (25.66)	–	644 (12.49)	162 (13.81)	1709 (25.58)	581 (40.74)	1072 (15.38)	247 (21.15)	–
9–12 years	726 (22.39)	2504 (31.7)	–	463 (10.65)	–	1466 (26.39)	412 (43.83)	–	95 (20.08)	–

ABCD: Amsterdam Born Children and their Development; ALSPAC: Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children; BiB: Born in Bradford; DNBC: Danish National Birth Cohort; EDEN: Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant; Gen R: Generation R Study; INMA: Infancia y Medio Ambiente; MoBa: Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study; NINFEA: Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente; RHEA: Rhea Mother & Child Cohort Study; P: Percentile; BMI: Body mass index, zBMI: Body mass index z-score.

^a Area-level deprivation defined in each cohort, as described in Supplementary Text 3;

^b Maternal pre-pregnancy BMI defined as weight/height²;

^c Sex- and age- specific zBMI and child weight status were estimated according to the World Health Organization (WHO) reference curves (de Onis, 2007; WHO, 2006).

reported a positive association between postnatal NO₂ exposure with zBMI (β (95 %CI) 0.04(0.02; 0.07)) and overweight/obesity status (OR (95 %CI) 1.14(1.02; 1.27)).

For prenatal PM_{2.5} exposure, increased exposure was associated with an increased risk of overweight/obesity (OR(95 %CI) 1.23 (1.01; 1.51), whereas a small non-significant increase in zBMI was observed (β (95 %CI) 0.04 (–0.03; 0.10) (Fig. 3). There were no associations with postnatal PM_{2.5} exposure. Associations for PM_{2.5} exposure also showed considerable heterogeneity between cohorts, with I² values ranging from 43 to 89 % (Fig. 3). We observed cohort-specific associations in both positive and negative directions: For prenatal PM_{2.5} exposure, negative associations were found for ALSPAC (zBMI), and positive associations were seen for Gen R (zBMI and overweight/obesity). For postnatal PM_{2.5} exposure, negative associations were seen in ALSPAC, INMA and RHEA (zBMI and overweight/obesity), BiB (zBMI, only) and positive associations were seen for Gen R (zBMI and overweight/obesity).

Fig. 4 shows results of the meta-analyses stratified by age period of the outcome assessment. Associations between air pollution exposures and zBMI and overweight/obesity status were close to null in most age periods and did not reach statistical significance. In the period between 9–12 years, higher exposure to PM_{2.5} during pregnancy was associated with a statistically significant increase in zBMI per increments of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (β (95 %CI) 0.13(0.03; 0.24) and in the risk of overweight/obesity (OR(95 %CI) 1.29(1.04; 1.60)).

Analyses stratified by individual- and area-level SES showed little difference in associations by SES, with overlapping confidence intervals between the SES strata. Nevertheless, in the most deprived area-level SES group (T3) a statistically significant association was observed between prenatal PM_{2.5} and increased zBMI per increments of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (β (95 %CI) 0.10(0.01; 0.18)). A weaker positive association was found between prenatal NO₂ exposure and zBMI per increments of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in this SES group (β (95 %CI) 0.03(0.00; 0.06)) (Supplementary Figs. 4 and 5). Some negative associations in specific SES groups were seen in the postnatal exposure period (e.g., in the medium deprivation group of area-level SES for postnatal PM_{2.5} exposure and zBMI per increments of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (β (95 %CI) –0.19(–0.34 to –0.04)).

Models with further adjustments by walkability and population density showed similar effect estimates to our main models without these adjustments (Supplementary Fig. 6). Sensitivity analyses excluding one cohort at the time mostly showed minor changes in β and OR estimates that do not change the main conclusions. An exception was the association between prenatal NO₂ and overweight/obesity risk which increased from 1.01 (95 %CI 0.96; 1.07) (overall random-effect OR) to 1.28 (95 %CI 1.04; 1.58) when removing the DNBC cohort. Decreases in the heterogeneity (I²) were observed mainly for prenatal NO₂ exposure, especially when removing the ABCD cohort, and for prenatal PM_{2.5} exposure, especially when removing the Generation R cohort. (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4).

4. Discussion

In this meta-analysis of individual participant data from 10 European cohorts and a sample size of 37111 (prenatal) and 33860 (postnatal) mother–child pairs, pre- and postnatal exposure to NO₂ and PM_{2.5} showed few associations with obesity-related outcomes across key developmental periods during childhood. Exposure to PM_{2.5} during pregnancy was associated with higher overweight/obesity risk across childhood, and specifically with higher zBMI and overweight/obesity risk in one age period (9–12 years). Considerable heterogeneity between cohorts was noted, with some cohorts showing increased zBMI or overweight/obesity risk with increased air pollution exposure, and others showing negative or null associations.

