

*Original Article*

## Lower Birth Weight Associated with Current Overweight Status Is Related with the Metabolic Syndrome in Obese Japanese Children

Yuki ABE<sup>1,2)</sup>, Toru KIKUCHI<sup>1)</sup>, Keisuke NAGASAKI<sup>1)</sup>, Makoto HIURA<sup>1)</sup>, Yukie TANAKA<sup>1)</sup>, Yohei OGAWA<sup>1)</sup>, and Makoto UCHIYAMA<sup>1)</sup>

The purpose of this study was to clarify the relationship between lower birth weight and current overweight status and to examine the involvement of these factors in the development of the metabolic syndrome (MS) in obese Japanese children. We examined 97 obese boys (mean age 11.3 years; mean percentage overweight [POW] 52.4%) and 29 obese girls (mean age 11.1 years; mean POW 58.3%). The anthropometric measurements, blood pressure, fasting serum insulin and blood glucose, liver enzymes, lipids and lipoproteins were measured. Birth weight and gestational weeks were also recorded. The subjects were divided into either an MS group or a Non-MS group using criteria proposed for Japanese children. We compared the weight parameters (birth weight, current weight and current weight-to-birth weight ratio [WBWR]) between the two groups and analyzed the relationships between the weight parameters and metabolic derangements. There were no significant differences in age or anthropometric measurements between the two groups. However, birth weight in the MS group was lower than that in the Non-MS group, while WBWR of the MS group was higher than that in the Non-MS group. Blood pressure and serum insulin correlated positively with WBWR. These findings suggested that lower birth weight with current overweight status was associated with the MS in obese Japanese children. We were unable to clarify whether subjects with lower birth weight who achieved proper weight gains had the same risk as subjects with appropriate birth weight. However, they should be assisted to grow adequately to prevent future metabolic derangements. (*Hypertens Res* 2007; 30: 627–634)

**Key Words:** birth weight, obesity, child, metabolic syndrome, thrifty phenotype hypothesis

### Introduction

The prevalence of obesity among Japanese children has increased dramatically and recently has become a serious public health problem (1). Obesity is the most common cause of insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia (2) and is strongly associated with hypertension, type 2 diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia and the metabolic syndrome (MS) in childhood. These conditions ultimately lead to life-threatening events such as

ischemic heart disease and cerebrovascular disease (3, 4). It therefore goes without saying that preventing the increase in obesity is important for protecting the health of children.

In 1986, Barker *et al.* introduced the thrifty phenotype hypothesis and showed that intrauterine growth retardation (IUGR) was associated closely with cardiovascular disease in later life (5) and also increased the risk of developing characteristics of the MS, such as hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and ultimately type 2 diabetes mellitus (6). Subsequently, several investigations reported that low birth weight followed by

From the <sup>1)</sup>Division of Pediatrics, Department of Homeostatic Regulation and Development, Niigata University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Niigata, Japan; and <sup>2)</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Niigata City General Hospital, Niigata, Japan.

Address for Reprints: Yuki Abe, M.D., Department of Pediatrics, Niigata City General Hospital, 2–6–1 Shichikuyama, Chuo-ku, Niigata 950–8739, Japan. E-mail: y-abe@hosp.niigata.niigata.jp

Received August 24, 2006; Accepted in revised form March 15, 2007.

