Indicated Prevention of Adult Obesity

How Much Weight Change Is Necessary for Normalization of Weight Status in Children?

Andrea B. Goldschmidt, PhD; Denise E. Wilfley, PhD; Rocco A. Paluch, MA; James N. Roemmich, PhD; Leonard H. Epstein, PhD

Objective: To investigate the notion of indicated prevention—helping overweight or obese youth attain nonoverweight status to prevent adult obesity—by examining weight-for-height changes needed to normalize weight status in youth who are growing.

Design: We determined the amount of weight-forheight change necessary for overweight or obese youth to achieve non-overweight status using linear mixed modeling of longitudinal growth patterns and using Centers for Disease Control and Prevention weight thresholds corresponding to the age- and sex-adjusted body mass index (BMI; calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared) below the 85th percentile. Mean weight changes among children who achieved nonoverweight status at 1 and 2 years after treatment were calculated.

Setting: Weight control programs at 3 research institutions.

Participants: A total of 669 overweight or obese children aged 8 to 13 years.

Intervention: Family-based behavioral weight control treatment.

Main Outcome Measure: Weight.

Results: Relatively small weight changes (range, -7.55 to +3.90 kg) were necessary for children to achieve nonoverweight status after 1 year; this was most pronounced among younger children (range, -2.90 to +3.36 kg for children aged 8-10 years) and children closer to the 85th BMI percentile (range, +2.44 to +3.90 kg for children at the 90th BMI percentile). Observed weight changes of children who achieved nonoverweight status following treatment were similar to estimates based on Centers for Disease Control and Prevention normative data.

Conclusions: Attaining nonoverweight status in childhood is possible with modest weight loss or, in some circumstances, by slowing weight gain, and may help prevent adult obesity. Future research should investigate how much intervention is needed to shift the growth trajectory to nonoverweight status and how much weight-forheight change is needed to improve other health outcomes in adulthood.

JAMA Pediatr. 2013;167(1):21-26. *Published online November* 5, 2012. *doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2013.416*

Author Affiliations: Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Neuroscience, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (Dr Goldschmidt); Department of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, Missouri (Dr Wilfley); and Department of Pediatrics, School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences (Mr Paluch and Drs Roemmich and Epstein), and Departments of Exercise and Nutrition Sciences (Dr Roemmich) and Social and Preventive Medicine (Drs Roemmich and Epstein), School of Public Health, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.



and at risk for adverse health sequelae.³ Obesity is a leading cause of preventable death,⁴ accounting for 5.7% of national health care costs.⁵ Obesity also presents a major burden to the individual, resulting in decreased productivity, lost wages, and reduced quality of life.⁶ Pediatric obesity (PO) tends to track into adulthood,⁷ and if untreated, approximately half of overweight children will remain overweight or obese as adults.^{8,9} Conversely, reversal of PO may minimize many negative health outcomes with which adult obesity is associated.¹⁰ Pediatric obesity thus represents an important point of intervention for preventing adult obesity and associated complications.

For editorial comment see also page 87

Given the contribution of broad environmental factors (eg, food availability and opportunities for physical activity) to the development and maintenance of obesity,¹⁰ there has been increased interest in the development of school- and community-based prevention programs. However, universal prevention programs have shown limited efficacy,¹¹ likely due to the

JAMA PEDIATR/VOL 167 (NO. 1), JAN 2013 WWW.JAMAPEDS.COM 21

limited focus on individual- or family-level behaviors. Thus, a selective approach may be more efficient.

Unlike universal prevention, which involves populations as a whole, indicated prevention involves youth who are already overweight or obese and thus more likely to track their excess weight into adulthood.^{7,12} Targeting these children is recommended for many reasons. Children are often more successful in weight control programs than adults,¹³ perhaps because their dietary and physical activity habits are less ingrained and more amenable to change.14 Given associations between duration of obesity and adverse medical consequences,15,16 children may be less likely than adults to present with comorbidities that could complicate treatment. Finally, and most pertinent to the current study, interventionists can take advantage of children's concomitant height growth, such that relatively modest weight changes are needed to produce significant reductions in markers of overweight status.¹⁷ For these reasons, targeted intervention approaches may be most efficacious for preventing adult obesity.