This study investigated both pre- and postnatal ambient air pollution exposure and obesity-related outcomes during childhood in a multi-cohort study using individual participant data, rather than aggregate estimates from publications. Associations between pre- and postnatal air pollution exposures and childhood obesity-related outcomes have been studied in a number of single cohort studies, but results are inconsistent. Regarding prenatal air pollution exposure, various studies have shown that exposure to pollutants during pregnancy, such as PM_{2.5}, may be associated with decreased weight and BMI at birth and in first years of life (Bekkar et al., 2020; Fossati et al., 2020; Hung et al., 2022). Two studies in the US suggested a complicated and dynamic exposure-weight relationship between the exposure to air pollution in prenatal life and weight outcomes. Infants in the Project Viva cohort exposed to higher prenatal traffic-related air pollution (PM_{2.5} and black carbon) exhibited reduced fetal growth at birth and rapid postnatal weight-for-length gain between 0–6 months of age (Fleisch et al., 2015). More recently, Ji and colleagues found that those children exposed to higher levels of NO₂ had faster “catch-up growth” rates in early infancy, which may lead to increased risk of obesity later in life (Ji et al., 2023). However, other studies that investigated maternal prenatal particulate matter exposure and child weight-related outcomes, did not show significant associations with childhood BMI (Huang et al., 2019; Sears et al., 2019), cardiometabolic health (Fleisch et al., 2017) nor BMI trajectories (Fleisch et al., 2019). In the current study, we observed an association between prenatal PM_{2.5} exposure and greater overweight/obesity risk across childhood, and specifically with higher zBMI and overweight/obesity risk in one age period (9–12 years). However, this age-specific analysis was based on less cohorts than the repeated outcome analysis due to less cohorts having data in this age group, and this result needs to be interpreted with caution. Experimental studies in animals have shown that PM_{2.5} exposure during pregnancy led to decreased body and tail length, birth weight, and survival rates of the young mice (Huang et al., 2023), the development of increased body weight, altered blood pressure, and increased susceptibility to cardiovascular disease and heart failure in offspring's adulthood (Weldy et al., 2014), besides increased risk for metabolic syndrome in the offspring (Zhang et al., 2019).

Table 3Study population characteristics – prenatal and postnatal air pollution estimates^a and other urban characteristics.

