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1 **Maternal Obesity in Europe: where do we stand and how**  
2 **to move forward?**

3

4 **A scientific paper commissioned by the European Board &**  
5 **College of Obstetrics and Gynaecology (EBCOG)**

6

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**35 Abstract**

36 Paralleling the global epidemic of obesity figures in the general population, the incidence of maternal  
37 obesity (BMI>30kg/m<sup>2</sup> at the start of pregnancy) has been rising over the last world. While most  
38 European countries do not systematically report obesity figures in their pregnant population, the  
39 prevalence of maternal obesity varies from 7 to 25% and seems strongly related to social and  
40 educational inequalities.

41 Obesity during pregnancy represents an important preventable risk factor for adverse pregnancy  
42 outcomes and is associated with negative long-term health outcomes for both mothers and offspring.  
43 These effects are often aggravated by the high incidence of abnormal glucose tolerance and excessive  
44 gestational weight gain found in this group. The main controversies around the management of the  
45 obese pregnant women are related to (1) the value of repeated weighing during pregnancy (2) the  
46 optimal gestational weight gain to advise and the lifestyle messages to deliver in order to achieve this,  
47 (3) the optimal strategy and timing of screening for gestational diabetes (GDM), (4) the optimal timing  
48 and mode of delivery.

49 These controversies are reviewed in this review, with the exception of screening for gestational  
50 diabetes that is discussed extensively elsewhere in this issue (Benhalima et al.). An agenda for  
51 research is proposed with the hope that it will catch the attention of policy-makers and funders and  
52 ultimately lead to the development of European-wide evidence-based guidelines for clinicians.

53

54 **Keywords:** epidemiology, maternal obesity, prevention, preconception, lifestyle interventions,  
55 intergenerational, Europe, EBCOG

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**62 Maternal obesity in Europe**

63 Obesity is increasing at an alarming rate worldwide and has doubled since 1980, with a dramatic  
64 increase now also seen in low- and middle-income countries, particularly in urban settings. In 2014,  
65 worldwide 40% of adult women aged 18 years and older were overweight and 15% were obese.

66 Approximately 42 million children under the age of 5 were overweight or obese in 2013[1]. Despite a  
67 recent decline in the prevalence of obesity in preschool-aged children from 2 to 5 year olds in the US  
68 (from 13.9% in 2003-2004 to 8.4% in 2011-2012), obesity among children and adolescents aged 2-19  
69 years is still too high; with a 17.7% obesity rate in 6-11-year-olds and a 20.5% obesity rate among 12-  
70 19 year-olds[2]. The high prevalence of maternal and childhood obesity creates an intergenerational  
71 problem with related co-morbidities.

72 A 2013 National health survey in Belgium (N=10 829) reported 48% of the general population as  
73 either overweight (BMI  $\geq$  25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, 34%) or obese (BMI  $\geq$  30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, 14%), with a 3% increase in the  
74 prevalence of obesity since 1997 (11%). Not surprisingly, women of reproductive age are also  
75 affected. The distribution of obesity within this female population shows that approximately one in  
76 three obese women are between 18 and 44 years of age[3].

77 Most European countries do not report data on pre-gestational body mass index (BMI) and gestational  
78 weight gain systematically, so no comprehensive representative picture of the epidemic burden of  
79 maternal obesity is available. Moreover, information about pre-gestational weight and height is often  
80 based on recalled data or a measurement at the first antenatal visit. Depending on the cohorts studied  
81 and the period of evaluation, the prevalence of obesity in pregnant women ranges from 1.8% to 25.3%  
82 or even up to 40% in American cohorts [4]. A nationally representative study from 34 maternity units  
83 in the UK (N=619 323), collecting data from the first trimester maternal BMI between 1989 and 2007,  
84 showed a significant increase in first trimester maternal obesity over time, which doubled from 7.6%  
85 to 15.6% over 19 years[5].