**Table 1. Clinical Characteristics of the Subjects Grouped According to Gender**

	Boys ( <i>n</i> =97)				Girls ( <i>n</i> =29)			
	Range	Median	Mean	SD	Range	Median	Mean	SD
Birth weight (g)	2,210–4,625	3,370	3,395.6	408.6	2,534–3,976	3,200	3,223.1	349.5
Gestational week (weeks)	34–42	39	39.4	1.2	34–41	40	39.3	1.4
Age (years)	9.6–12.5	11.4	11.3	0.7	9.7–12.4	11.0	11.1	0.8
Height (cm)	135.5–171.3	149.2	150.1	7.5	136.9–159.8	148.2	148.5	5.2
Weight (kg)	46.2–105.0	60.4	63.4	10.9	47.9–82.5	60.6	63.4	9.7
POW (%)	27.5–110.0	50.4	52.4		30.9–114.3	52.3	58.3	
Body fat percentage (%)	26–46	35	34.8		31–43	37	37.6	
Waist circumferences (cm)	76.5–111.0	89.0	89.7		82.0–114.5	88.0	90.8	
Hip circumferences (cm)	83.0–116.0	92.5	93.0		83.5–112.0	93.0	95.2	
WBWR	13.3–30.7	18.4	18.9		14.9–25.9	19.2	19.9	
SBP (mmHg)	93–151	120	120.7	11.1	92–143	121	119.9	11.6
DBP (mmHg)	41–77	58	58.2	7.7	43–78	61	59.9	10.8
$P_{\max}$ (mm)	7.5–19.4	12.4	12.4		8.4–20.2	12.9	13.3	
$S_{\min}$ (mm)	6.2–28.3	13.2	13.5		8.7–24.8	15.3	14.9	
GOT (IU/L)	16–154	27	36.7		14–88	23	29.7	
GPT (IU/L)	11–272	34	52.3		10–215	28	42.9	
T-Chol (mg/dL)	122–273	184	187.5		133–271	194	194.3	
HDL (mg/dL)	32–73	51	50.6		37–81	48	49.0	
LDL (mg/dL)	67–196	113	118.4		77–194	128	126.5	
TG (mg/dL)	47–443	125	140.0		44–512	127	149.9	
FBG (mg/dL)	70–118	89	90.1	8.5	77–104	89	88.7	6.8
HbA <sub>1c</sub> (%)	4.1–5.6	4.8	4.8		4.1–5.5	4.7	4.8	
Serum insulin ( $\mu$ U/mL)	4.5–58.1	17.3	20.5		8.2–43.3	23.4	23.7	

POW, percentage overweight; WBWR, current weight–to–birth weight ratio; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure;  $P_{\max}$ , maximum preperitoneal fat thickness;  $S_{\min}$ , minimum subcutaneous fat thickness; GOT, glutamate-oxaloacetate transaminase level; GPT, glutamic-pyruvic transaminase level; T-Chol, total cholesterol level; HDL, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol level; LDL, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol level; TG, triglyceride level; FBG, fasting blood glucose level; HbA<sub>1c</sub>, hemoglobin A<sub>1c</sub>.

excessive weight gain in childhood led to insulin resistance and hypertension in adults (7–9). The relationship between low birth weight and increased risk of insulin resistance or type 2 diabetes mellitus has also been reported in children (10, 11). We also reported a negative correlation between birth weight and systolic blood pressure in children aged 3 years (12).

The purpose of this study was to clarify the relationship between lower birth weight and current overweight status and metabolic derangement in obese Japanese children.

## Methods

### Subjects

We examined 97 obese boys (mean age 11.3 years; range 9.6–12.5 years) and 29 obese girls (mean age 11.1 years; range 9.7–12.4 years) who lived in Niigata Prefecture, Japan and received regular medical examinations in conjunction with “The Prevention of Cardio- and Cerebrovascular Diseases in Childhood” program. The division of Pediatrics, Niigata University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences and

the School Health Division of local governments in Niigata Prefecture undertake this program every year. All subjects were more than 20% overweight based on age- and sex-specified body weight for height (percentage overweight [POW]) and had a body fat percentage >25% for boys or >30% for girls aged <11 years or >35% for girls aged  $\geq$ 11 years. No subjects had known endocrine disorders or diabetes. The anthropometric measurements and blood examinations were performed after informed consent had been obtained from the parents or guardians of all the subjects. The Ethical Committee of the Niigata University Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences approved this study.

### Methods

Height was measured by a portable stadiometer to the nearest 1 mm and weight by a digital scale to the nearest 0.1 kg. POW was calculated based on the standard body weight of Japanese children published in 1990 by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture of Japan (13, 14). Waist and hip circumferences were measured to the nearest 1 mm. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) were mea-

