

1 **TITLE PAGE**

2 **Socio-demographic and behavioural risk factors associated with the high prevalence of**
3 **overweight and obesity in Portuguese children**

4

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24 **Grant information**

25 This study was supported by a grant of the Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia FCOMP-01-
26 0124-FEDER-007483

27

28 **Conflict of Interest**

29 None

30

31 **Acknowledgments**

32 DDB did the statistical analyses and data cleaning supervised by MIVS and wrote the first draft.

33 All authors contributed to the interpreting the results, and to the discussion. All authors revised
34 the article and approved the final manuscript.

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47 **Abstract**

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49 **Objectives:** Childhood obesity is a public health concern in Portugal. Socio-demographic and
50 behavioural factors are highly associated with obesity but are not clearly understood. This paper
51 aims to update the prevalence of overweight and obesity in Portuguese children and to explore
52 the influence and risks of socio-demographic factors and behavioural factors.

53

54 **Methods:** A cross-sectional study of Portuguese children aged 3-10 years from all 18 mainland
55 districts took place between March 2009 and January 2010. 17,136 (8455 boys; 8681 girls).
56 Height, weight and other anthropometric measurements were obtained by trained technicians.
57 Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated along with other anthropometric variables. Data
58 analyses took place between April and September 2012. The overweight/obesity classification
59 was established by age-and sex-specific BMI cut-off points as defined by the International
60 Obesity Task Force (IOTF). Parents completed questionnaires about socio-demographic and
61 behavioural characteristics of the family.

62

63 **Results:** Almost 28% of the Portuguese children were overweight or obese (19.7% overweight;
64 8.2% obese). Prevalence was greater in girls than in boys. Logistic regression models found that
65 the odds of childhood obesity were significantly affected by biological, socio-demographic and
66 behavioural factors.

67

68 **Conclusions:** The protective factors against childhood overweight/obesity in this sample of
69 Portuguese children are: i) being male; ii) having been breastfeed; iii) having been born from

70 mothers who did not smoke during pregnancy; iv) engaging in little sedentary behaviours (TV,
71 PC and playing electronic games); iv) performing at least 1 hour of moderate physical activity
72 every day; and vi) having parents with higher educational levels who also have their BMI within
73 the healthy ranges.

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75 **Keywords:** Portugal, children, obesity, risk factors, physical activity, sedentary behaviours

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93 **INTRODUCTION**

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95 Overweight and obesity (OW/OB) have significantly increased over the last 25 years and have
96 been described as a public health epidemic (World Health Organisation, 1998). OW/OB are
97 terms used to describe an excess of adiposity (fatness) above the ideal for good health (Waters et
98 al, 2011). Obesity increases the risk of a number of non-communicable diseases such as
99 cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Mokdad et al, 2003), type II diabetes (Hirani et al, 2008), cancer
100 (Calle et al, 2003), respiratory disease (Barranco et al, 2012), high cholesterol (Mokdad et al,
101 2003; Ko et al, 2001) and high blood pressure (Mokdad et al, 2003). Populations in developed
102 and in many developing nations are increasingly becoming obese, particularly children. The
103 seriousness of childhood obesity is increased by past evidence reporting that once obesity has
104 been established, at a younger age, it is difficult to be reversed later in life (Waters et al, 2011;
105 Luttikhuis et al, 2009; Singh et al, 2008; Field et al, 2005). The problem is aggravated due to the
106 increasingly onset of type II diabetes *mellitus* occurring in younger ages when compared to 25
107 years ago, and obesity is stated as a major determinant (Rosenbloom et al, 2000). Obese children
108 are also likely to experience negative stereotyping such as perceptions of poor health, academic
109 and social uselessness, poor hygiene and idleness (Hill & Silver, 1995; Thiel et al, 2008). Obese
110 children may also experience negative emotional and psychological states such as nervousness,
111 sadness and loneliness (Strauss, 2000). Finally, they are more likely to become victims of
112 bullying and to engage in unhealthy behaviours such as smoking tobacco and/or cannabis (Farhat
113 et al, 2010).