	ABCD	ALSPAC	BiB	DNBC	EDEN	Gen R	INMA	MoBa	NINFEA	RHEA
Total N										
Prenatal	3753	7874	4029 (NO ₂), 4031 (PM _{2.5})	4340	1186 (NO ₂), 1580 (PM _{2.5})	4345	1817 (NO ₂), 1812 (PM _{2.5})	7028 (NO ₂), 7053 (PM _{2.5})	1961	357
Postnatal	2690		4006 (NO ₂), 4020 (PM _{2.5})	3146	1185 (NO ₂), 1578 (PM _{2.5})	4334	1815 (NO ₂), 1802 (PM _{2.5})	6282	1765	356
Prenatal air pollution exposure (µg/m³)^b – Median (P5, P95)										
NO ₂	36.62 (27.53, 48.16)	27.21 (19.22, 33.38)	23.04 (18.16, 29.98)	47.27 (38.72, 57.91)	21.28 (11.3, 48.92)	38.35 (30.41, 49.36)	26.23 (10.13, 51.65)	20.66 (10.87, 37.17)	49.25 (19.49, 76.25)	11.39 (7.9, 21.89)
Missing	118 (2.1)	193 (2.13)	15 (0.15)	634 (7.72)	464 (27)	37 (0.43)	108 (5.53)	962 (10.33)	352 (14.35)	1 (0.11)
PM _{2.5}	18.47 (16.78, 21.02)	13.33 (11.92, 14.67)	10.43 (8.62, 12.66)	18.22 (14.89, 20.9)	17.11 (14.17, 21.1)	19.62 (16.88, 23.82)	14.72 (10.89, 18.89)	10.8 (7.73, 14.46)	24.39 (9.64, 35.71)	14.18 (11.02, 18.67)
Missing	118 (2.1)	193 (2.13)	5 (0.05)	634 (7.72)	2 (0.12)	37 (0.43)	114 (5.84)	937 (10.06)	352 (14.35)	1 (0.11)
Postnatal NO₂ – weighted average (Median (P5, P95))										
0–2 years	35.01 (26.67, 45.04)	27.18 (19.69, 33.11)	24.21 (18.76, 34.79)	45.12 (37.14, 53.34)	20.57 (11.06, 46.91)	37.36 (30.29, 47.23)	27.53 (9.54, 50.79)	35.16 (24.62; 44.15)	48.67 (18.04, 75.18)	13.65 (10.59, 24.8)
2–5 years	34.32 (26.27, 43.86)	27.09 (19.72, 32.76)	25.94 (13.71, 33.54)	–	17.92 (10.48, 39.5)	35.08 (27.94, 43.68)	22.25 (8.54, 46.68)	35.19 (24.4, 45.44)	45.41 (16.99, 61.07)	13.92 (10.71, 25.03)
5–9 years	32.09 (25.01, 41.43)	23.57 (16.17, 29.57)	–	40.28 (32.12, 50.9)	15.99 (10.12, 33.73)	32.9 (24.08, 41.05)	22.75 (8.15, 46.85)	33.28 (23.27, 44.47)	44.15 (19.98, 59.05)	–
9–12 years	15.24 (11.15, 32.29)	22.08 (15.17, 26.9)	–	33.39 (26.78, 39.8)	–	29.03 (17.8, 36.67)	26.8 (3.04, 43.76)	–	40.99 (22.61, 51.48)	–
Postnatal PM_{2.5} – weighted average (Median (P5, P95))										
0–2 years	17.56 (16.69, 19.48)	13.37 (12.18, 14.41)	10.7 (8.9, 14.75)	18.44 (15.19, 21.04)	16.67 (14.25, 18.93)	17.99 (16.96, 22.78)	14.89 (10.72, 18.72)	9.84 (6.80; 13.7)	24.44 (8.68, 36.61)	17.29 (14.95, 20.23)
2–5 years	17.71 (16.81, 19.34)	13.39 (12.23, 14.48)	11.87 (6.12, 14.1)	–	15.86 (13.5, 18.39)	17.49 (16.31, 19.28)	13.31 (10.53, 15.72)	9.14 (6.45; 12.1)	22.77 (8.32, 26.92)	17.83 (15.37, 20.69)
5–9 years	17.02 (16.22, 18.37)	11.62 (10.22, 13.59)	–	16.07 (13.12, 19.37)	15.37 (13.44, 17.81)	16.18 (15.53, 17.38)	13.69 (10.61, 15.85)	7.66 (5.67; 10.57)	21.74 (12.15, 26.76)	–
9–12 years	7.42 (7.01, 15.3)	11.04 (9.8, 11.99)	–	14.34 (11.93, 16.58)	–	14.94 (12.9, 17.42)	12.65 (9.16, 14.65)	–	20.13 (14.4, 22.84)	–
Population density during pregnancy (persons/km² in 100 m) – Median (P5, P95)	6752.25 (3132.1, 6842.3)	4320 (775.45, 11616)	5552 (1225.04, 19312)	8233.43 (2047.07, 19800.6)	2092.98 (114.51, 7595.57)	4136.41 (2457.38, 4136.41)	6121.41 (608.85, 12049.58)	6412.18 (1934.02, 25572.41)	10202.16 (5321.16, 10202.16)	5458.87 (333.25, 6887.29)
Missing	126 (2.24)	210 (2.31)	49 (0.5)	503 (6.12)	147 (8.54)	952 (11.03)	165 (8.45)	1038 (11.14)	363 (14.8)	19 (2.12)
Walkability during pregnancy (0–1 range; 300 m buffer) – Median (P5, P95)	0.38 (0.25, 0.48)	0.28 (0.2, 0.42)	0.32 (0.22, 0.45)	0.38 (0.25, 0.55)	0.28 (0.2, 0.4)	0.35 (0.28, 0.45)	0.32 (0.22, 0.48)	0.3 (0.17, 0.45)	0.38 (0.3, 0.48)	0.38 (0.2, 0.5)
Missing	115 (2.05)	301 (3.32)	9 (0.09)	503 (6.12)	404 (23.46)	957 (11.09)	133 (6.81)	2224 (23.87)	353 (14.39)	237 (26.39)

ABCD: Amsterdam Born Children and their Development; ALSPAC: Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children; BiB: Born in Bradford; DNBC: Danish National Birth Cohort; EDEN: Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant; Gen R: Generation R Study; INMA: Infancia y Medio Ambiente; MoBa: Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study; NINFEA: Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente; RHEA: Rhea Mother & Child Cohort Study; P: Percentile.

^a Values are described as weighted average air pollution levels in the different age periods;

^b Ambient air pollution levels were estimated using land-use regression (LUR) models developed within the European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects (ESCAPE) project (Eeftens et al., 2012) and through the Effects of Low-Level Air Pollution: A Study in Europe (ELAPSE) project (de Hoogh et al., 2018).

Further studies are necessary to better understand how prenatal air pollution exposure may affect adiposity-related outcomes in different key developmental periods during childhood.