**Table 2. Characteristics of Obese Boys Divided into MS and Non-MS Groups**

	Non-MS (n=53)				MS (n=44)				P
	Range	Median	Mean	SD	Range	Median	Mean	SD	
Birth weight (g)	2,626–4,625	3,470	3,508.0	358.8	2,210–4,000	3,215	3,260.3	427.5	<0.005*
Gestational week (weeks)	34–42	39	39.3	1.4	37–42	40	39.5	1.0	n.s.
Age (years)	10.6–12.3	11.5	11.4	0.5	9.6–12.5	11.3	11.2	0.9	n.s.
Height (cm)	137.5–164.7	147.8	149.4	6.5	135.5–171.3	149.9	150.9	8.6	n.s.
Weight (kg)	51.0–105.0	59.6	62.7	11.2	46.2–101.8	63.2	64.2	10.6	n.s.
POW (%)	29.9–110.0	50.1	52.2		27.5–93.8	51.5	52.8		n.s.
Body fat percentage (%)	28–46	35.0	34.9		26–46	34	34.8		n.s.
Hip circumferences (cm)	83.5–116.0	92.0	92.9		83.0–113.0	92.5	93.1		n.s.
WBWR	13.3–30.7	17.0	18.0		13.9–28.2	19.7	19.9		<0.005†
P <sub>max</sub> (mm)	7.5–18.1	11.7	12.2		7.5–19.4	12.5	12.5		n.s.
S <sub>min</sub> (mm)	6.5–27.4	13.7	13.7		6.2–28.3	12.4	13.2		n.s.
GOT (IU/L)	16–109	27	30.6		17–154	27	44.0		n.s.
GPT (IU/L)	11–170	30	39.8		16–272	39	67.4		<0.05†
T-Chol (mg/dL)	122–273	182	185.8		133–264	184	189.6		n.s.
LDL (mg/dL)	67–196	111	116.6		74–176	116.5	120.4		n.s.
HbA <sub>1c</sub> (%)	4.1–5.6	4.8	4.8		4.1–5.4	4.7	4.8		n.s.
Serum insulin (μU/mL)	5.4–41.5	14.4	16.5		4.5–58.1	21.5	25.3		<0.0005†

MS, metabolic syndrome; Non-MS, non metabolic syndrome; n.s., not statistically significant. Other abbreviations are the same as in Table 1. \*Analyzed using unpaired *t*-test; †analyzed using the Mann-Whitney *U* test.

sured in triplicate in the right arm, with the subjects seated quietly, using an automated sphygmomanometer (Dinamap Model 8104; Critikon Inc., Tampa, USA). The third measurement was used in the statistical analyses. Body fat percentage was measured by the biological impedance method using a body composition analyzer (RJL Spectrum; RJL Systems, Detroit, USA). Abdominal fat thickness was estimated by ultrasonography (TOSHIBA Model SSA-250A; Toshiba Corp., Tokyo, Japan) (15). The subjects were positioned supine and the linear-array probe kept perpendicular to the skin on the upper medial aspect of the abdomen. A longitudinal scan was then performed from the xyphoid process to the navel along the linea alba. Scanning was performed at the optimal position, with the surface of the liver being kept almost parallel to the skin by requesting that subjects hold their breath. The probe was applied lightly to the skin in order to avoid compression of the fat layer. Maximum preperitoneal fat thickness ( $P_{max}$ ) and minimum subcutaneous fat thickness ( $S_{min}$ ) were measured directly from the screen using electronic calipers (16).

Birth weight and gestational weeks were obtained from maternal and child health handbooks.

Blood samples were collected from the subjects after an overnight fast for the measurement of serum liver enzymes, lipid levels, lipoproteins, fasting blood glucose (FBG), hemoglobin A<sub>1c</sub> (HbA<sub>1c</sub>) and fasting serum insulin.

### Statistical Analysis

Birth weight, gestational weeks, age, height, weight, SBP,

DBP and FBG were normally distributed and were expressed as range, median, mean and SD, while the other parameters were not normally distributed and were expressed as range, median and mean.

The subjects were divided into two groups, those with the MS (MS group) and those without the MS (Non-MS group). Although the criteria for defining the MS in adults have been published by the World Health Organization (17) and the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment III (18) and have been proved to be useful for Japanese men (19), there are no criteria for children. We therefore used the provisional criteria for Japanese children proposed by the study group of the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan (20): 1) waist circumference  $\geq 80$  cm; 2) serum triglyceride (TG) levels  $\geq 120$  mg/dL or high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol levels  $< 40$  mg/dL; 3) FBG levels  $\geq 100$  mg/dL; 4) SBP  $\geq 125$  mmHg or DBP  $\geq 70$  mmHg. A diagnosis of MS was made in children who complied with 1) and had at least two of the other criteria 2) to 4).

We analyzed all the anthropometric measurements and metabolism-related laboratory data listed in Table 1, grouped according to gender, with the exception of parameters included as criteria for the MS. Birth weight, gestational weeks, age, height, and weight were analyzed using unpaired *t*-tests, while other parameters were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney *U* test.