114

115 Overweight/obesity occurs when there is a consistent positive energy imbalance over a sustained
116 period of time. A review by Lobstein et al (2004) describes that a variety of factors such as
117 behavioural (physical activity, diet, sedentary lifestyle), cultural, genetic, environmental and
118 economic have been associated in obesity's development. These factors are interchangeable and
119 therefore complex. Like in most developed countries, childhood OW/OB is a public health
120 concern in Portugal. Padez et al (2005) investigated the prevalence and risk factors for obesity
121 of 7 to 9.5 year old children in a national representative sample and found alarming rates. More
122 specifically, the prevalence of overweight, obesity and combined overweight+obesity were,
123 respectively, 20,3%, 11,3% and 31,6%. It was found that parental obesity and educational levels
124 were the most significant risk factors of children's obesity. In the same study, it was concluded
125 that maternal obesity had a stronger link to OW/OB compared to paternal obesity and suggested
126 that this is unsurprising due to the cultural factor of Portuguese mothers being the parent who is
127 usually responsible for important lifestyle factors such as buying, preparing, and serving food for
128 the family. Also, a review by Moreira (2007) found that the reported prevalences of obesity
129 would differ from one region of the country to another. , These findings are consistent with
130 results from other studies in different ethnicities (Xi et al, 2009; Dannemann et al, 2011;
131 Patterson et al, 1997).

132
133 Sedentary behaviour is defined as any waking behaviour characterised by energy expenditure
134 below 1.5 MET while sitting or reclining posture (Sedentary Behaviour Research Network,
135 2012). Padez et al (2005) reported that TV viewing was a risk factor OW/OB in children. One
136 reason is the low level of energy that is expended while watching TV (Hancox et al, 2004).
137 However, it has also been shown that engaging in TV viewing could lead to increased snacking

138 on unhealthy foods while abstaining from healthy foods (i.e. fruit and vegetables) (Re-lopez et
139 al, 2011; Liang et al, 2009). Another possible reason for the link between TV viewing and
140 obesity is that children could be subjected to the advertising of unhealthy products that could
141 potentially lead to obesity (Halford et al, 2008; Boyland et al, 2011). Sedentary behaviours of
142 children are, however, more than just TV viewing. With the increase popularity of electronic
143 games and personal computers and laptops these are behaviours that are important to explore.
144 Carvalhal et al (2007) investigated the association between physical activity, TV, video games
145 and obesity in 3365 Portuguese children. The study found similar results of TV viewing to that
146 of Padez et al (2005), indicating that the longer children watched TV the greater the risk of
147 obesity. Both boys and girls were found not to use computers very often. However, boys played
148 electronic games for longer periods than girls and there was a moderate relationship between
149 electronic games and obesity levels.

150
151 Physical activity is defined as any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in
152 energy expenditure (Caspersen et al, 1985). Low levels of physical activity have widely been
153 documented as a major determinant of childhood OW/OB. Previous research including
154 Portuguese studies have found evidence of an association between physical activity and obesity
155 (Trost et al, 2001; Hernandez et al, 1999; Gonzalez-Suarez & Grimmer-Somers, 2011; Pereira et
156 al, 2010; Guerra et al, 2006). However, other studies have found no association (Padez et al,
157 2005; Carvalhal et al, 2007; Martins et al, 2010). Past physical activity interventions have shown
158 that although physical activity could possibly not reduce obesity levels, physical activity can
159 maintain and delay the onset of obesity (Gonzalez-Saurez et al, 2009).The lack of clarity
160 between the association of physical activity and obesity is that physical activity is a complex

161 behaviour; that has many different determinants and correlates that vary from gender, to age, to
162 context and environmental (Sallis et al, 2000; Van der horst et al, 2007; Ferreira et al, 2007;
163 Mota et al, 2002).

164
165 This study builds upon the study published by Padez et al (2005). It adds subjective
166 measurements of activity and it covers a statistically representative sample of the Portuguese
167 population stratified by sex, age and districts. Therefore, the impact of socio-demographic
168 factors (age, sex, parental factors, parental behaviours, birthweight, and maternal smoking during
169 pregnancy), and behavioural factors (physical activity/active play, TV viewing, electronic games
170 use, computer use) can be better contextualised.

171
172 This study has two short-term aims and one long-term aim.

173 The two short-term aims are:

- 174 a) To review and update the prevalence of OW/OB in Portuguese children nationally;
- 175 b) to explore the influence and risk that socio-demographic factors and behavioural factors
176 have upon OW/OB in Portuguese children.

