1 Ultra-processed food consumption and adiposity trajectories from

2 childhood: a prospective analysis of the ALSPAC birth cohort

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50 KEY POINTS

- Question: Is consumption of ultra-processed foods in childhood associated with worse adiposity
 trajectories tracing into early adulthood?
- 53
- 54 **Findings:** In this prospective cohort study of 9025 British children, growth trajectories of body mass
- 55 index, fat mass index, weight and waist circumference from ages 7 to 24 years were significantly
- 56 greater among children with the highest (vs lowest) quintile of ultra-processed food consumption.

57

- 58 Meaning: Radical and effective public health actions that reduce children's exposure to and
- consumption of ultra-processed foods, and remove barriers to accessing minimally processed foods
- are urgently needed to counteract the growing burden of obesity in England and globally.

62 ABSTRACT

63 **Importance**

- 64 Growing evidence have reported associations between higher ultra-processed food consumption
- and elevated risks of obesity, non-communicable diseases, and mortality in adults. However, its
- 66 associations with long-term adiposity trajectories have never been investigated in children.

67 **Objective**

- 68 To assess longitudinal associations between ultra-processed food consumption and adiposity
- 69 trajectories from childhood to early adulthood.

70 Design

- 71 Prospective birth cohort study of children participated in the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and
- 72 Children (ALSPAC). Children were followed up from ages 7 to 24 years (1998-2017). Data analysis
- vas conducted between March 2020 and January 2021.

74 Setting

75 Population-based in Avon County, south-west England.

76 **Participants**

Children with baseline dietary intakes collected using 3-day food diaries and repeated measures of
adiposity during the study period.

79 Exposure

- 80 Consumption of ultra-processed foods (applying the NOVA food classification system) was
- computed as a percentage of its weight contribution (gram per day) in the total diet for each
- 82 participant and categorized into quintiles.

83 Main outcomes and measures

- 84 Repeated recordings of objectively assessed anthropometrics (body mass index, weight, waist
- circumference) and dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry measurements (fat and lean mass index,

body fat percentage). Associations were evaluated using linear growth curve models and adjusted
for study covariates.

88 Results

A total of 9025 children (4,481 [49.6%] female) were followed up over a median (IQR) of 10.2 (5.216.4) years. Mean (SD) ultra-processed food consumption at baseline from the lowest to highest
consumption quintiles was 23.2% (5.0%), 34.7% (2.5%), 43.4% (2.5%), 52.7% (2.8%) and 67.8%
(8.1%). Trajectories of body mass index, fat mass index, weight and waist circumference increased
significantly by an additional 0.06 (95% CI, 0.04-0.08) kg/m², 0.03 (95% CI, 0.01-0.05) kg/m², 0.20
(95% CI, 0.11-0.28) kg and 0.17 (95% CI, 0.11-0.22) cm per year among those in the highest
quintile of ultra-processed food consumption compared with their lowest quintile counterpart.

96 Conclusions and relevance

97 These findings provide important and novel evidence that higher ultra-processed food consumption 98 is associated with greater increases in adiposity from childhood to early adulthood. Robust public 99 health measures that promote minimally processed foods and discourage ultra-processed food 100 consumption among children are urgently needed to reduce obesity in England and globally.

102 INTRODUCTION

Growing evidence on the potential harmful effects of ultra-processed food (UPF) consumption on 103 health has directed attention towards the public health significance of industrial food processing.¹⁻⁸ 104 UPFs, as defined by the NOVA food classification system, are industrial formulations of ingredients 105 that undergo a series of physical, chemical and biological processes.⁹ They typically lack intact 106 healthy food components and include various additives.⁹ UPFs tend to be more energy-dense and 107 nutritionally poorer (high in free sugar, salt and saturated fats but low in protein, dietary fiber and 108 micronutrients) compared with less processed alternatives, and are designed to be cheap, palatable, 109 durable, convenient and appealing.⁹ These products are aggressively marketed by the food industry 110 to promote purchasing and shape dietary preferences, and children are a key target market.^{9,10} 111

The rapid expansion of global and industrialized food systems has gradually displaced traditional dietary patterns based on fresh and minimally-processed foods, in favor of ready-to-consume UPFs.^{9,10} Currently, UPFs represent 65.4% and 66.2% of daily calorie intake among UK and US school-aged children, respectively.^{11,12} The growing consumption worldwide, including in low- and middle-income countries, has mirrored a parallel rise in the prevalence of childhood and adult obesity globally,^{9,10,13} suggesting that UPF consumption may be a key underlying driver of the obesity epidemic and diet-related non-communicable diseases.^{9,10,14,15}

A recent clinical trial has shown that UPF consumption leads to excess calorie intake and weight gain in adults,¹ and cohort studies have reported associations between higher consumption and elevated risks of obesity,^{2,3} type 2 diabetes,^{4,5} cardiovascular disease,⁶ cancer,⁷ and mortality in adults.⁸ Evidence for its associations with adiposity in children and adolescents remains scarce, with only few previous small-scale studies available.¹⁶⁻²⁰ This study investigates prospective associations between UPF consumption and objectively assessed adiposity measurements from childhood to early adulthood in a large cohort of British children.