It is currently recommended that overweight and obese children lower their body mass index (BMI; calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared) below the 85th percentile for age and sex.¹⁸ However, given individual differences in expected height growth, it is often difficult for health care providers to make specific recommendations regarding how much weight change is needed for patients to achieve nonoverweight status. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) growth charts can assist with treatment planning; however, they are limited by the normative sample and cross-sectional nature of the data¹⁹ and do not account for factors unique to overweight samples, such as earlier pubertal timing.²⁰

This study sought to provide estimates of the amount of weight change, given expected height changes, needed for overweight and obese children to achieve nonoverweight status during 1 and 2 years. These estimates can be used as guidelines for indicated prevention programs. Data from PO clinical trials (which seek to maximize reductions in children's relative weight) are useful in this regard because they can be used to assess how much weight change, relative to normative height changes, is needed to produce significant decreases in children's relative weight. Our estimates should be validated using prospective research on the amount of weight-for-height changes necessary to shift children from a trajectory of adult obesity and adverse health outcomes to a reduced risk of adult obesity and more positive health outcomes.

Height growth data from 669 overweight and obese treatment-seeking children were used to determine ageand sex-specific weight thresholds for achieving a BMI below the 85th percentile.¹⁹ Next, we provided weight loss targets for hypothetical children to achieve nonoverweight status, incorporating expected height growth estimates from our empirical sample. Secondary aims were (1) to compare our empirically derived estimates of weight changes necessary for overweight and obese children to achieve nonoverweight status with those derived using CDC normative, cross-sectional data; and (2) to examine actual weight change among youth who converted from overweight/obese to nonoverweight status, or from obese to overweight status, during 1- and 2-year follow-ups. We aimed to provide these easily accessible reference data, to be used in tandem with one another, to assist health care providers in choosing short- and long-term treatment targets for their overweight and obese patients.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were 669 overweight and obese children (mean [SD] BMI percentile, 96.4 [1.6]); 64.6% were girls, and the mean (SD) age was 10.2 (1.3) years (range, 8-13 years). Data were drawn from PO treatment studies at 3 research institutions (University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; University at Buffalo, Buffalo, New York; and San Diego State University/University of California at San Diego, San Diego), with basic aspects of family-based behavioral treatment common to all studies. These included the Traffic Light Diet; a physical activity program; behavioral treatment components such as self-monitoring, stimulus control, goal-setting, and reinforcement; parenting skills; and targeting both the parent and child^{21,22} (**Table 1**). Each study was approved by the respective institutional review board. To be included in the current study, participants had to have height data available for at least 1 year after treatment; moreover, these data had to have been collected when the child was between the ages of 7.75 and 13.25 years.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Analyses were conducted using SPSS, version 16.0 (SPSS, Inc). Linear mixed models were used to determine children's height changes during 1-year periods, starting at age 8 years and ending at age 13 years. Each model used the children's exact age at the time of measurement to predict measured height. For each 1 year of chronological age, observations within 3 months above or below the age thresholds were included to maximize estimation around each year's model (eg, a child initially aged 7.75 through 8.25 years would be included in the 8- to 9-year age category). Separate models were developed for boys and girls within each age category, producing a total of 10 models. The slope estimates from each model describe the change in height during a 1-unit (ie, 1-year) increase in age. Because of differing attendance at follow-up assessments, some children were represented in multiple age categories, whereas others were represented in only 1 category.

Using 2000 CDC child BMI percentiles,19 we calculated weight thresholds at the 85th BMI percentile for children of differing ages and heights. The CDC data were also used to calculate the amount of weight change needed for hypothetical children of different ages and baseline BMI percentiles (ie, 90th, 95th, and 97th percentiles) to shift to nonoverweight status (ie, less than the 85th BMI percentile). Baseline height and height growth data from our mixed-model analyses were used to derive these latter estimates. We also calculated weight change targets for children of different ages and different baseline BMI percentiles to shift to nonoverweight status, based solely on CDC normative data. Height data for these latter estimates were based on the 50th height percentile; differences in height between age cohorts from the CDC data were used as a proxy for longitudinal height growth. Weight change targets based on our longitudinal data and CDC normative data were compared using correlations.