The relationships between SBP and DBP, laboratory data and body weight parameters (birth weight, current weight and current weight-to-birth weight ratio [WBWR: current weight (kg)/birth weight (kg)]) were analyzed using Spearman's

**Table 3. Characteristics of Obese Girls Divided into MS and Non-MS Groups**

	Non-MS ( <i>n</i> =16)				MS ( <i>n</i> =13)				<i>p</i>
	Range	Median	Mean	SD	Range	Median	Mean	SD	
Birth weight (g)	2,998–3,825	3,389.5	3,367.0	240.2	2,534–3,976	2,940	3,045.9	389.0	<0.05*
Gestational week (weeks)	34–41	40	39.3	1.7	37–41	40	39.4	1.2	n.s.
Age (years)	9.8–12.4	11.1	11.1	0.8	9.7–12.4	11.0	11.1	0.8	n.s.
Height (cm)	140.7–153.4	147.6	147.8	3.3	136.9–159.8	150.6	149.4	6.9	n.s.
Weight (kg)	49.4–75.4	58.8	61.0	7.5	47.9–82.5	70.1	66.4	11.4	n.s.
POW (%)	30.9–87.4	51.2	54.2		38.0–114.3	63.2	63.4		n.s.
Body fat percentage (%)	35–42	37	37.7		31–43	37	37.5		n.s.
Hip circumferences (cm)	84.0–104.5	92.3	92.9		83.5–112.0	99.5	97.9		n.s.
WBWR	14.9–24.6	17.2	18.2		16.3–25.9	21.8	21.9		<0.01†
<i>P</i> <sub>max</sub> (mm)	8.4–20.2	11.9	12.8		9.4–16.8	13.9	13.8		n.s.
<i>S</i> <sub>min</sub> (mm)	10.0–19.1	15.4	14.7		8.7–24.8	15.0	15.1		n.s.
GOT (IU/L)	14–88	22.5	27.1		19–88	30	32.9		n.s.
GPT (IU/L)	10–215	22	38.8		19–119	37	47.9		<0.05†
T-Chol (mg/dL)	134–271	185	188.1		133–271	204	202.0		n.s.
LDL (mg/dL)	83–194	119	122.1		77–172	136	131.9		n.s.
HbA <sub>1c</sub> (%)	4.4–5.2	4.7	4.8		4.1–5.5	4.8	4.8		n.s.
Serum insulin (μU/mL)	8.2–40.3	20.2	20.7		9.1–43.3	26.7	27.5		<0.05†

Abbreviations are the same as in Table 2.

**Table 4. Spearman's Rank-Correlation Coefficients between Blood Pressure, Metabolism-Related Laboratory Data and Body Weight Parameters (*n*=126)**

	Birth weight		Weight		WBWR	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
SBP		n.s.	0.43	<0.0001	0.47	<0.0001
DBP	–0.34	<0.0005	0.18	<0.05	0.35	<0.0005
GOT		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
GPT		n.s.	0.18	<0.05	0.27	<0.005
T-Chol		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
HDL		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
LDL		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
TG		n.s.		n.s.	0.24	<0.01
FBG		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
HbA <sub>1c</sub>		n.s.	0.19	<0.05	0.21	<0.05
Serum insulin	–0.33	<0.0005	0.48	<0.0001	0.63	<0.0001

Abbreviations are the same as in Table 2.

rank-correlation coefficients without distinction of gender.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to examine the influence of height, weight, birth weight and gender on MS parameters such as waist circumference, SBP, DBP, TG, HDL and FBG levels and also glutamic-pyruvic transaminase (GPT) and serum insulin levels. Waist circumference, HDL, TG, GPT and serum insulin levels were log-transformed before analysis.

All statistical analyses were carried out using StatView for Windows Ver. 5.0 (Abacus Concepts, Berkeley, USA). Probability (*p*) values <0.05 were considered to be statistically significant in all analyses.

## Results

The clinical characteristics of the subjects are summarized in Table 1. Mean POW was 52.4% for boys and 58.3% for girls, while mean birth weight was 3,395.6 g for boys and 3,223.1 g for girls. Two boys and one girl were small for their gestational age (birth weight SD score <–1.5 SD), while one boy and one girl were pre-term gestational infants, being born earlier than 37 weeks.