127 METHODS

128 Data source

129 The Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) is a prospective birth cohort study that initially enrolled 14541 pregnant women residents in Avon, England with an expected date of 130 delivery between April 1991 and December 1992.^{21,22} Further enrolments post-1998 resulted in a 131 sample of 14888 children from singleton/twin pregnancies.²³ ALSPAC participants provided written 132 informed consent, and ethical approval for the study was obtained from the ALSPAC Ethics and 133 134 Law Committee and the Local Research Ethics Committees. ALSPAC's study website contains 135 details of all data that is available through a fully searchable data dictionary and variable search tool: http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/our-data/. Since 2014, study data were collected and 136 managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools hosted at the University of Bristol.^{24,25} 137

138 Outcome measures

Children were invited to a total of 10 clinic assessments, almost annually between ages 7-17 years 139 and then at 24 years (eTable 1 in the Supplement). Adiposity outcomes were measured following 140 standardized procedures.²⁶ Primary outcomes include body mass index (BMI, kg/m²), fat mass 141 index (FMI, kg/m²), lean mass index (LMI, kg/m²), and total body fat (%). Secondary outcomes are 142 BMI z-score, weight (kg), waist circumference (cm), fat mass (FM, kg), and lean mass (LM, kg). 143 144 Height was measured using the Harpenden Stadiometer; weight using the Tanita Body Fat Analyzer; and waist circumference using a tape at the minimum circumference of the abdomen between iliac 145 crests and lowest ribs.²⁶ Total body FM and LM were assessed using a Lunar Prodigy Dual-energy 146 X-ray Absorptiometry (DXA) scanner.²⁶ BMI was computed as weight divided by height in meters 147 squared. FMI and LMI were calculated using DXA-measured FM/LM and divided by height in meters 148 squared, respectively. Total body fat was computed as the percentage of FM over body mass. Age-149 sex standardized BMI z-score was calculated for ages 7-17 years as the British 1990 Growth 150 Reference is only available up to 23 years of age.²⁷ 151

152 Dietary exposure & degree of industrial food processing

Three-day food diary was sent to parents prior to child's clinic assessment for parent completion at 7 years and child completion at 10 and 13 years.²⁶ Respondents were instructed to record all food and beverage items the child consumed over two weekdays and one weekend day (not necessarily consecutive).²⁶ Dietary data were reviewed by a nutritionist and intakes were coded using the DIDO (Diet In, Data Out) computer program and were linked to the fifth edition of McCance and Widdowson's British food composition tables.^{26,28}

159 We applied the NOVA food classification and categorized each food/beverage item into one of the four food groups based on their extent and purpose of industrial food processing⁹: (1) 160 unprocessed/minimally processed foods are fresh, frozen, ground, pasteurized or (non-alcoholic) 161 fermented foods after separation from nature, e.g. fruit, vegetable, milk, meat, legumes; (2) 162 processed culinary ingredients are substances extracted from foods and used in common culinary 163 preparation, cooking and seasoning of group 1 foods, e.g. table salt, sugar, vegetable oils and 164 butter; (3) processed foods are made by adding salt, sugar or other group 2 ingredients to group 1 165 foods, e.g. canned vegetables in brine, canned fish, freshly made breads and cheeses; and (4) 166 UPFs are food/drink formulations of multiple substances, mostly of exclusive industrial use (e.g. 167 high-fructose corn syrup), and are manufactured through a series of complex industrial processes 168 (e.g. hydrogenation) and often contain cosmetic additives (e.g. colors) that disguise any undesirable 169 sensorial properties of the final product.⁹ Some examples are carbonated or dairy-based drinks, 170 171 industrial-processed packaged breads with added preservatives or emulsifiers, and pre-prepared frozen/shelf-stable meals made with modified starches, stabilizers or flavor enhancers (full list of 172 173 UPFs are presented in eFigure 1 in the Supplement).

174 Study covariates

175 Covariates include children's age at clinic assessment, sex (male/female), ethnicity (white/non-

white), birth weight (<2500g/2500-3999g/≥4000g), baseline physical activity (moderate-to-vigorous

177 physical activity [MVPA] per day≥60 minutes/otherwise) and mean total energy intake (continuous,

kcal/day), and quintiles of the Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) 2004. IMD is the most common
measure of deprivation for each small area of England based on seven domains.²⁹ Physical activity
was based on the earliest recording of accelerometry data (collected at ages 11, 13 and 15 years)
where children were instructed to wear a uniaxial ActiGraph 7164 accelerometer for seven days.

182 We categorized accelerometry data into two groups according to the UK government's

183 recommendation for children to accumulate ≥ 60 minutes MVPA per day.^{26,30,31}

184 Mother's self-reported data at baseline include pre-pregnancy BMI (<18.5/18.5-24.9/25-

185 29.9/≥30kg/m²), marital status (single/married or living with partner), highest educational attainment

186 (CSE or none/vocational/O level/A level/Degree or above) and socio-economic position based on

- 187 the UK National Statistics Socioeconomic Classification (higher managerial, administrative and
- 188 professional/intermediate/routine and manual occupation).³²

189 Statistical Analysis

A total of 9025 children were included in the study after excluding 4581 children who did not 190 participate in any clinic assessment; 1271 children with no dietary data; and 11 children with no 191 outcome measurement at or before their dietary data collection (eFigure 2 in the Supplement). 192 Those included were more likely to be female, white (vs non-white) and from higher socio-economic 193 194 background (eTable 2 in the Supplement). Individual's age at completion of their first food dietary was considered as the baseline, thus 80.4%, 16.8% and 2.6% of the cohort were followed up from 7, 195 10 and 13 years old, respectively. For each child, we calculated the proportion of UPFs consumed 196 in the total diet (g/day) and expressed as a percentage. This was considered as the primary 197 198 exposure as it better captures UPFs with zero calorie content such as artificially sweetened beverages (ASBs). However, we also derived for sensitivity analysis a secondary exposure defined 199 as the percentage of calorie contribution from UPFs relative to the total energy intake (kcal/day). We 200 categorized individuals' baseline UPF consumption into quintiles, based on the cut-off points 201 derived from age 7 dietary data since most children were followed up from 7 years old. We further 202

compared this with quintiles derived from age 10, and age 13 dietary data. The quintiles were found
largely similar and no gender-specific differences were identified.