177
178 The long-term aim is:

- 179 a) to provide an accurate record of the basic health, nutritional status and living conditions
180 of the Portuguese children and their children as of the beginning of 2010. The year of
181 2010 is of crucial importance because it marks the onset of the socio-economic and
182 political crisis that has hit Portugal. According to PORDATA (The National Database of
183 Portugal - <http://www.pordata.pt/en/Home>), most of the indicators on basic demography,

184 health, living conditions and unemployment rates have been declining steeply since 2010.
185 These changes are expected to intensify and linger for the next decade. This fact makes
186 this survey a reference that shows the biosocial status of the Portuguese population before
187 the sociopolitical and economical changes start being reflected on the health of the
188 people. Any survey conducted after this one should take this paper in consideration and
189 use the results presented here as the baseline results gathered at the beginning of a crisis
190 that will have countless effects on the health and living conditions of the Portuguese
191 people for decades to come. A personal observation by one of the co-authors shows the
192 multiplication of “soup/kitchens” all over Portugal during 2012-2013. By mid-2013,
193 several primary schools are starting to supply one hot/meal per day during the weekends.

194

195 **METHODS**

196

197 Participants and Settings

198 The total number of children was 17,509. The children were from all mainland Portuguese
199 districts but not from the Portuguese Archipelagos (Madeira and Azores). Data were collected
200 between March 2009 and January 2010 in public and private Portuguese schools. The studied
201 population was selected by means of proportionate stratified random sampling taking into
202 account the district and the number of children by age and sex in each district. Participation rate
203 was 57.4% (49.3% in preschool children and 63.6% in school children). Due to insufficient
204 number of participations younger than 3 and older than 10 years, and for those missing data on
205 body mass index (BMI) data, the final number of participations for data analyses was 17,136.
206 The study protocol was approved by Direcção Geral de Inovação e Desenvolvimento Curricular

207 (DGIDC) and written informed consent was obtained from all the children's parents. Ethical
208 approval was also granted for secondary data analyses by the Loughborough Universities
209 Advisory Ethic Committee. Data analyses took place between May 2012 to September 2012

210

211 Measures

212 Trained technicians performed anthropometric measurements using standardised procedures
213 (Lohman et al, 1988) within each of the schools. Height was measured using a stadiometer with
214 the head positioned according to the Frankfort plane and weight was measured via an electronic
215 scale with a precision of 100g. BMI was calculated as $\text{weight}/\text{height}^2$ (kg/m^2). The definitions of
216 OW/OB for children were based on average centiles in accordance to the IOTF's age specific
217 BMI cut-off points (Cole et al, 2000). For the adults (parents), overweight was defined as a
218 BMI's of 25.0-29.9 kg/m^2 (obesity as a BMI of 30 kg/m^2 (obese) (World Health Organisation,
219 1998).

220

221 Parents completed a mailed questionnaire about different characteristics of all members of the
222 household including themselves. The questionnaire was designed and intended to collect
223 information about factors that may have a potential influence on childhood OW/OB. Factors
224 such as sex; birthweight; decimal age; breastfeeding (yes/no); district; parental occupation
225 (professional & executives, management & technicians, administrative, service and sales,
226 farmers, agricultural, skilled workers, unskilled workers); parental physical activity participation
227 (yes/no); parental education (primary (4y), six years, nine years, twelve years, university (>12
228 years)); parents self-reported height and weight,; school conditions for physical activity classes
229 (yes/no); mother smoked during pregnancy (yes/no); sport activity outside of school (yes/no);

230 urbanization (urban, semi-urban, and rural); electronic games weekdays/weekends (none, <1h,
231 1h, 2h, 3h, 4h, 5h <); personal computer (PC) use weekdays/weekends (none, <1h, 1h, 2h, 3h,
232 4h, 5h<); television (TV) weekdays/weekends (none, <1 h, 1 h, 2 h, 3 h, 4 h, 5h<); physical
233 activity in school (0-30min, 30-60min, 60-90min, 90-120min, 120-150min, 150min <); watching
234 TV during meal times (never, only at weekend, 1 to times/week, 2 to 3 times/week, every day);
235 active play weekdays/weekends (none, <1h, 1h, 2h, 3h, 4h, 5h<). Active play was used as an
236 umbrella term for all physical activity done by the child as reported by the parents.

237

238 Data Analyses

239

240 Pearson Chi-square χ^2 (β set at 0.05) difference tests were conducted to test the level of
241 association between the different variables measured (birthweight, breastfeeding, district;
242 parental occupation, parental physical activity participation, parental education, school physical
243 activity, maternal smoking during pregnancy, sport activity outside of school, urbanization,
244 active play weekdays/weekends, electronic games weekdays/weekends, personal computer use
245 weekdays/weekends, television (TV) weekdays/weekends, watching TV during meal times) and
246 children's overweight, obesity and OW/OB. Variables with a significant association with
247 childhood overweight, obesity and OW/OB were further analysed by backward logistic
248 regression models. Sex and age were adjusted and the odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence
249 interval were calculated for each of the categorical variables within the regression models.
250 Categorical factors with an OR statistically significantly ($P < 0.05$) and higher than 1.0 resulted
251 as a risk factor and an increased likelihood of childhood OW/OB and an OR statistically
252 significantly ($P < 0.05$) with a value below than 1.0 was taken as a protective factor. Statistical