Means, SDs, and ranges of observed weight changes were calculated for those youth from our longitudinal sample who converted from overweight or obese to nonoverweight status, or from obese to overweight status, during 1- and 2-year follow-

Table 1. Baseline Sample Characteristics by Study^a

					Age.			Mean (SD)	
Citation	Location	Follow-up, mo	No.	Girls, No. (%)	Mean (SD), y	Nonwhite, No. (%) ^b	BMI	BMI z Score	BMI Percentile
Epstein et al ²³	Pittsburgh	120	47	31 (66.0)	10.1 (1.5)		24.77 (3.08)	1.88 (0.40)	95.14 (2.63)
Epstein et al ²⁴	Pittsburgh	120	35	28 (80.0)	10.5 (1.4)		25.54 (2.42)	1.91 (0.32)	95.77 (2.32)
Epstein et al ²⁵	Pittsburgh	120	38	30 (78.9)	10.9 (1.1)		25.86 (3.07)	1.86 (0.37)	95.16 (2.63)
Epstein et al ²⁶	Pittsburgh	120	41	30 (73.2)	10.6 (1.3)		26.63 (3.66)	2.00 (0.35)	96.02 (1.81)
Epstein et al ²⁷	Buffalo	24	80	54 (67.5)	10.4 (1.2)	4 (5.0)	27.86 (3.06)	2.17 (0.26)	96.73 (0.90)
Epstein et al ²⁸	Buffalo	24	59	31 (52.5)	10.4 (1.1)	2 (3.4)	27.55 (3.06)	2.16 (0.27)	96.68 (1.17)
Epstein et al ²⁹	Buffalo	12	60	30 (50.0)	10.3 (1.2)	3 (5.0)	27.34 (3.54)	2.15 (0.29)	96.60 (1.57)
Epstein et al ³⁰	Buffalo	24	63	38 (60.3)	9.9 (1.3)	5 (7.9)	27.73 (2.65)	2.24 (0.22)	96.97 (0.18)
Goldfield et al ³¹	Buffalo	12	24	17 (70.8)	10.0 (1.3)	0 (0)	26.84 (3.17)	2.12 (0.27)	96.66 (1.10)
Epstein et al ³²	Buffalo	24	37	22 (59.5)	10.2 (1.2)	1 (2.7)	30.00 (4.37)	2.35 (0.31)	96.79 (0.86)
Epstein et al ³³	Buffalo	24	35	16 (45.7)	10.5 (1.1)	5 (14.3)	29.53 (4.18)	2.27 (0.30)	96.73 (1.49)
Wilfley et al ²²	San Diego	24	150	105 (70.0)	9.9 (1.3)	48 (32.0)	27.59 (3.41)	2.20 (0.30)	96.68 (1.18)
Full sample			669	432 (64.6)	10.2 (1.3)	68 (13.4)	27.36 (3.51)	2.13 (0.33)	96.43 (1.61)

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared).

^a All values are for children. Numbers refer to participants included in the current study and do not necessarily reflect the sample sizes for the original studies. ^b Race/ethnicity data were not available for all studies; percentage of nonwhites for the full sample reflects the percentage of available subjects.

ups. Because of the small sample sizes, categories of participants were collapsed by age and sex.

RESULTS

Table 2 presents observed height growth for overweight and obese children during 1-year periods, starting at age 8 years and ending at age 13 years. These values could be added to a child's current height to estimate height growth during the coming year. The 95% CIs are provided as more and less conservative estimates of growth during different age categories. For instance, if a child has tended to grow slowly relative to the average child, the lower end of the 95% CIs may be advisable to predict annual height growth.

The eTable (http://www.jamapeds.com) presents weight thresholds corresponding to the 85th percentile for ageand sex-adjusted BMI. Given a child's sex, age, and height, these tables supply the minimum weight that would indicate overweight status. Any weight below the thresholds demarcates a healthy weight range. Pediatric obesity interventions should help children achieve a weight lower than these thresholds to prevent adult obesity.