Table 2 shows the anthropometric measurements and laboratory data of obese boys belonging to the MS (44 boys) or

**Table 5. Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of MS Parameters and Metabolism-Related Laboratory Data Validating the Involvement of Height, Weight, Birth Weight and Gender ( $n=126$ )**

	<i>r</i>	<i>F</i>	
Waist circumference			
Height	-0.427	33.0	
Weight	1.177	250.1	$R^2=0.755$
Birth weight	NO		$p<0.0001$
Gender	NO		
SBP			
Height	NO		
Weight	0.447	29.7	$R^2=0.198$
Birth weight	-0.237	8.3	$p<0.0001$
Gender	NO		
DBP			
Height	NO		
Weight	0.195	5.3	$R^2=0.143$
Birth weight	-0.388	20.9	$p<0.0001$
Gender	NO		
HDL			
Height	NO		
Weight	NO		
Birth weight	NO		
Gender	NO		
TG			
Height	NO		
Weight	NO		
Birth weight	NO		
Gender	NO		
FBG			
Height	NO		
Weight	NO		
Birth weight	NO		
Gender	NO		
GPT			
Height	-0.396	7.9	
Weight	0.595	18.0	$R^2=0.149$
Birth weight	-0.219	6.4	$p<0.0001$
Gender	-0.202	5.7	
HbA <sub>1c</sub>			
Height	NO		
Weight	0.264	9.3	$R^2=0.062$
Birth weight	NO		$p<0.005$
Gender	NO		
Serum insulin			
Height	NO		
Weight	0.502	43.7	$R^2=0.313$
Birth weight	-0.396	27.2	$p<0.0001$
Gender	NO		

NO, not obtained. Other abbreviations are the same as in Table 2. Waist circumference, HDL, TG, GPT and serum insulin levels were log-transformed before analysis.

Non-MS (53 boys) group. There were no significant differences between the two groups in regard to age, height, weight, POW, body fat percentage and hip circumferences. However, birth weight was lower and WBWR was higher in the MS group. GPT and serum insulin levels were also higher in the MS group.

Table 3 summarizes the data for obese girls divided into the MS (13 girls) and Non-MS (16 girls) groups. As with the boys, there were no differences in age, height, current weight, POW, body fat percentage and hip circumferences between the two groups, with birth weight being lower and WBWR higher in the MS group. GPT and serum insulin levels also showed the same tendencies as those observed in the boys.

Table 4 shows the relationships between blood pressure, metabolism-related laboratory data and body weight parameters. SBP was correlated positively with current weight and WBWR, while DBP showed a negative correlation with birth weight and a positive correlation with WBWR. There were also weak positive correlations between GPT, TG levels, HbA<sub>1c</sub> and WBWR. Serum insulin levels correlated with birth weight, current weight and WBWR, with WBWR showing the strongest correlation.

Table 5 summarizes the results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis and confirms the involvement of height, weight, birth weight and gender in MS parameters and also in the metabolism-related laboratory data that showed correlations with weight parameters in Table 4 (GPT, HbA<sub>1c</sub> and serum insulin levels). These results demonstrated that waist circumference correlated negatively with current height and positively with current weight. SBP, DBP, GPT, HbA<sub>1c</sub> and serum insulin levels were correlated positively with current weight, and with the exception of HbA<sub>1c</sub>, negatively with birth weight. GPT levels were also found to be correlated with current height and gender.

## Discussion

A poor intrauterine environment resulting from factors such as maternal malnutrition, smoking habits, excessive alcohol consumption and drug abuse is known to affect fetal growth (21–23). In such circumstances, the maternal-placental nutrients fail to supply the fetal nutrient demand and the fetus undergoes changes to the structure and function of its organs. This adaptation, called “programming,” is an advantage that helps the fetus to survive. However, it also results in permanent alterations to the metabolic status of the fetus (24).

In this study, there were no significant differences between current anthropometric measurements, including height, current weight, POW, hip circumference and body fat percentage between the MS and Non-MS groups in both boys and girls. However, in the MS group, birth weight was significantly lower while WBWR was increased. These findings indicate that in individuals with a similar level of obesity, subjects with a lower birth weight and subsequent greater weight gain tend to be at higher risk of developing the MS. This trend is in



accordance with the thrifty phenotype hypothesis.