Differences in baseline characteristics by UPF quintiles were compared using χ^2 tests and the 205 analysis of variance where appropriate. Linear growth curve models were used to investigate the 206 207 longitudinal associations between baseline UPF quintile and trajectories of adiposity outcomes. These two-level linear regression models allow for individual-specific random intercept and random 208 slope modelled with age as the underlying timescale. The models included three key variables -209 210 age, UPF quintile, and an interaction term between age and UPF quintile that examines the 211 difference in mean growth trajectories of those in higher UPF quintile compared with the lowest quintile reference group. We assessed non-linearity by fitting a quadratic age term in both the fixed 212 and random parts of the growth models. These terms were retained if there was evidence of 213 214 improved model fit.

We used multiple imputation by chained equation to impute missing covariates data (ranging 1.8%-215 216 27.7%) under the assumption of missing at random. Five imputed datasets were generated where the analytical models were performed on each and results combined using Rubin's rule. Analyses 217 based on complete data were conducted for comparison. Study covariates were included in a 218 219 stepwise manner: Model 1 was not adjusted for any covariates; Model 2 was adjusted for 220 individual's sex, ethnicity, birth weight, level of physical activity and IMD guintile; Model 3 was additionally adjusted for mother's pre-pregnancy BMI, marital status, highest educational attainment 221 and socio-economic position; and Model 4 was additionally adjusted for baseline daily energy intake. 222

223 Sensitivity Analyses

We performed a series of sensitivity analyses including further adjustment for baseline fruit and vegetable intake (g/day); intakes of saturated fat (g/day), sugar (g/day), fiber (g/day) and sodium (mg/day); restricting analyses to individuals with follow-up data; excluding twin children from the study cohort; stratifying by boys and girls; and re-categorizing baseline UPF consumption into five

groups per 20% absolute increment in their percentage of weight contribution towards daily food

229 intake.

- All statistical analyses were performed using Stata SE version 12.1. All statistical tests were two-
- sided, and a *P*<.05 was considered significant.

233 **RESULTS**

A total of 9025 children (4481 [49.6%] female) were followed up over a median (IQR) of 10.2 (5.2-234 235 16.4) years. The mean (SD) UPF consumption at baseline from the lowest (Q1) to highest (Q5) 236 quintile was 23.2% (5.0%) of the total daily food intake (q/day) in Q1, 34.7% (2.5%) in Q2, 43.4% 237 (2.5%) in Q3, 52.7% (2.8%) in Q4, and 67.8% (8.1%) in Q5 (eFigure 3 in the Supplement). Children 238 assigned to differing UPF quintiles were not significantly different by sex, ethnicity or birth weight 239 (Table 1). However, children with higher UPF consumption were more likely to have lower maternal socio-economic profile compared with those in lower UPF guintiles. Major sources of UPFs among 240 241 children in Q5 included fruit-based beverages (22.2%), carbonated beverages (11.5%), ready-to 242 eat/heat foods (8.6%) and industrial-processed breads and buns (5.9%) (eFigure 1 in the 243 Supplement). By contrast, diets among children in Q1 were largely based on minimally-processed foods including water and tea (22.2%), milk and plain yoghurt (20.2%), and fruit (6.0%). 244 245 Findings from the growth models remained consistent while adjusting for covariates in multiple steps

(eTable 3-4 in the Supplement). Fully-adjusted results for the longitudinal associations between 246 baseline UPF quintile and adiposity outcomes are presented in Table 2, and the fitted trajectories of 247 primary adiposity outcomes are shown in Figure 1. Mean BMI at baseline (age 7 years) did not 248 significantly differ across baseline UPF quintiles (e.g. β, 0.08 kg/m² for Q5 vs Q1; 95% Cl, -0.09-249 0.24 kg/m²). Mean BMI among children in Q1 increased by 0.55 (95% CI, 0.53-0.56) kg/m² per year. 250 251 However, increases in BMI were significantly greater among the three highest UPF quintiles with evidence of a dose-response relationship, e.g. BMI increased by an additional 0.06 (95% CI, 0.04-252 0.08) kg/m² in Q5 compared with Q1. 253

Mean FMI at baseline (age 9 years) was significantly higher in Q5 by 0.27 (95% CI, 0.09-0.45)
kg/m² compared with Q1. Mean FMI increased by 0.22 (95% CI, 0.20-0.23) kg/m² per year in Q1,
and this growth trajectory was found significantly greater in Q5 than Q1 by an additional 0.03 (95%
CI, 0.01-0.05) kg/m² per year. At baseline (age 9 years), mean body fat percentage was significantly
higher among children of the three highest UPF quintiles. However, the growing trajectories of body

fat percentage were not significantly different across UPF quintiles. Mean LMI was estimated to
grow at an annual rate of 0.55 – 2*0.02*year (kg/m²) from 9 years old, but neither the LMI at 9 years
old nor its growth trajectory was found significantly different among children of varying UPF quintiles.
Mean levels of BMI z-score, weight and waist circumference were not significantly different at

baseline (age 7 years) across UPF quintiles except for weight among Q2 (Table 2, Figure 2).