Table 3 provides sample weight change targets for hypothetical children at the 90th, 95th, and 97th percentiles for age- and sex-adjusted BMI. For the longitudinal estimates, weight loss targets are based on hypothetical children of average height and assuming average growth during 1-year intervals, based on our longitudinal sample. For the cross-sectional estimates, weight loss targets are based on children at the 50th height percentile from the CDC normative sample; height changes for the CDC sample were based on cross-sectional differences in observed heights between age cohorts for children at the 50th percentile for height. Using these 2 data sets, we determined the amount of weight change needed to move children from the 90th, 95th, or 97th age- and sexadjusted BMI percentile to the 85th age- and sexadjusted BMI percentile during 1 year. Correlations between weight change targets based on our longitudi-

Table 2. Observed Height Growth During 1 YearBased on Longitudinal Data for Overweight ChildrenAged 8 to 13 Years^a

Age Category, y	Observed Growth (SE), cm	95% CI
Boys		
8-9 (n = 21)	5.01 (0.39)	4.19-5.82
9-10 (n = 71)	5.72 (0.28)	5.16-6.27
10-11 (n = 103)	5.16 (0.21)	4.73-5.58
11-12 (n = 109)	5.74 (0.19)	5.37-6.12
12-13 (n = 81)	6.61 (0.21)	6.19-7.03
Girls		
8-9 (n = 67)	6.28 (0.21)	5.86-6.69
9-10 (n = 140)	6.17 (0.17)	5.83-6.51
10-11 (n = 172)	6.35 (0.17)	6.01-6.68
11-12 (n = 171)	5.88 (0.15)	5.59-6.17
12-13 (n = 127)	5.05 (0.19)	4.68-5.43

^aChildren were measured at least twice within each 1-year age category.

nal data and on CDC data were in the large range (*r* range, 0.59-0.97). These targets are examples only; children exhibiting smaller-than-average height or height growth would require greater weight loss in order to achieve nonoverweight status in 1 year. Children who are taller than average or who demonstrate greater-thanaverage growth would go further below the 85th BMI percentile than projected. For more precise weight loss targets, health care providers are advised to use the heightspecific weight thresholds provided in the eTable. After estimating a patient's anticipated height growth for the coming year, select the weight threshold corresponding to the patient's age in the coming year and compute the difference between the patient's current weight and the weight threshold value.

Table 4 presents observed weight changes for children who moved from overweight or obese to nonoverweight status, or from obese to overweight status, during 1- and 2-year follow-ups. Some of the children who shifted to nonoverweight status were considerably lower

Table 3. Weight Change Targets for Shifting Hypothetical Children to the 85th Age- and Sex-Specific BMI Percentile During 1 Year^a

					Weight Char	nge Targets, kg		
	Baseline	Height, cm	ç	lOth	g	15th	()7th
Age Category, y	Longitudinal Data, Mean (SD)	Cross-Sectional Data, 50th Percentile	Longitudinal Data	Cross-Sectional Data	Longitudinal Data	Cross-Sectional Data	Longitudinal Data	Cross-Sectional Data
Boys								
8-9	134.17 (5.20)	128.12	2.44	2.64	-0.04	0.39	-2.14	-1.53
9-10	140.02 (5.27)	133.73	2.99	2.52	-0.16	-0.35	-2.88	-2.84
10-11	144.12 (6.03)	138.82	2.75	2.52	-1.01	-0.97	-4.28	-4.00
11-12	149.59 (6.96)	143.73	3.21	3.00	-1.22	-1.09	-5.05	-4.62
12-13	155.19 (5.95)	149.31	3.90	4.12	-1.15	-0.56	-5.49	-4.58
Girls								
8-9	133.45 (5.47)	127.83	3.22	2.59	0.47	0.07	-1.82	-2.03
9-10	139.56 (6.17)	133.13	3.36	2.61	-0.05	-0.49	-2.90	-3.08
10-11	145.00 (6.04)	138.21	3.57	3.25	-0.52	-0.47	-3.93	-3.57
11-12	150.80 (6.49)	144.26	3.30	4.07	-1.53	-0.35	-5.55	-4.03
12-13	156.14 (6.36)	151.49	2.65	3.17	-2.91	-2.07	-7.55	-6.43

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared).

^aWeight-change targets for boys and girls from the longitudinal data are based on observed height and growth from the mixed model analyses of our longitudinal sample of overweight children. Weight-change targets for boys and girls from the cross-sectional data are based on heights at the 50th percentile and differences in stature between age cohorts from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention normative sample.