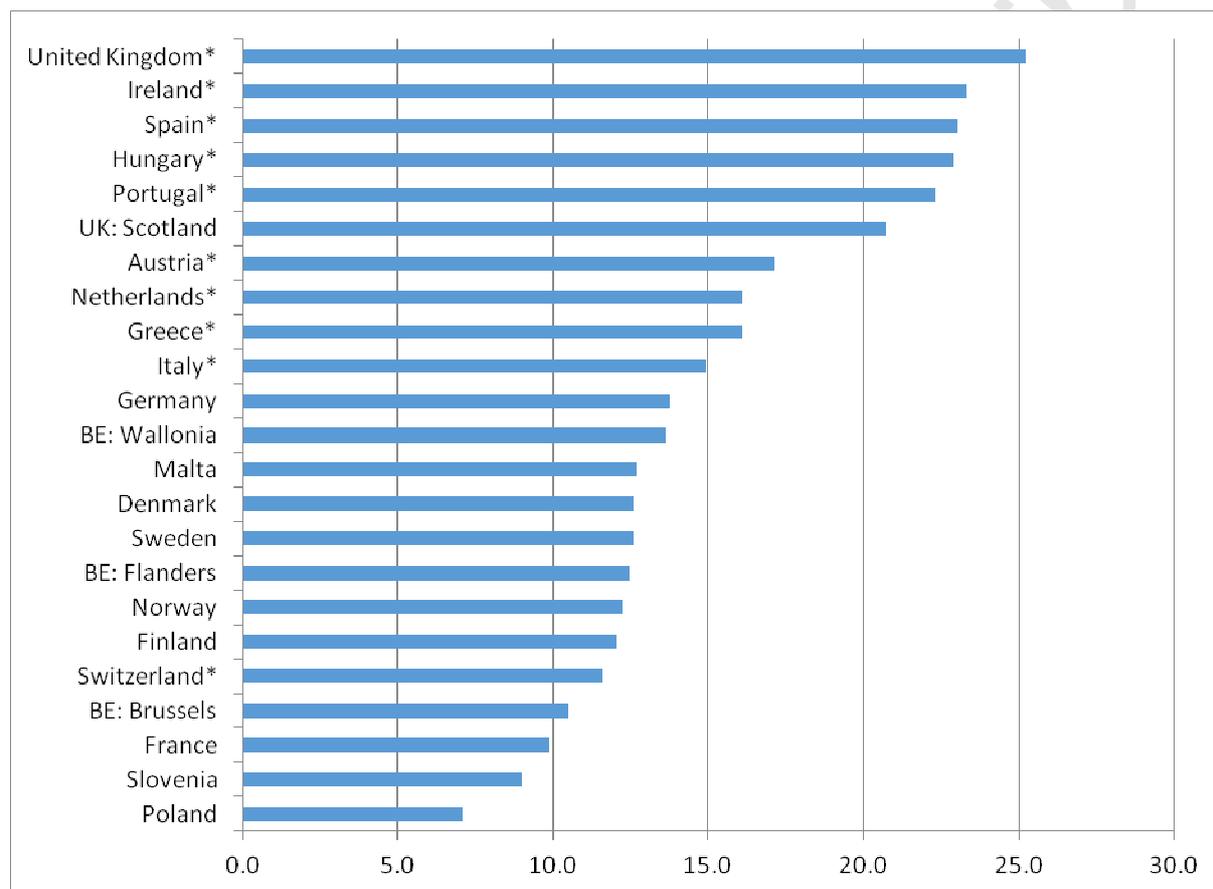
86 The Euro-Peristat Network started up in 1999 and aimed to analyse data about the health and health  
87 care of pregnant women and newborns. They now have official representation from 29 countries  
88 across Europe, and have developed a list of recommended indicators for perinatal health surveillance,  
89 based on a DELPHI consensus process with professionals from EU member states and Norway. These  
90 indicators for perinatal health are categorised into three sub groups: as *core* indicators – those that are  
91 essential to monitoring perinatal health – , and *recommended* indicators – those considered desirable  
92 for a more complete picture of perinatal health across the member states and finally indicators for  
93 *further development* – those that represent important aspects of perinatal health but require further  
94 work before they can be implemented within the member states.