We found no evidence for an association between postnatal air pollution exposure and childhood zBMI and overweight/obesity status. The literature has also been inconsistent with respect to findings on the

association between postnatal air pollution exposure and weight outcomes in childhood. In China, exposure to PM₁, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and NO₂ was associated with increased zBMI, waist circumference and waist-to-height ratio, and higher prevalence of both general and central obesity, in children and adolescents (Zhang et al., 2021). In a recent natural experiment study in Catalonia, Spain, those children and

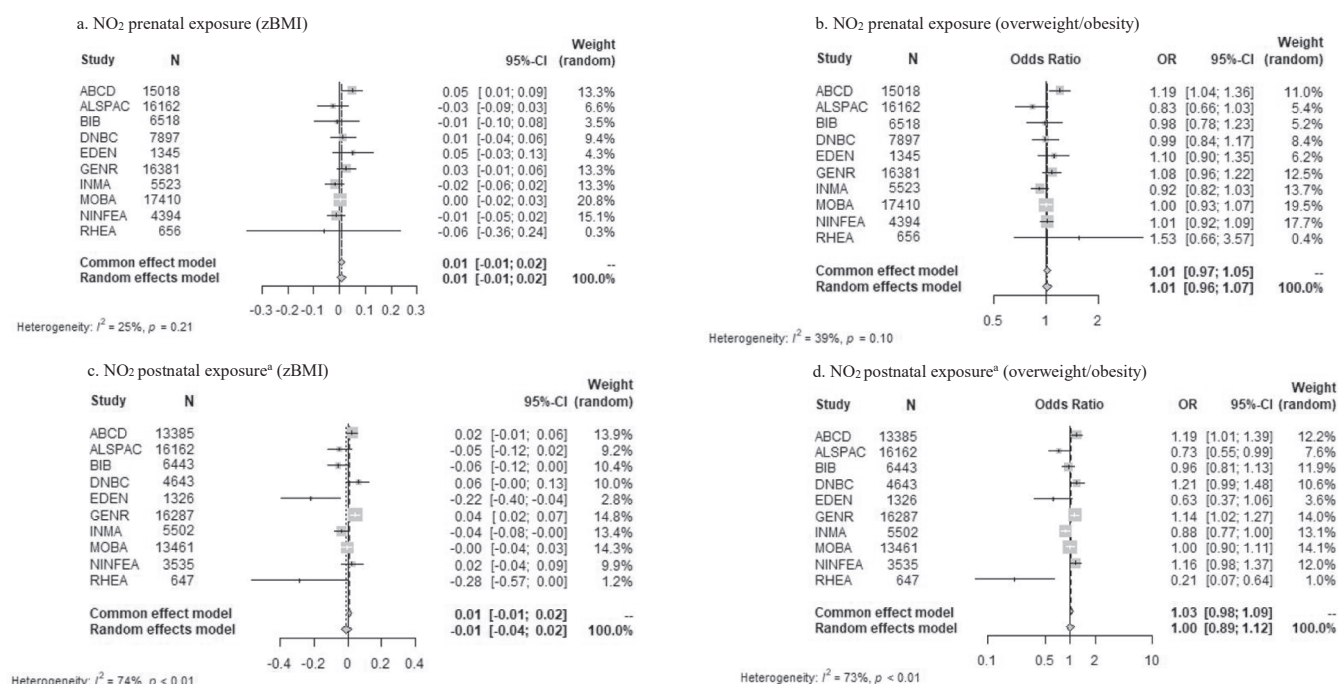


Fig. 2. Forest plot of associations between pre- and postnatal exposure^a to NO₂ and childhood zBMI and overweight/obesity using two-stage meta-analysis. ABCD: Amsterdam Born Children and their Development; ALSPAC: Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children; BiB: Born in Bradford; DNBC: Danish National Birth Cohort; EDEN: Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant; Gen R: Generation R Study; INMA: Infancia y Medio Ambiente; MoBa: Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study; NINFEA: Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente; RHEA: Rhea Mother & Child Cohort Study; zBMI: Body mass index z-score; OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence intervals. Prenatal exposure models adjusted for sex, child age (in months), individual-level SES (maternal education), pre-pregnancy BMI, smoking during pregnancy, and area-level SES. Postnatal exposure models were further adjusted for prenatal air pollution exposure. Further adjustments: INMA, NINFEA and EDEN: for city, in Gen R, ABCD and BiB: for ethnicity. I^2 : Test for heterogeneity (%). ^a Values are described as weighted average postnatal air pollution levels in the year before zBMI measurement, in the different age periods.