	Weig	ght Change at 1-y Follow-up, kg	Weight Change at 2-y Follow-up, kg		
Baseline BMI Percentiles	No.	Mean (SD) (Range)	No.	Mean (SD) (Range)	
	Children Who Conv	verted From Overweight or Obese to No	noverweight Stat	us	
90th-95th percentiles	20	-2.4 (1.9) (0.5 to -7.0)	11	4.1 (3.3) (8.6 to -0.7)	
95th-97th percentiles	12	-6.8 (4.1) (-0.7 to -12.6)	10	0.6 (4.7) (7.3 to -5.1)	
>97th percentiles	16	-10.3 (4.0) (-3.2 to -18.4)	15	-6.8 (5.0) (-0.9 to -17.1)	
	Children V	Who Converted From Obese to Overwei	ght Status		
95th-97th percentiles	39	0.7 (3.4) (7.1 to -6.1)	20	9.7 (5.5) (19.5 to -2.8)	
>97th percentiles	61	-4.8 (4.6) (3.5 to -16.8)	42	2.1 (4.9) (14.1 to -10.0)	

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared).

^a Participants were drawn from all available studies, thus some participants are included at only 1 follow-up time point while others were available at both follow-up time points.

than the 85th age- and sex-adjusted BMI percentile at 1year (range, 33.3-84.9) and 2-year (range, 48.1-84.9) follow-up; thus, the values provided in this table may overestimate the amount of weight change needed to convert to nonoverweight status (eg, the child who had lost 18.4 kg at the 1-year follow-up initiated treatment at the 97th BMI percentile and achieved a BMI percentile of 33.3 at the 1-year follow-up). The average overweight child should not be expected to move so far below the 85th BMI percentile; indeed, more modest weight changes can be expected to result in a shift to nonoverweight status, as demonstrated in Table 3.

COMMENT

This study provides estimates of weight change necessary for overweight or obese children to shift to nonoverweight status. The values differ by age and sex but, more important, illustrate that large weight losses may not be necessary to achieve nonoverweight status. For children closer to the 85th BMI percentile who are growing at the expected rate, even modest weight *gain* during 1 year can normalize weight status, given concomitant height changes. For example, an 8-year-old girl at the 90th BMI percentile could gain approximately 3 kg to achieve nonoverweight status in 1 year. Conversely, gaining 5 kg would result in BMI maintenance at the 90th percentile in 1 year. This minimal difference of 2 kg indicates that drastic behavioral changes are likely unnecessary for attainment of nonoverweight status for some youth. Even for more severely overweight children, relatively small weight losses of 2 to 7 kg can lead to nonoverweight status during 1 year; this translates to a weight loss of approximately 0.04 to 0.13 kg per week, well within clinical recommendations for children.¹⁸

More severely obese children (ie, BMI \geq 99th percentile) may require larger weight losses to convert to nonoverweight status, and more modest goals (eg, a 5%-10% reduction in BMI percentile) may be indicated to improve current and future health.^{34,35} However, weight loss estimates for these children will likely increase with age. For example, an 8-year-old girl at the 97th BMI percentile would need to lose 1.8 kg to achieve nonoverweight status in 1 year; that target increases to 7.6 kg for the same girl just 4 years later, at age 12. Given the average weight gain trajectory for untreated youth, one could easily see how that child could eventually carry an excess 30 kg or more in adulthood; weight normalization at that point would clearly be a much more difficult undertaking. This underscores the need for early intervention and should encourage health care providers to engage patients in weight management to minimize weight gain and health complications later in life.

Our longitudinally derived weight change targets for shifting children to nonoverweight status compare relatively well with those derived using CDC normative data. For example, on the basis of observed height growth in our sample, a weight change of +3.9 to -2.9 kg in a hypothetical child presenting between the 90th and 95th age- and sex-adjusted BMI percentiles would result in nonoverweight status after 1 year. On the basis of actual weight change data in our sample, a child between the same adjusted BMI percentiles would need to lose 2.4 kg to achieve nonoverweight status after 1 year. Weight-change targets derived from the CDC data are remarkably similar, estimating that a weight change of +4.1 to -2.1 kg in a child presenting between those same adjusted BMI percentiles would result in nonoverweight status after 1 year. Thus, although CDC data are based on cross-sectional observations, they appear to provide good estimates of weight changes compared with those gleaned from observations over time. Health care providers should feel comfortable using CDC data to calculate weight-change targets for their patients, especially because these data are representative of the national population and are applicable to children at different height percentiles.