95 Because of a rising incidence of obesity among women, Euro-Peristat have recently added the  
96 monitoring of mother's pre-pregnancy BMI, categorised as a *recommended* perinatal health indicator.  
97 The distribution of pre-pregnancy BMI was defined for women delivering live or stillborn babies  
98 before pregnancy or at the first antenatal visit, and data are based on existing birth registers in each  
99 country [6]. International comparisons are often complicated and biased by the heterogeneity of their  
100 regional data registers. Only a few European countries perform database linkages of maternal, fetal

101 and infant health determinants systematically and consequently, to improve the validity and quality of  
 102 routine data. Lack of optimal linkages explains the gaps and inconsistencies in the current data  
 103 availability[7].

104 Figure 1 shows the distribution of maternal obesity in different EU countries from the Euro-Peristat  
 105 database. Prevalence of obesity in countries marked with an asterisk was retrieved from the WHO  
 106 database including a general female population aged 20 years or older.

107 *Figure 1: Distribution of maternal obesity (BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) from Euro-Peristat database and WHO*  
 108



109  
 110  
 111  
 112  
 113  
 114

Source: <http://www.europeristat.com/our-indicators/euro-peristat-perinatal-health-indicators-2010.html>

\*from WHO database (2009) (globally higher rates due to general female population aged 20 or older)

115 The variation in the distribution of maternal obesity in the 3 geographical and political different  
 116 regions of Wallonia, Flanders and Brussels in Belgium, indicates a socio-demographic and economic  
 117 gradient, which needs further exploration. In the region of Brussels, 66% of neonates are born from a  
 118 mother with another ethnicity, indicating the influence of a complex multi-ethnic diversity and  
 119 different levels of welfare [6].

120 The Flemish Study Centre for Perinatal Epidemiology (SPE, Belgium) routinely collected data on  
 121 maternal pre-pregnancy weight (kg) and height (m) as well as maternal weight at delivery (kg) since

122 2009. Perinatal data from all maternity units (n=65) are collated centrally, subjected to an error  
123 detection program, and checked for accuracy and completeness through feedback with the individual  
124 units and reassessment of patient records when needed[8]. This enables us to make a representative  
125 regional picture of maternal obesity and gestational weight gain (GWG) in this region. The prevalence  
126 of maternal obesity significantly increased from 2009 (10,2%) to 2014 (11,4%). In the total term  
127 population, including only singletons (N=337 590), most obese pregnant women (72%) were class I  
128 obese (BMI 30-34.9kg/m<sup>2</sup>), whereas 21% were class II obese (BMI 35-39.9kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and 7% class III  
129 obese (BMI ≥ 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). The mean BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>, SD) significantly increased from 23.9 (4.5) in 2009  
130 to 24.2 (4.6) in 2014, with a same plateau since 2012. Concurrently maternal obesity also has an ethnic  
131 and socio-economical gradient[9], which increases even more the burden of maternal obesity on public  
132 health issues.

133 Euro-Peristat aims to build up a sustainable and qualitative perinatal health database. This  
134 development is of great value to have common and comparable data about maternal population  
135 characteristics like pre-gestational BMI.

136

### 137 **Maternal obesity and short- and long-term complications for the mother** 138 **and her offspring**

139 Obesity (BMI ≥30kg/m<sup>2</sup>) during pregnancy is a major public health concern because of the increased  
140 risks for both the mother and child. The increased risks for the mother of a miscarriage, metabolic and  
141 cardiovascular dysfunctions presented as gestational diabetes and hypertension, pre-eclampsia,  
142 dysfunctional labour and cesarean section have been well described[9-15]. Complications are even  
143 higher when maternal obesity is combined with excessive gestational weight gain, especially the  
144 increased risk of caesarean section, macrosomia and postpartum weight retention [12]. For the  
145 neonate, there is an increased risk of congenital malformations[16], macrosomia and admission to a  
146 neonatal care unit[9, 12, 17]; the risk of stillbirth is also strongly related to maternal BMI[18, 19].

147

148 In the long term, children of obese mothers who were prone to metabolic dysfunctions in utero, *in*  
149 *utero* programming, will face further metabolic and cardiovascular problems [20, 21], as well as  
150 neurocognitive developmental problems[22]. Furthermore, maternal weight retention between the first  
151 and second pregnancy, which is often a result of excessive gestational weight gain and postpartum  
152 weight retention (PPWR), is associated with an increased risk for perinatal complications in the next  
153 pregnancy, even in underweight and normal weight women[23, 24]. Concurrently, failure to lose  
154 pregnancy related weight in an appreciable time of six months after delivery is an important indicator  
155 of obesity in midlife, and is fueling an intergenerational cycle of obesity within the female population  
156 and offspring[21, 22].