adolescents who moved to more polluted areas (NO₂, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}) showed prospective increases in zBMI (Warkentin et al., 2023). The study by De Bont and colleagues, also in Catalonia, highlighted that ambient air pollution exposure in childhood, especially at school, was associated with 30 % increased odds of having overweight or obesity (De Bont et al., 2019). Another study, using the PIAMA birth cohort in the Netherlands, showed that NO₂ exposure throughout childhood was associated with an increased odds (adjusted OR = 1.40) of overweight in children and adolescents aged 3–17 years (Bloemsma et al., 2019). However, others reported null findings. A study in Italy did not find a significant association between long-term exposure to air pollution (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, NO₂, NO_x, coarse particles, and PM_{2.5abs}) and traffic density, and several body weight measures including BMI, waist circumference, waist-to-height ratio and prevalence of overweight/obesity in 4–8-year-olds (Fioravanti et al., 2018). In another study in the south of the UK, PM₁₀ exposure in preschool-age (4–5 years) was associated with small relative risk of overweight/obesity at 10 years, however not the other pollutants (PM_{2.5}, NO_x) (Wilding et al., 2020). A recent systematic review concluded that there is strong evidence of association between NO₂ and NO_x (which are traffic-related pollutants) and childhood obesity, but evidence is still weak for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} (which are driven to a lesser degree by local traffic). It is argued that the biochemical mechanisms in which NO₂ is involved in the human body might also impact the onset of obesity (Malacarne et al., 2022). Besides variability of associations between air pollution and weight by specific air pollutants, this link may also vary by sex, age group (children vs. adults) (An et al., 2018a), study design (cross-sectional vs. longitudinal), methodological disparities in body weight and air pollution measurements, and heterogeneity of study populations (Zhang et al., 2021).

Our study finds prenatal, but not postnatal, exposure to PM_{2.5} to be associated with obesity-related outcomes in childhood. From the previous epidemiological studies, described above, there is no clear

indication of which time window of exposure would be expected to be more sensitive for the development of childhood obesity. Our study results, if causal, support evidence for mechanisms during pregnancy, rather than during childhood, to be of most concern. Further studies into the critical time windows for the potential effects of air pollution on childhood obesity are needed to support this. Our study also suggests that prenatal PM_{2.5}, but not NO₂, exposure is associated with obesity-related outcomes in children. Previous studies do not provide clear evidence on whether PM_{2.5} may be more likely to be associated with obesity than NO₂. We note that NO₂ and PM_{2.5} share common sources and are mainly driven by combustion-related activities, such as vehicle exhaust and agricultural emissions (Cai et al., 2020). Differences between the pollutants include that NO₂ has been described to be a more local, short-lived trace gas (Matandirotya and Burger, 2021), whereas PM_{2.5} can be transported over regional and long-range transboundary distances (Jun & Gu, 2023). Our study included mainly urban areas and traffic would be the main source of both pollutants in these study areas. The two pollutants showed moderate to strong correlations in the current study, and differences in study areas can partly explain differences in correlations between cohorts.

Possible explanations for the inconsistencies and heterogeneity between cohorts found in the association between air pollution exposure, both during pregnancy and in childhood, and childhood BMI may reflect a number of factors including: (i) different levels of air pollution exposure in the different cohorts; (ii) possible differences in lifestyle behaviors of children from different countries, which may alter their exposure to ambient air pollution and have an effect on weight; and (iii) possible residual confounding by SES and other factors specific to each city environment. Residual confounding may, for example, explain the association between higher air pollution levels and lower BMI we observed in the British BiB cohort. This cohort is characterized by a high level of socioeconomic deprivation and ethnic diversity, with half of the sample