Generally, our data show that older children need to lose more weight (or conversely, to gain less weight) than younger children to achieve nonoverweight status. Given that younger children can anticipate more future growth than those who have initiated or completed puberty, this highlights the importance of early identification and treatment of PO. Interventions targeting preadolescents have produced successful outcomes,^{36,37} and some data indicate that younger age predicts greater BMI *z* score reduction on treatment completion.²¹ Younger children may be optimal targets for indicated prevention of adult obesity, although weight control treatment for overweight youth at any age is well advised.

Health care providers treating PO may espouse 1 of 2 contrasting perspectives: that children will naturally "outgrow" their obesity and do not require intervention, or that lengthy, intensive treatment is necessary to normalize children's weight status.³⁸ However, we have demonstrated that using family-based behavioral treatment, relatively small weight-for-height change can potentiate weight normalization in children, especially those closer to the 85th BMI percentile. Thus, a moderate approach may be sufficient for helping youth who are not severely overweight achieve nonoverweight status. For example, intervening as a child's BMI moves above the "normal" curve may necessitate minimal behavioral changes to shift that child back to nonoverweight status. How much intervention is required to shift a child's BMI trajectory to a healthier path likely differs by individual, and future research should clarify the intensity of intervention necessary for children in different ranges of the overweight spectrum. However, the changes observed in the current study were achieved using family-based behavioral treatment, and it is unclear whether less intensive approaches (eg, using select components of more intensive interventions) are effective in producing relative weight change. A stepped-care approach may be indicated whereby a less intensive intervention is replaced by a more intensive intervention in the absence of significant weight change.³⁹

Although our data resulted from family-based PO treatment, the implications apply to any weight control intervention. Given differing nutritional needs within and across individuals throughout development,⁴⁰ caloric and physical activity goals may require tailoring to help children meet their weight loss goals: for example, calorie limits may need to be increased during puberty or when children are losing weight too rapidly. Even children in whom modest weight gain is indicated to reach nonoverweight status (eg, younger children or those presenting at lower BMI percentiles) will require an energy deficit to avoid maintenance of overweight status along with height growth. Moreover, once weight normalization is achieved, behavioral changes must be sustained to assist children in achieving weight change commensurate with height growth to prevent return to overweight status, and continued engagement in healthy weightrelated behaviors will be needed to maintain a nonoverweight trajectory into adulthood. Maintenance treatments may be promising in this regard.²²

A study limitation is that weight loss targets assume average stature and growth and hence will not apply to all children. In addition, height changes in our empirical sample were observed during and after PO treatment, which could limit the generalizability of our data to non-treatment-seeking youth. However, moderate weight change appears to have minimal effect on growth in overweight children,¹⁷ which minimizes this concern. Finally, some of the sample sizes for deriving height change estimates and calculating observed weight changes were relatively small, thus results should be replicated. Strengths include the longitudinal design as well as the presentation of specific weight-change targets for children of varying ages, sexes, and anthropometric characteristics, which adds substantially to the existing literature and may assist with treatment planning.

Obesity has reached epidemic proportions, and it poses a burden to the individual and the public. Our findings highlight the need for rapid identification and intervention delivery to curtail further weight gain and mounting individual and societal costs. Although there are currently no established methods for preventing adult obesity, given that PO increases risk for adult obesity, it is reasonable to assume that reversing overweight status in childhood could decrease adult obesity risk. Indeed, 30% of youth receiving PO treatment are no longer obese in late adolescence or early adulthood, with shorter-term percentage overweight change best predicting longterm outcome.⁴¹ Future research should investigate whether attainment of nonoverweight status in childhood improves other health outcomes in adulthood.⁴² In summary, this study provides evidence that one aspect of indicated prevention, namely, normalizing weight status in childhood, is achievable through modest weight changes in growing children using intensive, familybased treatment. Continuing to develop and refine approaches for achieving this outcome is an important next step toward helping to stem the obesity epidemic in this country and worldwide.

Submitted for Publication: February 6, 2012; final revision received May 17, 2012; accepted May 29, 2012. Published Online: November 5, 2012. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2013.416

Correspondence: Denise E. Wilfley, PhD, Department of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, 660 S Euclid Ave, Campus Box 8134, St Louis, MO 63110 (wilfleyd@psychiatry.wustl.edu).