157

158 In developed countries, obesity accounts for 2-7% of the total healthcare costs[1]. A recent  
159 retrospective prevalence-based study on health service utilization and costs in obese pregnant women  
160 up to 2 months following delivery showed respectively a 23% and 37% increased mean total cost in  
161 overweight and obese women, compared with normal weight pregnant women, and this was after  
162 adjusting for maternal age, parity, ethnicity and comorbidity[25]. Moreover, gestational diabetes  
163 increases costs of care of approximately 34% compared to women without gestational diabetes[26].

164

## 165 **Controversies in the management of maternal obesity**

### 166 *1. The value of routine weighing during pregnancy*

167 In the UK, routine weighing was phased out on recommendations of the National Institute for Health  
168 Care and Excellence (NICE) as it was potentially resulting in increased maternal stress without proven  
169 benefit[27]. This approach was recently supported by an Australian RCT in which 782 pregnant  
170 women were randomly assigned to systematic weighing during pregnancy versus routine care. Routine  
171 weighing at antenatal visits did not reduce total gestational weight gain, neither did it reduce the  
172 incidence of excessive gestational weight gain[28]. Unfortunately, the study was relatively small and  
173 did not report on perceived or measured stress or anxiety caused by (not) being weighed and  
174 discussing these issues during the antenatal visits.

175 In contrast to this, weighing in pregnancy still forms a routine part of antenatal practice in many  
176 European countries like France, Denmark, Germany, Italy and Belgium. Weighing at antenatal visits  
177 has substantial advantages: The recorded weight can initiate discussions on appropriate weight gain  
178 during pregnancy and about life-style modifications in order to achieve this. Also, many women are  
179 anxious about their weight during pregnancy. In women, weight gain can induce anxiety and stress,  
180 even when related to a “physiologic condition” like pregnancy. Adequate measurements and  
181 counseling in these situations could also have a possible stress-reduction affect.

182 This idea is supported by a recent RCT comparing usual care versus regular weighing, setting  
183 maximum weight gain targets and feedback by community midwives in pregnant women, irrespective  
184 of their BMI. The study showed a modest difference favoring the intervention group in the percentage  
185 of women gaining excessive gestational weight (23.5 % versus 29.4 %). More interestingly, the  
186 intervention group also consistently reported smaller increases in depression and anxiety scores  
187 throughout pregnancy compared with usual care. Most women commented the intervention was useful  
188 in encouraging them to think about their weight and believed it should be part of routine antenatal  
189 care. Community midwives felt the intervention could be implemented within routine care without

190 adding substantially to consultation length, thus not perceived as adding substantially to their  
191 workload[29].

192 From a public health perspective, there are many advantages to routine weighing and recording this in  
193 the perinatal databases. In the region of Flanders, Belgium, where patients are weighed routinely, BMI  
194 and gestational weight gain have been available for all pregnancies in the region since 2009. This has  
195 led to a better insight in the socio-demographics of gestational weight gain and maternal obesity, the  
196 related perinatal outcomes and the effects of weight fluctuation between pregnancies[9, 23].

197

## 198 *2. The optimal gestational weight gain and strategy for prevention of obesity related complications*

199 The additive effect of excessive gestational weight gain on the incidence of obesity-related  
200 complications like gestational diabetes, hypertensive disorders and caesarean birth is well  
201 established[12]. Additionally, there is increasing evidence that excessive gestational weight gain and  
202 the subsequent inter-pregnancy weight retention – which is often a result of retained weight after  
203 delivery - is associated with more complications in future pregnancy[23, 30].