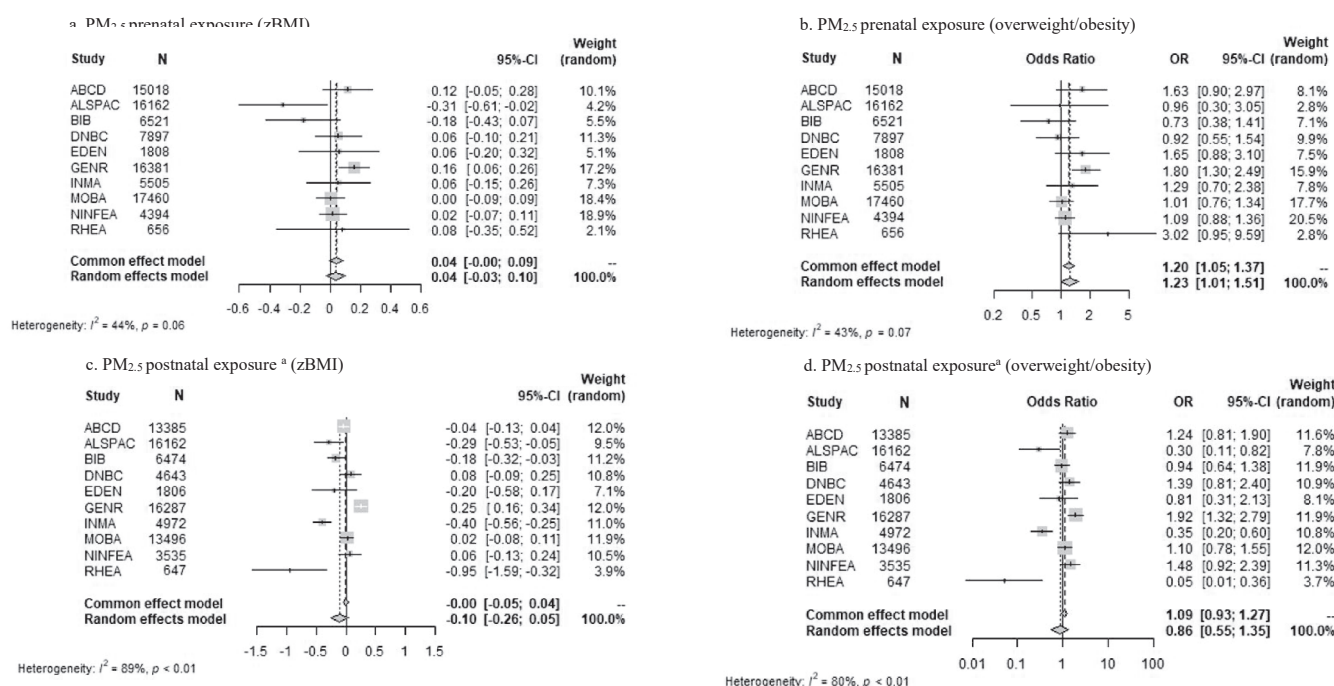


Fig. 3. Forest plot of associations between pre- and postnatal exposure^a to PM_{2.5} and childhood zBMI and overweight/obesity using two-stage meta-analysis. ABCD: Amsterdam Born Children and their Development; ALSPAC: Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children; BiB: Born in Bradford; DNBC: Danish National Birth Cohort; EDEN: Etude des Déterminants pré et postnatals précoces du développement et de la santé de l'Enfant; Gen R: Generation R Study; INMA: Infancia y Medio Ambiente; MoBa: Norwegian Mother, Father and Child Cohort Study; NINFEA: Nascita e INFanzia: gli Effetti dell'Ambiente; RHEA: Rhea Mother & Child Cohort Study; zBMI: Body mass index z-score; OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence intervals. Prenatal exposure models adjusted for sex, child age (in months), individual-level SES (maternal education), pre-pregnancy BMI, smoking during pregnancy, and area-level SES. Postnatal exposure models were further adjusted for prenatal air pollution exposure. Further adjustments: In INMA, NINFEA and EDEN: for city, in Gen R, ABCD and BiB: for ethnicity. I^2 : Test for heterogeneity (%). ^a Values are described as weighted average postnatal air pollution levels in the year before zBMI measurement, in the different age periods.

of Pakistani origin, a population that lives in the most polluted and deprived parts of the city, whilst at the same time having a lower BMI (West et al., 2018) and lower susceptibility to air pollution exposure for some outcomes, such as birth weight, compared to their White British peers (Schembri et al., 2015). Our adjustment for ethnicity and SES may not have completely controlled for these effects. Also, we note that the cohorts studied were very socially diverse, and that the relationship between SES and air pollution exposure can vary between cities, with some low SES communities facing higher exposure to air pollution and other environmental hazards and others lower exposures (Hajat et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2018). In the Spanish cohort INMA, for example, contrasting patterns were seen among cities, with highly educated families being exposed to higher levels of air pollution in Sabadell, and the opposite pattern in Valencia. In Oslo (MoBa), however, high income families were exposed to higher levels of NO₂ and in Bradford (BiB) the opposite was found (i.e., high family education and high family income were exposed to lower levels of air pollutants) (Robinson et al., 2018). To summarize, these are some examples of factors that might explain the high heterogeneity found in the current study and the complex and dynamic relation between air pollution exposure and childhood weight.

The major strength of this study is the large geographical coverage including eight countries and 10 cohorts in Europe, which enabled the study of culturally diverse populations. We were also able to include different urban environments, besides urban characteristics that could be confounders in our analyses. Additionally, we meta-analyzed individual participant data from different cohorts, which may have improved the quality and scope of derived information (Riley et al., 2023), increased our statistical power and enabled more precise estimates compared to single cohort studies. Finally, one important practicality of the current study is the use of federated analyses, which enabled the analysis of data from multiple studies/cohort without the need of data transfer, decreasing the administrative burden of data

transfer agreements, and governance issues of physical data sharing (Cadman et al., 2023).