In this study we investigated whether there was an increased prevalence of higher blood pressure in individuals with a lower birth weight. The mechanisms of hypertension caused by “programming” have been investigated and include fetal malnutrition resulting in a reduction in the number of nephrons (25) and decreased synthesis of elastin in the walls of the aorta and large arteries (26). Both these changes have the potential to lead to hypertension. Placental malnutrition also reduces  $11\beta$ -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activity, resulting in disturbed inactivation of maternal glucocorticoids. Fetal exposure to glucocorticoids increases the sensitivity of the arterial walls to angiotensin II and also predisposes the fetus to higher levels of blood pressure (27, 28). The “catch up” growth after birth resets the hypothalamus-pituitary axis, leading to an increase in growth factors such as insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1), that may lead to the development of hypertension and insulin resistance (29, 30). In our study, SBP showed a stronger relationship with WBWR than with weight. Furthermore, DBP was negatively correlated with birth weight and positively with WBWR, indicating that the effects of “programming” followed by inappropriate weight gain result in subjects tending to have higher blood pressure levels and an increased risk of hypertension.

Our results showed that GPT, TG levels and  $HbA_{1c}$  were correlated positively with WBWR. Although the association between non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and birth weight has not been investigated directly (31), a relationship between obesity and NAFLD has been reported in both adults and children (32, 33). In addition to the degree of obesity, hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance are also important factors in NAFLD (34). Our results showed that the strongest correlation was between serum insulin levels and WBWR, indicating that hyperinsulinemia has a closer link with the combination of lower birth weight and subsequent weight gain, than with either factor alone. According to these results, the elevation in GPT levels was related to WBWR as a consequence of the effects of hyperinsulinemia. Lower birth weight and subsequent inappropriate weight gain would generate insulin resistance, leading to NAFLD. Hypertriglyceridemia is a common lipid abnormality associated with insulin resistance and diabetic status (35). In our results, TG levels and  $HbA_{1c}$  showed positive correlations only with WBWR but not with birth weight or current weight alone. This suggested that the rise in TG levels and  $HbA_{1c}$  were also associated with WBWR *via* the effects of insulin resistance.

The mechanism by which “programming” causes insulin resistance is considered to be the result of fetal malnutrition disturbing the growth and functional progression of fetal  $\beta$ -cells, leading to decreased secretion of insulin (36). One other cause is a change in the structure of muscles and increased number of type II fibers. These fibers have less capillary supply and therefore lower glucose intake from capillaries compared to type I fibers, differences that may predispose to the

development of insulin resistance (37). Our study showed correlations between serum insulin levels and body weight parameters such as birth weight, current weight and WBWR. Of these parameters, WBWR showed the strongest correlation with insulin levels. We have reported previously that lower birth weight and accumulation of visceral fat are independently related to hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance (38). These facts are consistent with the higher risk of insulin resistance found in individuals with lower birth weight and greater weight gain.

Although WBWR was not influenced by current height, our results showed that SBP, DBP and serum insulin levels correlated with current weight and birth weight, but not with height. We therefore conclude that WBWR may be associated with an increased risk of higher blood pressure and insulin resistance.

Hypertension and insulin resistance are major components of the MS (17, 18). In our study, WBWR correlated with these two conditions, indicating that individuals with lower birth weight and subsequent inappropriate weight gain are at high risk of developing the MS. In other words, the thrifty phenotype hypothesis may play an important role in the etiology of the MS in children. We were unable to clarify whether a subject with a lower birth weight and subsequent normal growth had the same risk of developing the MS as a subject with appropriate birth weight. However, there is evidence that children with low birth weights tend to become obese in later life (39, 40). This fact indicates that subjects with a lower birth weight are at higher risk of developing the MS. Furthermore, the lifestyles of parents relating to fetal malnutrition, especially smoking habits, may also increase the risk of cardiovascular and other lifestyle-related diseases in their children after birth (41).

Thus, the strategy for preventing the MS in childhood must be the avoidance, not only of obesity, but also of fetal malnutrition or intrauterine growth retardation. To achieve these goals, we need to make aggressive medical interventions in order to correct the lifestyle habits of obese children, in addition to educating their parents that an excessive diet, alcohol or drug abuse and smoking habits have the potential to harm, not only their health, but also the health of their children as a consequence of “programming.”