However, when compared with children in Q1, increases in weight and waist circumference

trajectories were significantly greater in the two and three highest UPF quintiles respectively, with

266 evidence of a dose-response relationship. Trajectories of BMI z-score were only significantly greater

267 in Q5. Results for FM and LM were found similar to FMI and LMI findings, respectively.

Results of sensitivity analyses were largely consistent with the main findings (eTable 5-6 and eFigure 4-6 in the Supplement). Girls were observed with a steeper trajectory of body fat measures than boys although their BMI trajectories were similar. Analyses using the secondary exposure showed that the mean UPF consumption in the study cohort was 61.4% out of the daily energy intake, and major contributors of energy intake were ultra-processed ready-to-eat/heat foods and industrial-processed breads and buns.

275 **DISCUSSION**

276 In this large prospective study following up British children from age 7 to 24 years, growth

trajectories of BMI, FMI, weight and waist circumference increased by an additional 0.06 (95% CI,

278 0.04-0.08) kg/m², 0.03 (95% CI, 0.01-0.05) kg/m², 0.20 (95% CI, 0.11-0.28) kg and 0.17 (95% CI,

0.11-0.22) cm each year among children with the highest (vs lowest) UPF consumption. Evidence of

dose-response relationships were consistently observed for BMI, weight and waist circumference

trajectories among those in the two highest UPF quintiles. By the age of 24 years, a clinically

important difference was observed in e.g. BMI by 1.18 (95% CI, 0.78-1.57) kg/m², FMI by 0.78 (95%

CI, 0.46-1.08) kg/m² and body fat percentage by 1.53% (0.81%-2.25%) greater among those with

the highest (vs lowest) UPF consumption.

285 Previous cohort studies of children/adolescents (sample size, 307-3454) had shorter follow-up and provide inconsistent findings.¹⁶⁻²⁰ Two studies found no significant associations between UPF 286 consumption at 4 years old and BMI measures 3-4 years later whereas one study reported no 287 differences in BMI growth between 16-18 years of age.^{16,17,20} However, a Portuguese study reported 288 a 0.028 increase in BMI z-score at 10 years of age per 100 kcal/day higher UPF consumption at 4 289 vears old.¹⁹ and a Brazilian study reported a 0.20 kg/m² and 0.14 kg/m² increase in BMI and FMI, 290 respectively, between ages 6-11 years per 100 g/day increase in UPF consumption.¹⁸ Our findings 291 were based on multiple adiposity measurements between ages 7-24 years and detailed 3-day food 292 293 diaries whereas previous studies were largely based on food frequency questionnaires that may have limited ability to accurately capture UPFs. Notably, British children have a prominently high 294 UPF consumption than previous studies based in Brazil, Portugal or Spain (ranging 27.3%-42.0% of 295 daily calorie intake).^{16,18,19} The positive longitudinal association between childhood consumption of 296 sugar-sweetened beverages (SSBs) and adiposity has been widely documented,³³ and our results 297 298 are reflective of this as SSBs and ASBs constituted a great proportion of UPF consumption 299 especially in those with the highest quintile (33.7%).

The increasing availability and variety of UPFs have reshaped global food systems displacing 300 dietary patterns previously based on fresh and minimally-processed foods.^{9,10} Of particular concern 301 is the growing consumption among children and adolescents who are leading consumers including 302 in middle-income countries.^{11,12,34,35} These have major public health implications with higher UPF 303 consumption associated with excess calorie intake¹ and elevated risk of obesity,^{2,3} type 2 304 diabetes,^{4,5} hypertension,³⁶ cardiovascular disease,⁶ cancer,⁷ and mortality.⁸ Our findings add novel 305 evidence showing positive associations between UPF consumption and adiposity outcomes 306 throughout childhood, which is crucially important as lifelong dietary patterns develop from 307 childhood and may lead to widespread consequences on health and well-being throughout the life 308 course.37 309

The UPF industry is highly profitable through the use of low-cost supply chains and aggressive 310 marking strategies to promote excess consumption.^{14,15} Global economic policies and trade 311 312 agreements which favor the interests of transnational food corporations have further enhanced their central role in the global transformation of food systems and undermined implementation of effective 313 policies to curb UPF consumption.^{10,15} Nevertheless, policies are emerging that explicitly target 314 UPFs.¹⁰ Public health authorities of Brazil, Uruguay, Ecuador, Peru, France, Canada and Israel 315 have amended their national dietary guidelines with recommendations to limit UPF 316 consumption.^{10,38,39} France has set an ambitious target to reduce UPF consumption by 20% by 2022. 317 318 Action on UPFs in the UK and elsewhere remains limited, instead emphasizing on reducing certain nutrient.^{14,40} Voluntary product reformulations have been shown ineffective,^{10,40} and even bolder 319 regulatory action will not address their health harms as they may miss out several UPFs (e.g. ASBs) 320 that contain industrial *trans* fatty acids,⁴¹ food additives or toxic contaminants,^{42,43} even when their 321 calorie, salt and sugar are reduced to limit. Only mandatory policies that target UPFs holistically, 322 with cooperative actions globally to strengthen regulations and trade agreements aim at reducing 323 324 the supply and consumption of UPFs will counteract the substantial burden of UPF consumption on the environment and health care systems worldwide.^{14,40,44} 325