This study also has limitations that need to be mentioned. First, two different spatial models (ESCAPE and ELAPSE) were used to estimate the exposures. Although they were developed using sampling data from the same period and a common methodology, some differences might occur. Model year development (2009–2010) may be seen as a limitation to represent a scenario several years later than the pregnancy exposure time period and earlier than the childhood exposure periods. However, for most of our cohorts, exposure estimation and health outcome data collection fell within a time period of 10 years either side of the spatial modelling and many predictor variables in LUR models (such as building density, green spaces, distance to roads, etc.) have shown to be stable over time (Beelen et al., 2007; Eeftens et al., 2011; Gulliver et al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2010). Besides, stability of the spatial structure of the ESCAPE and ELAPSE models was confirmed and agreement in spatial variation was reported to be generally high in Europe (de Hoogh et al., 2018). One outlier is the ALSPAC cohort with years of birth in 1991–1992 and a 12-year follow-up included in this study leading to longer term back-extrapolation of the spatial models. Our sensitivity analysis leaving this cohort out showed that main conclusions remain the same. Secondly, missing data were addressed using complete cases, as imputation methods were not available within DataSHIELD at the time of the study. We recognize that missing data on covariates might introduce bias into our findings, and determining the direction of this bias presents a challenge. Aiming to explore if any of the cohorts with more missings (such as cohort BiB and cohort DNBC) could have had an effect on the overall pooled estimate, we performed sensitivity analyses using the “leave-one-out” approach, which showed no meaningful cohort-specific effect on the pooled estimates in the majority of cohorts, except when excluding the DNBC cohort. The observed changes in pooled estimates when excluding DNBC cohort might be explained by

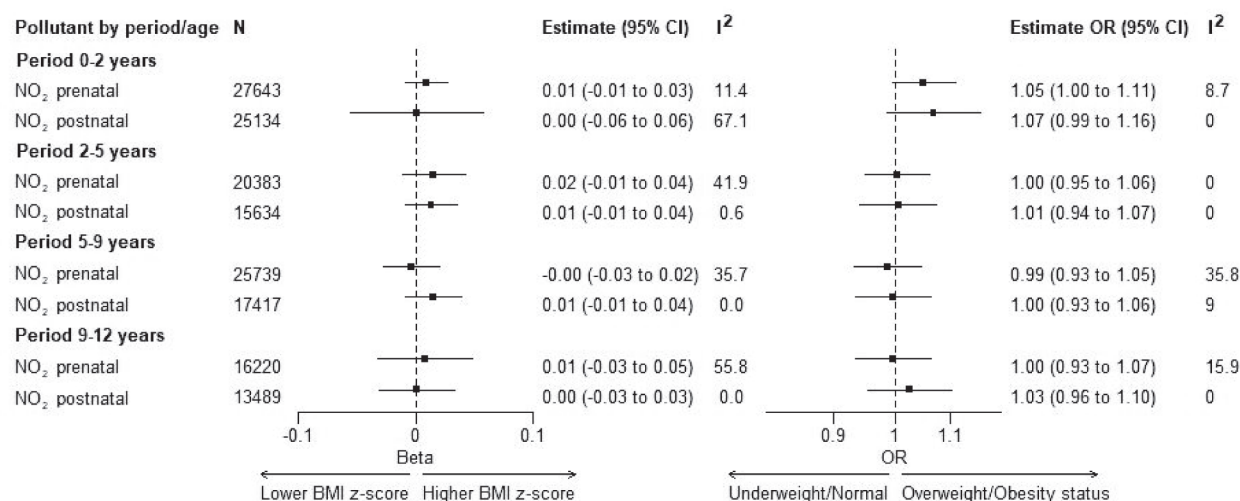
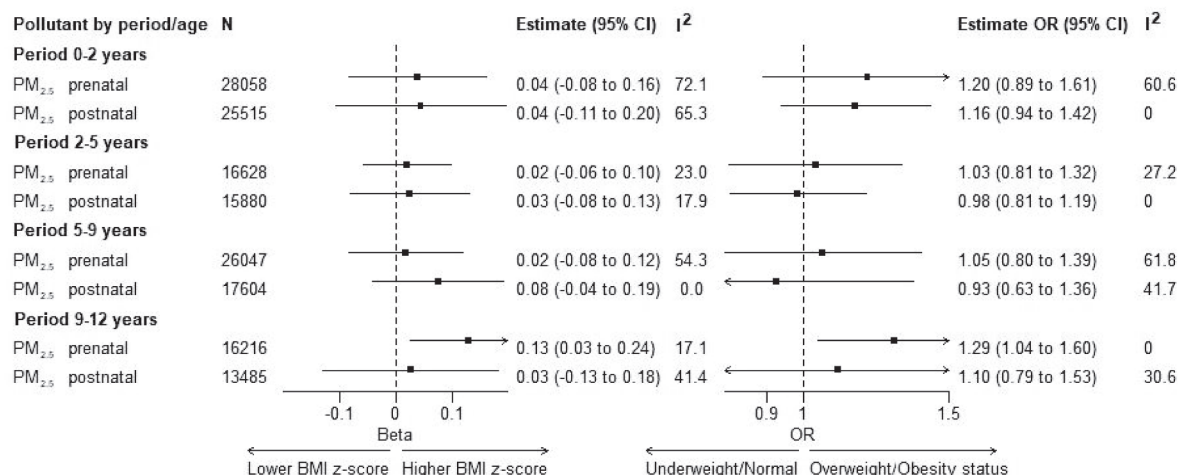
a. NO₂b. PM_{2.5}