Author Contributions: Study concept and design: Goldschmidt, Wilfley, Paluch, Roemmich, and Epstein. Acquisition of data: Wilfley, Paluch, Roemmich, and Epstein. Analysis and interpretation of data: Goldschmidt, Wilfley, Paluch, Roemmich, and Epstein. Drafting of the manuscript: Goldschmidt, Wilfley, Paluch, and Epstein. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Goldschmidt, Wilfley, Paluch, Roemmich, and Epstein. Statistical analysis: Goldschmidt and Paluch. Obtained funding: Wilfley and Epstein. Administrative, technical, and material support: Wilfley and Epstein. Study supervision: Wilfley and Epstein.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: None reported.

Funding/Support: This study was supported by grants T32-MH082761 (Dr Goldschmidt), R01-HD036904 (Dr Wilfley), K24-MH070446 (Dr Wilfley), and R01-HD039778 (Dr Epstein) from the National Institutes of Health.

Role of the Sponsors: The study sponsors were not involved in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; or preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript. **Online-Only Material:** An eTable is available at http: //www.jamapeds.com.

REFERENCES

- Ogden CL, Carroll MD, Curtin LR, McDowell MA, Tabak CJ, Flegal KM. Prevalence of overweight and obesity in the United States, 1999-2004. JAMA. 2006; 295(13):1549-1555.
- Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Ogden CL, Curtin LR. Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999-2008. JAMA. 2010;303(3):235-241.
- Dietz WH. Health consequences of obesity in youth: childhood predictors of adult disease. *Pediatrics*. 1998;101(3, pt 2):518-525.
- Jia H, Lubetkin EI. Trends in quality-adjusted life-years lost contributed by smoking and obesity. Am J Prev Med. 2010;38(2):138-144.
- Finkelstein EA, Fiebelkorn IC, Wang G. State-level estimates of annual medical expenditures attributable to obesity. *Obes Res.* 2004;12(1):18-24.
- Stein CJ, Colditz GA. The epidemic of obesity. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2004;89 (6):2522-2525.
- Guo SS, Wu W, Chumlea WC, Roche AF. Predicting overweight and obesity in adulthood from body mass index values in childhood and adolescence. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2002;76(3):653-658.
- Serdula MK, Ivery D, Coates RJ, Freedman DS, Williamson DF, Byers T. Do obese children become obese adults? a review of the literature. *Prev Med.* 1993;22 (2):167-177.
- Freedman DS, Khan LK, Serdula MK, Dietz WH, Srinivasan SR, Berenson GS. Interrelationships among childhood BMI, childhood height, and adult obesity: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2004;28(1):10-16.
- 10. Glass TA, McAtee MJ. Behavioral science at the crossroads in public health:

extending horizons, envisioning the future. Soc Sci Med. 2006;62(7):1650-1671.