## References

1. Matsushita Y, Yoshiike N, Kaneda F, Yoshita K, Takimoto H: Trends in childhood obesity in Japan over the last 25 years from the national nutrition survey. *Obes Res* 2004; **12**: 205–214.
2. Ferrannini E, Natali A, Bell P, Cavallo-Perin P, Lalic N, Mingrone G: Insulin resistance and hypersecretion in obesity. European Group for the Study of Insulin Resistance (EGIR). *J Clin Invest* 1997; **100**: 1166–1173.
3. Steinberger J, Daniels SR: Obesity, insulin resistance, diabetes, and cardiovascular risk in children: an American Heart Association Scientific Statement from the Atheroscle-

- rosis, Hypertension, and Obesity in the Young Committee (Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young) and the Diabetes Committee (Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism). *Circulation* 2003; **107**: 1448–1453.
4. Daniels SR, Arnett DK, Eckel RH, et al: Overweight in children and adolescents: pathophysiology, consequences, prevention, and treatment. *Circulation* 2005; **111**: 1999–2012.
  5. Barker DJ, Osmond C: Infant mortality, childhood nutrition, and ischemic heart disease in England and Wales. *Lancet* 1986; **1**: 1077–1081.
  6. Barker DJ, Hales CN, Fall CH, Osmond C, Phipps K, Clark PM: Type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus, hypertension and hyperlipidaemia (syndrome X): relation to reduced fetal growth. *Diabetologia* 1993; **36**: 62–77.
  7. Eriksson JG, Forsen T, Tuomilehto J, Jaddoe VW, Osmond C, Barker DJ: Effects of size at birth and childhood growth on the insulin resistance syndrome in elderly individuals. *Diabetologia* 2002; **45**: 342–348.
  8. Bhargava SK, Sachdev HS, Fall CH: Relation of serial changes in childhood body-mass index to impaired glucose tolerance in young adulthood. *N Engl J Med* 2004; **350**: 865–875.
  9. Huxley RR, Shiell AW, Law CM: The role of size at birth and postnatal catch-up growth in determining systolic blood pressure: a systematic review of the literature. *J Hypertens* 2000; **18**: 815–831.
  10. Murtaugh MA, Jacobs DR Jr, Moran A, Steinberger J, Sinaiko AR: Relation of birth weight to fasting insulin, insulin resistance, and body size in adolescence. *Diabetes Care* 2003; **26**: 187–192.
  11. Bavdekar A, Yajnik CS, Fall CH, et al: Insulin resistance syndrome in 8-year-old Indian children: small at birth, big at 8 years, or both? *Diabetes* 1999; **48**: 2422–2429.
  12. Hashimoto N, Kawasaki T, Kikuchi T, Takahashi H, Uchiyama M: The relationship between the intrauterine environment and blood pressure in 3-year-old Japanese children. *Acta Paediatr* 1996; **85**: 132–138.
  13. Yamazaki K, Matsuoka H, Kawanobe S, Hujita S, Murata M: Evaluation of standard body weight by sex, age, and height: on basis of 1990 school year data. *J Jpn Pediatr Sci* 1994; **98**: 96–102.
  14. Asayama K, Ozeki T, Sugihara S, et al: Criteria for medical intervention in obese children: a new definition of ‘obesity disease’ in Japanese children. *Pediatr Int* 2003; **45**: 642–646.
  15. Suzuki R, Watanabe S, Hirai Y, et al: Abdominal wall fat index, estimated by ultrasonography, for assessment of the ratio of visceral fat to subcutaneous fat in the abdomen. *Am J Med* 1993; **95**: 309–314.
  16. Tamura A, Mori T, Hara Y, Komiyama A: Preperitoneal fat thickness in childhood obesity: association with serum insulin concentration. *Pediatr Int* 2000; **42**: 155–159.
  17. Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ: Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabet Med* 1998; **15**: 539–553.
  18. Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults: Executive summary of the third report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). *JAMA* 2001; **285**: 2486–2497.
  19. Takeuchi H, Saitoh S, Takagi S, et al: Metabolic syndrome and cardiac disease in Japanese men: applicability of the concept of metabolic syndrome defined by the National Cholesterol Education Program—Adult Treatment Panel III to Japanese men—the Tanno and Sobetsu Study. *Hypertens Res* 2005; **28**: 203–208.
  20. Ozeki T, Okada T, Yoshinaga M, et al: The concepts of metabolic syndrome and establishment of provisional definition criteria in children. *Nihon Shonika Gakkai Zashi* 2006; **110**: 154 (in Japanese).
  21. Day NL, Jasperse D, Richardson D, et al: Prenatal exposure to alcohol: effect on infant growth and morphologic characteristics. *Pediatrics* 1989; **84**: 536–541.
  22. Chomitz VR, Cheung LW, Lieberman E: The role of lifestyle in preventing low birth weight. *Future Child* 1995; **5**: 121–138.
  23. Mitchell EA, Robinson E, Clark PM, et al: Maternal nutritional risk factors for small for gestational age babies in a developed country: a case-control study. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed* 2004; **89**: F431–F435.
  24. Godfrey KM, Barker DJ: Fetal programming and adult health. *Public Health Nutr* 2001; **4**: 611–624.
  25. Mackenzie HS, Brenner BM: Fewer nephrons at birth: a missing link in the etiology of essential hypertension? *Am J Kidney Dis* 1995; **26**: 91–98.
  26. Martyn CN, Greenwald SE: Impaired synthesis of elastin in walls of aorta and large conduit arteries during early development as an initiating event in pathogenesis of systemic hypertension. *Lancet* 1997; **350**: 953–955.
  27. Edwards CR, Benediktsson R, Lindsay RS, Seckl JR: Dysfunction of placental glucocorticoid barrier: link between fetal environment and adult hypertension? *Lancet* 1993; **341**: 355–357.
  28. Lindsay RS, Lindsay RM, Edwards CR, Seckl JR: Inhibition of 11-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase in pregnant rats and the programming of blood pressure in the offspring. *Hypertension* 1996; **27**: 1200–1204.
  29. Fall CH, Pandit AN, Law CM, et al: Size at birth and plasma insulin-like growth factor-1 concentrations. *Arch Dis Child* 1995; **73**: 287–293.
  30. Fall CH, Clark PM, Hindmarsh PC, Clayton PE, Shiell AW, Law CM: Urinary GH and IGF-I excretion in nine year-old children: relation to sex, current size and size at birth. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 2000; **53**: 69–76.
  31. Donma MM, Donma O: Low birth weight: a possible risk factor also for liver diseases in adult life? *Med Hypotheses* 2003; **61**: 435–438.
  32. Adler M, Schaffner F: Fatty liver hepatitis and cirrhosis in obese patients. *Am J Med* 1979; **67**: 811–816.
  33. Moran JR, Ghishan FK, Halter SA, Greene HL: Steatohepatitis in obese children: a cause of chronic liver dysfunction. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1983; **78**: 374–377.
  34. Kawasaki T, Hashimoto N, Kikuchi T, Takahashi H, Uchiyama M: The relationship between fatty liver and hyperinsulinemia in obese Japanese children. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 1997; **24**: 317–321.