204 Therefore it seems important to achieve a gestational weight gain in obese pregnant women that is  
205 associated with the best outcome. Recommendations for healthy weight gain in pregnancy related to  
206 the BMI at the start of pregnancy were published by the Institute of Medicine (OIM) in 1990 and  
207 revised in 2009[31]. Ideally, obese women should gain between 5 and 9 kg during pregnancy. Some  
208 have suggested that these recommendations are not strict enough and that a lower gain would lead to  
209 better outcomes, especially in obesity class II (BMI 35-40) and III (BMI>40)[32, 33]. Still about half  
210 of the overweight or obese pregnant women have gestational weight gain in excess of these  
211 recommendations. Therefore a large number of trials have conducted clinical programs to reduce  
212 gestational weight gain by promoting healthy eating, physical activity or a combination of those.  
213 While some trials were successful in reducing gestational weight gain [34, 35] or improving  
214 behavior[36], this impacted very little on relevant maternal and neonatal outcomes in meta-  
215 analyses[37, 38]. The ideal weight management in obese pregnant women therefore remains to be  
216 determined.

217

## 218 *3. The optimal strategy for screening for gestational diabetes GDM*

219 This topic has been addressed at length by Benhalima et al. in the same issue.

220

## 221 *4. The optimal timing and mode of delivery*

222 Labour is often complicated in obese pregnant women, and this in an apparently contradictory way.  
223 On one hand, a high BMI is associated with an increased risk for induced and spontaneous preterm  
224 birth[39]. On the other hand, obese women have a higher risk than overweight and lean women to  
225 progress beyond term, with a higher incidence of post-term childbirths especially when BMI reaches  
226 35 kg/m<sup>2</sup> or more[11, 40].

227 Obese women tend to have higher odds for induction of labour and failure to progress during  
228 labour[11, 41]. Once labour is established, obese women are at increased risk of cesarean delivery,  
229 operative vaginal delivery, and failed trial of labour after cesarean delivery.

230 Most studies advocate vaginal delivery as the preferred way of delivery in obese patients. In the  
231 absence of macrosomic fetus, induction of labour is not advised. In the presence of macrosomia, a  
232 recent European multicenter trial showed that early term (37-38+6w) induction of labour for suspected  
233 large-for-date fetuses (Estimated fetal weight (EFW)>95th percentile) is associated with a reduced risk  
234 of shoulder dystocia and associated morbidity compared with expectant management. In this study,  
235 induction of labour did not increase the risk of caesarean delivery and improved the likelihood of  
236 spontaneous vaginal delivery[42]. This approach however remains debated and some guidelines advise  
237 an elective caesarean section in cases with suspected macrosomia (EFW>4500g)[43].

238

## 239 **Psychological and motivational components**

### 240 *1. Obesity and anxiety during pregnancy and postpartum*

241 Obesity is increasing among women of reproductive age and adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes  
242 are well described. Concurrently, several studies have looked at evolutions of maternal anxiety and  
243 depression during pregnancy and the postpartum period, and they found that antenatal anxiety occurs  
244 frequently and increases the likelihood of antenatal and postnatal depression[44, 45]. Moreover,  
245 prospective studies have shown a link between antenatal maternal anxiety/stress and cognitive,  
246 behavioural, and emotional problems in the child, fueling the developmental origins of health and  
247 diseases' hypothesis[46, 47].

248 It is generally well known that obese women are more likely to suffer from higher levels of anxiety  
249 and depression, compared to normal-weight women, but these associations are less studied in pregnant  
250 women.

251 Psychological factors including stress and anxiety can also influence maternal weight. Pregnant  
252 women with elevated levels of stress and anxiety consume more fats, oils, sweets and snacks, have  
253 decreased intakes of vitamins and are often described as 'emo-eaters'[48]. We recently compared  
254 levels of anxiety and depressed mood during pregnancy in obese versus normal-weight women and

255 found higher levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms in obese women. Concurrently, lifestyle  
256 behavior (smoking) and socio-demographic characteristics as maternal education, ethnicity, living  
257 with a partner and psychological history were all related to the weight status of the pregnant women,  
258 making them even more vulnerable[49]. These associations were also confirmed in other studies[50,  
259 51]. Although the controversies regarding the optimal starting point of initiating lifestyle coaching in  
260 obese women to attain better maternal and neonatal health outcomes [52], lifestyle coaching in obese  
261 pregnant women can increase the psychological wellbeing, with beneficial effects on healthy  
262 gestational weight gain[35]. Besides, positive associations are shown between psychological factors  
263 during pregnancy, defined as levels of anxiety and feelings of depression, and weight retention at 6  
264 and 18 months after delivery[53, 54]. In the light of the *in utero* programming theory, the effect of the  
265 mental health of obese pregnant women should be explored further and its findings should be taken  
266 into account during the development of perinatal care programmes for pregnancy in high risk groups.