Fig. 4. Pre- and postnatal air pollution exposure^a and childhood overall zBMI and overweight/obesity using two-stage meta-analysis, stratified by age period. BMI: Body mass index; OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence intervals. Prenatal exposure models are adjusted for sex, child age (in months), individual-level SES (maternal education), pre-pregnancy BMI, smoking during pregnancy, and area-level SES. Postnatal exposure models were further adjusted for prenatal air pollution exposure. Further adjustments: In INMA, NINFEA and EDEN: for city, in Gen R, ABCD and BiB: for ethnicity. I²: Test for heterogeneity (%). ^a Values are described as weighted average postnatal air pollution levels in the year before zBMI measurement, in the different age periods.

the fact that this cohort showed higher proportion of missing values, in variables such as area-level SES (22.7 %) and maternal education (26 %), compared to the other cohorts, and no zBMI data in the age-group 2–5 years. Besides, DNBC is one of the biggest cohorts included in our analyses, so with higher weight in our analysis compared to smaller sample size cohorts. As discussed previously, considerable heterogeneity was found in this study with included cohorts, which might explain the changes in the “leave-one-out” analysis. Third, the use of different cohorts includes harmonization challenges, with variables being harmonized in different ways and in different levels of detail, which may have resulted in between-study heterogeneity that could affect the interpretation of results. More specifically, not all cohorts had data covering all age periods by the end date of data inclusion of this study (e.g., BiB, EDEN and MoBa). Also, not all cohorts had objectively measured

anthropometric data (as described in [Supplementary Table 2](#)), so we had to rely on parent-reported information for some cohorts (e.g., DNBC, MoBa and NINFEA). In addition, we had to harmonize variables with the least detail, which could have increased the risk of residual confounding leading to greater heterogeneity of estimates. For example, maternal education was harmonized in three categories from more granular detail variables within many of the cohorts. Similarly, maternal smoking during pregnancy was used as a yes/no answer in the current study, however was asked in more detail in several cohorts (which included, for example, the number of cigarettes and the timing of smoking). Fourth, although models were adjusted for both individual-level and area-level SES indicators, we cannot rule out the possibility of bias in our effect estimates due to residual confounding of SES. Also, regarding SES, we used as a proxy of individual-level SES maternal education, which is

commonly used in epidemiological studies (Hajat et al., 2015), since household income was not available in all included cohorts. Fifth, we were not able to take into account other personal and environmental factors that may influence pediatric obesity, such as physical activity and noise levels (An et al., 2018b; González-Muniesa et al., 2017; Jebeile et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2017) due to high missingness and absence of harmonized variables for these factors. We therefore took advantage of availability of family characteristics (e.g., maternal education, BMI, smoking, SES) which influence childhood weight outcomes (Jebeile et al., 2022), along with alternative urban environment features, such as walkability and population density, which may be seen as noise sources due to human activities emission in the neighborhood (Yuan et al., 2019). Lastly, both indoor and outdoor air pollution may have important health effects in the population. Since we did not have data on indoor air pollution, we relied on data of outdoor air pollution only. It is worth noting that a considerable proportion of indoor air pollution comes from outdoors (Amato et al., 2014). Future studies should take into account both indoor and outdoor air pollution exposures, especially in indoor places where children spend a lot of time, such as schools (De Bont et al., 2019), aiming to increase robustness of estimates.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, this large-scale meta-analysis suggest that prenatal PM_{2.5} exposure may be associated with adverse childhood obesity outcomes, but provides little evidence to support an effect of postnatal air pollution exposure although cohort-specific associations were observed.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Sarah Warkentin: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Serena Fossati:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Sandra Marquez:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Formal analysis. **Anne-Marie Nybo Andersen:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Sandra Andrusaityte:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Demetris Avraam:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Ferran Ballester:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Tim Cadman:** Writing – review & editing. **Maribel Casas:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Leda Chatzi:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Ahmed Elhakeem:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Antonio d'Errico:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Mònica Guxens:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Regina Grazuleviciene:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Jennifer R. Harris:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Carmen Iñiguez Hernandez:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Barbara Heude:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Elena Isaevska:** Writing – review & editing. **Vincent W.V. Jaddoe:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Marianna Karachaliou:** Writing – review & editing. **Aitana Lertxundi:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Johanna Lepeule:** Writing – review & editing. **Rosemary R.C. McEachan:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Johanna L. Thorbjørnsrud Nader:** Writing – review & editing. **Marie Pedersen:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Susana Santos:** Writing – review & editing. **Mariska Slofstra:** Writing – review & editing. **Euripides G. Stephanou:** Writing – review & editing. **Morris A. Swertz:** Writing – review & editing. **Tanja Vrijkotte:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Tiffany C. Yang:** Writing – review & editing. **Mark Nieuwenhuijsen:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Martine Vrijheid:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

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Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

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