35. Ginsberg HN, Zhang YL, Hernandez-Ono A: Regulation of plasma triglycerides in insulin resistance and diabetes. *Arch Med Res* 2005; **36**: 232–240.
36. Blondeau B, Lesage J, Czernichow P, Dupouy JP, Breant B: Glucocorticoids impair fetal beta-cell development in rats. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2001; **281**: E592–E599.
37. Lillioja S, Young AA, Culter CL, *et al*: Skeletal muscle capillary density and fiber type are possible determinants of *in vivo* insulin resistance in man. *J Clin Invest* 1987; **80**: 415–424.
38. Tanaka Y, Kikuchi T, Nagasaki K, Hiura M, Ogawa Y, Uchiyama M: Lower birth weight and visceral fat accumulation are related to hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance in obese Japanese children. *Hypertens Res* 2005; **28**: 529–536.
39. Ravelli AC, van Der Meulen JH, Osmond C, Barker DJ, Bleker OP: Obesity at the age of 50 y in men and women exposed to famine prenatally. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1999; **70**: 811–816.
40. Eriksson J, Forsen T, Tuomilehto J, Osmond C, Barker D: Size at birth, childhood growth and obesity in adult life. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 2001; **25**: 735–740.
41. Burke V, Gracey MP, Milligan RA, Thompson C, Taggart AC, Beilin LJ: Parental smoking and risk factors for cardiovascular disease in 10- to 12-year-old children. *J Pediatr* 1998; **133**: 206–213.