326 Limitations

327 Our study has several limitations. First, some individuals had fewer adiposity measurements 328 collected and no data collection was conducted between ages 17 and 24 years. However, 329 completeness of outcome data was high in the study cohort (89.5%-99.9%), and a mean of 3.9-6.5 330 repeated measurements across study outcomes were available. Second, there may be potential 331 misclassification of food/beverage items by the NOVA classification, but this is likely minimal given 332 the detailed food diaries used. Third, major changes in UPF consumption may contribute to a shift in adiposity trajectories but we did not use a time-varying exposure because of the modest changes in 333 334 UPF consumption between ages 7-13 years. A total of 7072 children (78.4%) provided follow-up dietary data but only 1,288 children (14.2%) were observed with an absolute change in UPF 335 336 consumption of greater than ±20% between ages 7 and 10 years; and 1831 children (20.2%) between ages 10 and 13 years. Fourth, availability of multiple food diaries lowers measurement bias, 337 and only 8% of the cohort completed on a single occasion while most participants completed two or 338 more days. Fifth, we examined potential dietary mis-reporting based on the ratio of energy intake 339 over estimated energy expenditure.⁴⁵ The results remained closely consistent after the exclusion of 340 341 1314 (14.6%) under-reporters and 715 (7.9%) over-reporters. Sixth, missing data may introduce bias, but we used multiple imputation while auxiliary variables were included as appropriate. 342 Comparison of main findings to complete case analysis showed largely similar results. Finally, 343 344 although a wide range of factors have been accounted for, the observational nature of the study 345 means that residual confounding may have affected our results.

346 Conclusion

Our findings provide novel and important evidence that higher consumption of UPFs in childhood is associated with more rapid progression of BMI, FMI, weight and waist circumference into adolescence and early adulthood. More radical and effective public health actions that reduce children's exposure and consumption of UPFs are urgently needed to address childhood obesity in England and internationally.

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353 Author Contributions

- 354 Dr Chang had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the
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- 356 *Concept and design:* Khanpur, Millett, Chang, Vamos.
- 357 Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Chang, Khanpur, Vamos, Millett, Neri, Touvier,
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- 359 Drafting of the manuscript: Chang, Vamos, Millett.
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367 All authors report no conflict of interest.

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523 LIST OF FIGURES AND LEGENDS

524 Figure 1. Trajectories of primary outcomes by baseline quintile of ultra-processed food consumption 525 among 9025 ALSPAC children

526 527 Abbreviation: UPF%, percentage of daily food intake (g/day) contributed by ultra-processed foods (UPFs) at baseline and was further categorized into quintiles (Q1-Q5 represents lowest to highest quintile of UPF consumption). Trajectories were 528 plotted for the predicted values estimated from the growth curve models at each age (wave) of clinic assessment. All linear 529 growth models were fitted with individual-specific random intercept and random slope using age (and quadratic age for 530 lean mass index outcome) as the underlying timescale, and included baseline UPF guintile, an interaction term between 531 age and baseline UPF quintile, and were further adjusted by child's sex (male/female), ethnicity (white/non-white), birth 532 533 weight (<2500g/2500-3999g/≥4000g), physical activity (moderate-to-vigorous physical activity per day≥60 minutes/otherwise), guintiles of Index of Multiple Deprivation, mother's pre-pregnancy BMI (<18.5/18.5-24.9/25-534 29.9/≥30kg/m²), marital status (single/married or living with partner), highest educational attainment (CSE or 535 none/vocational/O level/A level/Degree or above), socio-economic status based on UK National Statistics Socioeconomic 536 Classification (higher managerial, administrative and professional/intermediate/routine and manual occupation), and 537 child's total energy intake (continuous, kcal/day) at baseline. Baseline refers to 7 years old for body mass index (BMI), and 538 9 years old for fat/lean mass index and body fat percentage outcomes. 539

540 Figure 2. Trajectories of secondary outcomes by baseline quintile of ultra-processed food 541 consumption among 9025 ALSPAC children

542 Abbreviation: UPF%, percentage of daily food intake (g/day) contributed by ultra-processed foods (UPFs) at baseline and 543 was further categorized into guintiles (Q1-Q5 represents lowest to highest guintile of UPF consumption). Trajectories were 544 plotted for the predicted values estimated from the growth curve models at each age (wave) of clinic assessment. All linear 545 growth models were fitted with individual-specific random intercept and random slope using age (and quadratic age for 546 weight, waist circumference and lean mass outcomes) as the underlying timescale, and included baseline UPF quintile, an 547 interaction term between age and baseline UPF quintile, and were further adjusted by child's sex (male/female), ethnicity 548 (white/non-white), birth weight (<2500g/2500-3999g/≥4000g), physical activity (moderate-to-vigorous physical activity per 549 day≥60 minutes/otherwise), quintiles of Index of Multiple Deprivation, mother's pre-pregnancy BMI (<18.5/18.5-24.9/25-550 29.9/≥30kg/m²), marital status (single/married or living with partner), highest educational attainment (CSE or 551 none/vocational/O level/A level/Degree or above), socio-economic status based on UK National Statistics Socioeconomic 552 Classification (higher managerial, administrative and professional/intermediate/routine and manual occupation), and 553 child's total energy intake (continuous, kcal/day) at baseline. Baseline refers to 7 years old for BMI z-score, weight and

waist circumference outcomes; and 9 years old for fat/lean mass and body fat percentage outcomes.