- Summerbell CD, Waters E, Edmunds LD, Kelly S, Brown T, Campbell KJ. Interventions for preventing obesity in children. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2005; (3):CD001871.
- Institute of Medicine. Weighing the Options: Criteria for Evaluating Weight-Management Programs. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1995.
- Epstein LH, Valoski AM, Kalarchian MA, McCurley J. Do children lose and maintain weight easier than adults: a comparison of child and parent weight changes from six months to ten years. *Obes Res.* 1995;3(5):411-417.
- Northstone K, Emmett PM. Are dietary patterns stable throughout early and midchildhood? a birth cohort study. *Br J Nutr.* 2008;100(5):1069-1076.
- Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG. Weight change and duration of overweight and obesity in the incidence of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 1999;22(8):1266-1272.
- Alpert MA, Terry BE, Mulekar M, et al. Cardiac morphology and left ventricular function in normotensive morbidly obese patients with and without congestive heart failure, and effect of weight loss. *Am J Cardiol.* 1997;80(6):736-740.
- Epstein LH, Valoski A, McCurley J. Effect of weight loss by obese children on long-term growth. *Am J Dis Child*. 1993;147(10):1076-1080.
- Spear BA, Barlow SE, Ervin C, et al. Recommendations for treatment of child and adolescent overweight and obesity. *Pediatrics*. 2007;120(suppl 4):S254-S288.
- Kuczmarski RJ, Ogden CL, Grummer-Strawn LM, et al. CDC growth charts: United States. Adv Data. 2000;314(314):1-27.
- Power C, Lake JK, Cole TJ. Body mass index and height from childhood to adulthood in the 1958 British born cohort. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1997;66(5):1094-1101.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Roemmich JN, Beecher MD. Family-based obesity treatment, then and now: twenty-five years of pediatric obesity treatment. *Health Psychol.* 2007;26(4):381-391.
- Wilfley DE, Stein RI, Saelens BE, et al. Efficacy of maintenance treatment approaches for childhood overweight: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2007; 298(14):1661-1673.
- Epstein LH, Wing RR, Koeske R, Andrasik F, Ossip DJ. Child and parent weight loss in family-based behavior modification programs. *J Consult Clin Psychol.* 1981;49(5):674-685.
- Epstein LH, Wing RR, Koeske R, Valoski A. Effects of diet plus exercise on weight change in parents and children. J Consult Clin Psychol. 1984;52(3):429-437.
- Epstein LH, Wing RR, Koeske R, Valoski A. Effect of parent weight on weight loss in obese children. J Consult Clin Psychol. 1986;54(3):400-401.
- Epstein LH, Wing RR, Koeske R, Valoski A. A comparison of lifestyle exercise, aerobic exercise, and calisthenics on weight loss in obese children. *Behav Ther.* 1985;16:345-356.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Gordy CC, Dorn J. Decreasing sedentary behaviors in treating pediatric obesity. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 2000;154(3):220-226.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Gordy CC, Saelens BE, Ernst MM. Problem solving in the treatment of childhood obesity. J Consult Clin Psychol. 2000;68(4):717-721.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Raynor HA. Sex differences in obese children and siblings in family-based obesity treatment. *Obes Res.* 2001;9(12):746-753.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Kilanowski CK, Raynor HA. The effect of reinforcement or stimulus control to reduce sedentary behavior in the treatment of pediatric obesity. *Health Psychol.* 2004;23(4):371-380.
- Goldfield GS, Epstein LH, Kilanowski CK, Paluch RA, Kogut-Bossler B. Costeffectiveness of group and mixed family-based treatment for childhood obesity. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2001;25(12):1843-1849.
- Epstein LH, Roemmich JN, Paluch RA, Raynor HA. Physical activity as a substitute for sedentary behavior in youth. Ann Behav Med. 2005;29(3):200-209.
- Epstein LH, Paluch RA, Beecher MD, Roemmich JN. Increasing healthy eating vs reducing high energy–dense foods to treat pediatric obesity. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2008;16(2):318-326.
- Kalarchian MA, Levine MD, Arslanian SA, et al. Family-based treatment of severe pediatric obesity: randomized, controlled trial. *Pediatrics*. 2009;124(4): 1060-1068.
- Ford AL, Hunt LP, Cooper A, Shield JP. What reduction in BMI SDS is required in obese adolescents to improve body composition and cardiometabolic health? *Arch Dis Child*. 2010;95(4):256-261.
- Bluford DA, Sherry B, Scanlon KS. Interventions to prevent or treat obesity in preschool children: a review of evaluated programs. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2007; 15(6):1356-1372.
- Oude Luttikhuis H, Baur L, Jansen H, et al. Interventions for treating obesity in children. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2009;(1):CD001872.
- Walker O, Strong M, Atchinson R, Saunders J, Abbott J. A qualitative study of primary care clinicians' views of treating childhood obesity. *BMC Fam Pract.* 2007; 8:50. doi:10.1186/1471-2296-8-50.
- Carels RA, Darby L, Cacciapaglia HM, et al. Applying a stepped-care approach to the treatment of obesity. J Psychosom Res. 2005;59(6):375-383.
- Butte NF, Moon JK, Wong WW, Hopkinson JM, Smith EO. Energy requirements from infancy to adulthood. Am J Clin Nutr. 1995;62(5)(suppl):1047S-1052S.
- Epstein LH, Valoski AM, Wing RR, McCurley JJ. Ten-year outcomes of behavioral family-based treatment for childhood obesity. *Health Psychol.* 1994;13 (5):373-383.
- Juonala M, Magnussen CG, Berenson GS, et al. Childhood adiposity, adult adiposity, and cardiovascular risk factors. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;365(20):1876-1885.

JAMA PEDIATR/VOL 167 (NO. 1), JAN 2013 WWW.JAMAPEDS.COM 26