## 267 2. Obesity and motivational coaching

268 Obese pregnant women often lack knowledge about the impact of obesity during pregnancy; and  
269 communication with healthcare providers is often experienced as stressful, confusing and  
270 judgmental[55], and thus maternal expectations are often not met[56-58]. Most qualitative research  
271 concludes that improved training in communication skills with a less judgmental behavior and more  
272 sensitive interactions between healthcare providers and obese women is needed[59].

273 Motivational interviewing technique can be a supportive tool in the communication about health  
274 promotion and have showed promising effects in reducing weight in a non-pregnant population[60,  
275 61]. Motivational interviewing is based on a directive method of communication with a focus on  
276 intrinsic motivation. Motivational issues focus on developing discrepancy and exploring and resolving  
277 ambivalence about making changes, without undue pressure. Women are asked to identify behaviours  
278 that need to change and set small stepwise goals from their own intention to achieve a healthy  
279 behaviour. Personal barriers to behavioural change are explored and as much as possible positive  
280 verbal reinforcement is given to increase each pregnant woman's self-confidence and self-  
281 efficacy[62].

282

## 283 **Topics for future research**

### 284 **Table 1: Suggested topics for future collaboration and research concerning Maternal Obesity in** 285 **Europe**

- 286 • Standardization of registration of BMI and GWG in perinatal databases throughout Europe  
287 and related core outcome parameters.

- 288 • Prospective controlled studies on safety of gestational weight gain below recommendations in  
289 obesity class I, II and III.
- 290 • Identification of socio-demographic determinants of obese reproductive women by  
291 geographical region to target educational and preventive campaigns for the promotion of a  
292 healthy pre-gestational BMI
- 293 • Evaluation whether an altered onset and progression of labour in obese pregnant women calls  
294 for customized labour timeframes and targeted dosages of oxytocin
- 295 • Determination of pre-conceptional needs of overweight and obese women and effects of  
296 specific and targeted lifestyle interventions to increase the likelihood of a successful  
297 pregnancy and healthy infant.
- 298 • Determination of the optimal screening strategy to diagnose and treat GDM in obese pregnant  
299 women to prevent short and long-term risks related to GDM in mother and offspring (cfr  
300 Benhalima et al further in this issue)
- 301 • Studies on adequate folic acid and vitamin D dosages to prevent neural tube defects and GDM  
302 respectively in obese pregnant women
- 303 • Studies on the effectiveness of pre-conception health programs and interventions for  
304 improving pregnancy outcomes in overweight and obese women
- 305 • Definition of modified regular physical activity exercises for obese pregnant women to  
306 maintain physical fitness, manage weight, improve psychological well-being and reduce risk  
307 for GDM
- 308 • Description of an optimal strategy for lifestyle interventions during pregnancy, including  
309 mobile health applications to improve relevant composite maternal and neonatal outcomes
- 310 • Studies on the impact of maternal diet in obese pregnant women and mothers on the volume  
311 and quality of breastmilk
- 312 • Determination of the influence of a vulnerable socio-economic gradient in obese reproductive  
313 women on adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes
- 314 • Determination of the influence of maternal pre-conceptional and prenatal environment on  
315 epigenetic modifications in the neonate
- 316 • Studies on the long-term effects of obesity surgery before pregnancy on maternal and  
317 offspring health.

318

**319 In conclusion**

320 An integrated approach for the management of obesity in women of reproductive age who are  
321 planning a pregnancy is crucial. Management should begin before conception and continue through  
322 pregnancy and the postpartum period within a multidisciplinary team focusing on mental wellbeing,  
323 healthy eating and physical activity including weight management techniques.

324 Maternal obesity not only implies a personal responsibility but also infers a social environmental,  
325 political and economic responsibility. Cost-effectiveness of regulatory frameworks increasing the  
326 accessibility and availability of healthy food and drinks must be balanced against the burden of  
327 reduced quality of maternal health and related costs regarding all the co-morbidities in the mother as  
328 well as in the offspring.

329

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