556 Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics by baseline quintile of ultra-processed food consumption among 9025 ALSPAC children (1998-2017), England

	Quintile ^a of baseline ultra-processed food consumption							
	Overall	1 (lowest)	2	3	4	5 (highest)	P value ^c	
Ν	9025	1708	1759	1923	1777	1858		
Range of UPF%	0-100	0-29.9	30.0-38.9	39.0-47.9	48.0-57.9	58.0-100		
UPF% (mean, SD)	44.7 (15.9)	23.2 (5.0)	34.7 (2.5)	43.4 (2.5)	52.7 (2.8)	67.8 (8.1)		
Total energy intake at baseline	(mean, SD)							
kcal/day	1729 (347)	1698 (342)	1753 (345)	1737 (332)	1731 (335)	1726 (376)	<.001	
Age at baseline ^b , No. (%)								
7 years	7264 (80.4)	1327 (77.6)	1435 (81.4)	1584 (82.3)	1460 (82.0)	1458 (78.4)	<.001	
10 years	1519 (16.8)	292 (17.0)	270 (15.3)	296 (15.3)	297 (16.6)	364 (19.5)		
13 years	242 (2.6)	89 (5.2)	54 (3.0)	43 (2.2)	20 (1.1)	36 (1.9)		
Sex, No. (%)								
Male	4544 (50.2)	821 (48.0)	884 (50.1)	966 (50.2)	927 (52.0)	946 (50.8)	.18	
Female	4481 (49.6)	887 (51.8)	875 (49.6)	957 (49.7)	850 (47.7)	912 (49.0)		
Ethnicity, No. (%)								
Non-white	780 (8.6)	152 (8.8)	165 (9.3)	170 (8.8)	157 (8.8)	136 (7.3)	.47	
White	8029 (88.8)	1512 (88.4)	1553 (88.1)	1704 (88.5)	1585 (89.0)	1675 (90.1)		
Missing	216 (2.3)	44 (2.5)	41 (2.3)	49 (2.5)	35 (1.9)	47 (2.5)		
Birth weight, No. (%)								
<2500g	409 (4.5)	67 (3.9)	86 (4.8)	88 (4.5)	84 (4.7)	84 (4.5)	.22	
2500 - 3999g	6905 (76.4)	1339 (78.3)	1337 (75.9)	1450 (75.3)	1385 (77.8)	1394 (74.9)		
≥4000g	1112 (12.3)	201 (11.7)	219 (12.4)	235 (12.2)	207 (11.6)	250 (13.4)		
Missing	599 (6.6)	101 (5.9)	117 (6.6)	150 (7.7)	101 (5.6)	130 (6.9)		
Physical activity, No. (%)								
MVPA<60 minutes	4076 (45.1)	821 (48.0)	812 (46.1)	840 (43.6)	784 (44.0)	819 (44.0)	.02	
MVPA≥60 minutes	2453 (27.1)	468 (27.3)	476 (27.0)	542 (28.1)	481 (27.0)	486 (26.1)		
Missing	2496 (27.6)	419 (24.5)	471 (26.7)	541 (28.1)	512 (28.7)	553 (29.7)		
Index of Multiple Deprivation 2	004, No . (%)							
Quintile 1 (Least derived)	2855 (31.6)	537 (31.4)	585 (33.2)	629 (32.6)	552 (31.0)	552 (29.6)	<.001	
Quintile 2	2113 (23.3)	460 (26.9)	413 (23.4)	454 (23.5)	404 (22.6)	382 (20.5)		
Quintile 3	1795 (19.8)	339 (19.8)	352 (19.9)	401 (20.8)	348 (19.5)	355 (19.0)		
Quintile 4	1198 (13.2)	192 (11.2)	217 (12.3)	222 (11.5)	267 (15.0)	300 (16.1)		
Quintile 5 (Most deprived)	899 (9.9)	142 (8.3)	161 (9.1)	180 (9.3)	177 (9.9)	239 (12.8)		
Missing	165 (1.8)	38 (2.2)	31 (1.7)	37 (1.9)	29 (1.6)	30 (1.6)		

558 **Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics by baseline quintile of ultra-processed food consumption among 9025 ALSPAC children (1998-2017), England** 559 **(continued)**

	Quintile ^a of baseline ultra-processed food consumption					otion	
	Overall	1 (lowest)	2	3	4	5 (highest)	P value
Ν	9025	1708	1759	1923	1777	1858	
Range of UPF%	0-100	0-29.9	30.0-38.9	39.0-47.9	48.0-57.9	58.0-100	
UPF [®] (mean, SD)	44.7 (15.9)	23.2 (5.0)	34.7 (2.5)	43.4 (2.5)	52.7 (2.8)	67.8 (8.1)	
Mother's self-reported pre-pregnancy BMI, No. (%)							
Underweight (<18.5kg/m ²)	334 (3.6)	74 (4.3)	65 (3.6)	68 (3.5)	54 (3.0)	73 (3.9)	<.001
Normal (18.5-24.9kg/m ²)	5752 (63.6)	1153 (67.4)	1171 (66.4)	1203 (62.5)	1159 (65.1)	1066 (57.3)	
Overweight (25-29.9kg/m ²)	1150 (12.7)	177 (10.3)	200 (11.3)	255 (13.2)	223 (12.5)	295 (15.8)	
Obese (≥30kg/m²)	393 (4.3)	48 (2.8)	63 (3.5)	88 (4.5)	88 (4.9)	106 (5.7)	
Missing	1396 (15.4)	256 (14.9)	260 (14.7)	309 (16.0)	253 (14.2)	318 (17.1)	
Mother's marital status, No. (%)		• •					
Single	1625 (17.9)	298 (17.4)	298 (16.9)	313 (16.2)	353 (19.8)	363 (19.5)	.05
Married/living with partner	7203 (79.7)	1374 (80.3)	1423 (80.8)	1561 (81.1)	1393 (78.2)	1452 (78.1)	
Missing	197 (2.1)	36 (2.1)	38 (2.1)	49 (2.5)	31 (1.7)	43 (2.3)	
Mother's highest educational attainment, No. (%)			· · ·			· · · ·	
CSE/none	738 (8.1)	99 (5.7)	110 (6.2)	167 (8.6)	148 (8.3)	214 (11.5)	<.001
Vocational	662 (7.3)	92 (5.3)	123 (6.9)	119 (6.1)	144 (8.0)	184 (9.8)	
O level	3189 (35.2)	468 (27.3)	560 (31.8)	700 (36.3)	696 (39.1)	765 (41.1)	
A level	2421 (26.7)	497 (29.0)	529 (30.0)	497 (25.8)	470 (26.4)	428 (23.0)	
Degree	1569 (17.3)	462 (27.0)	362 (20.5)	340 (17.6)	236 (13.2)	169 (9.0)	
Missing	446 (4.9)	90 (5.2)	75 (4.2)	100 (5.1)	83 (4.6)	98 (5.2)	
Mother's NSSEC, No. (%)	· · · ·	, <i>,</i> ,	· · · /	· · · /	· · · /	· /	
1. Higher managerial, administrative and professional	2822 (31.2)	667 (39.0)	624 (35.4)	607 (31.5)	487 (27.3)	437 (23.5)	<.001
2.Intermediate occupations	2716 (30.0)	446 (26.0)	503 (28.5)	564 (29.3)	580 (32.5)	623 (33.5)	
3.Routine and manual occupations	2598 (28.7)	418 (24.4)	479 (27.2)	557 (28.9)	544 (30.5)	600 (32.2)	
Missing	889 (9.8)	177 (10.3)	153 (8.6)	195 (10.1)́	166 (9.3)	198 (10.6)	

560 Abbreviations: UPF%, percentage of daily food intake (g/day) contributed by ultra-processed foods (UPFs) at baseline; SD, standard deviation; MVPA, moderate-to-vigorous physical

561 activity; BMI, body mass index; NSSEC, (UK) National Statistics Socioeconomic Classification.

^a Quintile of UPF consumption was first computed for age 7, 10 and 13 dietary data separately and were found largely similar across waves, thus a set of cut-off points for the baseline quintiles of UPF consumption was derived based on age 7 data and defined at 30%, 39%, 48% and 58% of daily food intake (g/day).

^bAge when baseline UPF consumption was collected, this indicates that >80% of children were followed up from 7 years old.

^cChi-square tests were used to compare socio-demographic characteristics and ANOVA were used to compare mean total energy intake between children grouped by UPF quintiles. 566

Table 2. Longitudinal associations^a between baseline ultra-processed food consumption and adiposity among 9025 ALSPAC children (1998-2017), 568 569 England

		Body Mass Index (kg/m ²) <i>n</i> =9020	BMI z-score <i>n</i> =9018	Fat Mass Index (kg/m ²) <i>n=</i> 8078	Fat Mass (kg) <i>n=</i> 8085	Total fat percentage (%) n=8085
		Coeff (95% CI)	Coeff (95% CI)	Coeff (95% CI)	Coeff (95% CI)	Coeff (95% CI)
	Q1	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]
Baseline	Q2	0.06 (-0.10 to 0.23)	0.06 (-0.01 to 0.13)	0.08 (-0.09 to 0.26)	0.11 (-0.31 to 0.52)	0.65 (-0.01 to 1.30)
UPF	Q3	0.006 (-0.16 to 0.17)	0.03 (-0.04 to 0.10)	0.11 (-0.06 to 0.28)	0.10 (-0.32 to 0.51)	0.67 (0.02 to 1.32) ^e
Quintile ^b	Q4	0.02 (-0.15 to 0.19)	0.05 (-0.02 to 0.12)	0.17 (-0.01 to 0.34)	0.20 (-0.22 to 0.62)	1.02 (0.35 to 1.67) ^t
	Q5	0.08 (-0.09 to 0.24)	0.05 (-0.02 to 0.12)	$0.27 (0.09 \text{ to } 0.45)^{\dagger}$	0.51 (0.08 to 0.93) ^e	1.47 (0.81 to 2.13) [†]
Age ^c	per year	0.55 (0.53 to 0.56) [†]	0.02 (0.01 to 0.02) [†]	$0.22 (0.20 \text{ to } 0.23)^{\dagger}$	0.96 (0.92 to 1.00) [†]	0.39 (0.35 to 0.43) [†]
	Q1*Age	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]
	Q2*Age	0.02 (-0.001 to 0.04)	0.0003 (-0.006 to 0.007)	0.005 (-0.01 to 0.02)	0.03 (-0.02 to 0.09)	-0.03 (-0.08 to 0.02)
Interaction ^d	Q3*Age	0.03 (0.005 to 0.04) ^e	0.002 (-0.005 to 0.009)	0.01 (-0.01 to 0.02)	0.06 (-0.003 to 0.11)	-0.02 (-0.07 to 0.03)
	Q4*Age	0.04 (0.01 to 0.06) ^t	0.003 (-0.004 to 0.009)	0.01 (-0.01 to 0.03)	0.07 (0.01 to 0.13) ^e	-0.04 (-0.10 to 0.01)
	Q5*Age	0.06 (0.04 to 0.08) ^t	0.01 (0.003 to 0.01) ^t	0.03 (0.01 to 0.05) [†]	0.15 (0.08 to 0.21) ^t	0.004 (-0.05 to 0.06)
		Weight (kg)	Waist Circumference (cm)	Lean Mass Index (kg/m ²)	Lean Mass (kg)	
	01	n=9021	<u>n=9021</u>	n=8078	n=8085	-
	Q1	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	
Baseline	Q2	$0.35 (0.007 \text{ to } 0.69)^{\text{e}}$	0.26 (-0.14 to 0.66)	0.005 (-0.06 to 0.07)	0.13 (-0.16 to 0.42)	
UPF	Q3	0.30 (-0.03 to 0.63)	0.03 (-0.36 to 0.42)	0.009 (-0.06 to 0.07)	-0.01 (-0.30 to 0.28)	
Quintile ^D	Q4	0.34 (-0.007 to 0.68)	0.22 (-0.18 to 0.62)	-0.01 (-0.08 to 0.05)	-0.07 (-0.36 to 0.23)	
	Q5	0.30 (-0.04 to 0.65)	0.16 (-0.25 to 0.56)	-0.01 (-0.08 to 0.05)	0.07 (-0.23 to 0.37)	
Age ^c	per year	5.46 (5.38 to 5.53) ^t	3.36 (3.30 to 3.41) ^t	0.55 (0.53 to 0.55) [†]	4.44 (4.38 to 4.49) ^t	_
Age ^{2c}	per year	-0.12 (-0.12 to -0.11) [†]	-0.11 (-0.11 to -0.10) ^t	-0.02 (-0.02 to -0.01) ^t	-0.17 (-0.17 to -0.16) ^r	_
	Q1*Age	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	0 [reference]	
	Q2*Age	0.06 (-0.02 to 0.14)	0.05 (-0.008 to 0.10)	0.008 (-0.003 to 0.01)	0.02 (-0.04 to 0.08)	
Interaction ^d	00*1	$0.04(0.02 \pm 0.12)$	$0.06 (0.006 to 0.11)^{6}$	-0.003 (-0.01 to 0.008)	-0.007 (-0.07 to 0.05)	
Interaction ^d	Q3*Age	0.04 (-0.03 to 0.12)	0.06 (0.006 to 0.11) ^e	-0.003(-0.01100.000)	0.001 (0.01 10 0.00)	
Interaction ^d	Q3^Age Q4*Age	0.04 (-0.03 to 0.12) 0.10 (0.01 to 0.18) ^e	$0.08 (0.02 \text{ to } 0.14)^{\text{t}}$	0.009 (-0.002 to 0.02)	0.03 (-0.03 to 0.10)	

570 Abbreviations: Coeff, coefficient; CI, confidence interval; UPF, ultra-processed food consumption was defined as the proportion of its weight contribution relative to daily food intake

571 measured in g/day and was categorized into quintiles (Q1-Q5 represents lowest to highest quintile of UPF consumption).

572 ^a Linear growth curve models were employed with individual-specific random intercept and random slope using age (and quadratic age where appropriate) as the underlying timescale,

573 and included baseline UPF quintile, an interaction term between age and baseline UPF quintile, and were further adjusted by child's sex (male/female), ethnicity (white/non-white), birth weight (<2500g/2500-3999g/≥4000g), physical activity (moderate-to-vigorous physical activity per day≥60 minutes/otherwise), quintiles of Index of Multiple Deprivation, mother's pre-

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pregnancy BMI (<18.5/18.5-24.9/25-29.9/≥30kg/m²), marital status (single/married or living with partner), highest educational attainment (CSE or none/vocational/O level/A level/Degree 575

576 or above), socio-economic status based on UK National Statistics Socioeconomic Classification (higher managerial, administrative and professional/intermediate/routine and manual

577 occupation), and child's total energy intake (continuous, kcal/day) at baseline. Baseline refers to 7 years old for body mass index (BMI), BMI z-score, weight and waist circumference 578 outcomes; and 9 years old for fat/lean mass index, fat/lean mass and body fat percentage outcomes.

- 579 ^b Coefficient of Baseline UPF quintile: assesses the difference in mean adiposity outcomes at baseline among those of higher UPF consumption quintile compared with the lowest UPF 580 quintile reference group.
- 581 ^cCoefficient of Age and Age²: captures the average yearly growth in adiposity outcomes for the reference group and were centered at baseline age of each outcome (described above).
- 582 ^d Coefficient of Interaction term: examines the difference in average growth trajectories of higher UPF consumption quintile compared with the lowest UPF quintile reference group.
- 583 ^e P <.05
- 584 ^f P <.01
- 585
- 586