253 analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS/PC-),
254 version 19.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

255

256 **RESULTS**

257

258 Prevalence of overweight and obesity (OW/OB)

259

260 Table 1 presents the prevalence (%) of normal weight and OW/OB among a sample of 17,136
261 Portuguese children aged 3 to 10 year olds. As a whole, 72.1% of children were classified as
262 having a normal weight status, 19.7% were classified as overweight and 8.2% were classified as
263 obese. Thus, more than a quarter (27.9%) of the children was either overweight or obese.

264

265

266 Biological Factors

267

268 Sex differences were found across all age groups, with girls being more OW/OB than boys. Chi-
269 square (χ^2) difference tests shows that these sex differences were significant across the ages 3.5y,
270 4.0y, 4.5y, 5.0y, 5.5y, 6.5y and 7.5y. Tables 2-4 present results of the logistic regression models.
271 Table 2 outlines the biological risk factors that were significantly associated with OW/OB of
272 Portuguese children. It was found that age and sex (male= reference) were significant risks for
273 being overweight and obese. This was found across all three logistic regression models (Table 4,
274 Table 5).

275

276 Two other biological factors- “maternal smoking during pregnancy” and “breastfeeding”- were
277 also significant predictors of OW/OB. Maternal smoking during pregnancy increased the odds of
278 obesity among the children (OR 1.52 95%CI 1.30-1.78) and, in a smaller degree, also increased
279 the odds of child overweight (OR 1.31 95%CI 1.16-1.46). Table 2 outlines that being older,
280 female, with a mother who smoked during pregnancy, and not being breastfed increased the odds
281 of being OW/OB.

282

283 Socio-Demographic Factors

284

285 Chi-square difference results of parental factors (father and mother) by weight status and sex
286 found that normal weight (boys and girls) had parents with higher paid occupations. This was
287 also found to be evident for educational level for parents. It was also clearly found that children
288 who were OW/OB had parents with higher BMI’s compared to normal BMI-children (Mother
289 BMI: Boys OW/OB: $\chi^2 = 186.94, p \leq 0.01$; Girls OW/OB: $\chi^2 = 194.99, p \leq 0.01$; Father BMI:
290 Boys OW/OB: $\chi^2 = 182.92, p \leq 0.05$; Girls OW/OB: $\chi^2 = 174.44, p \leq 0.05$).

291

292 Mother’s education was a risk factor for childhood obesity with less educated mothers having an
293 increased risk of having an obese child, but not in all children’s age-groups. Significant odds
294 ratios were found for 6 years (OR 1.34 95%CI 1.03-1.74); 9 years (OR 1.49 95%CI 1.29-2.48)
295 and 12 years (OR 1.81 95%CI 1.04-2.40); Fathers’ education was also associated with an
296 increased likelihood for childhood obesity. Odds Ratios ranged from 1.35 to 1.79. Mother
297 education was not associated with an increased likelihood for children being overweight,

298 however fathers education did, with those with lower education levels having the likelihood (6
299 years = OR 1.20 95%CI 1.02-1.42, 4 years 1.25 95%CI 1.06-1.49).

300
301 Portuguese children are also at greater risk of being overweight or obese if their mothers and/or
302 fathers are OW/OB themselves. This likelihood increased as the weight of the parents increased,
303 with the greater likelihood found within obese fathers (OR 4.50 95%CI 3.51-5.77) compared to
304 obese mothers (OR 4.10 95%CI 3.19-5.25). Table 3 outlines that there was an increased
305 likelihood of childhood obesity if mothers did not take part in regular physical activity (OR 1.30
306 95%CI 1.04-1.61).

307
308 Behavioural Factors

309
310 Differences between levels of active play during weekdays were found to be significant ($p \leq$
311 0.01) in overweight and obese girls compared to normal-BMI girls (OW: $\chi^2 = 28.09$; OB: $\chi^2 =$
312 26.63; OW/OB: $\chi^2 = 39.80$) ($p \leq 0.01$). When viewing the chi-square differences of all the
313 selected sedentary behaviour variables the differences were all found to be statistically
314 significant for obese boys; the only significant p-values for girls were for TV viewing ($\chi^2 =$
315 15.17, $p \leq 0.05$). Although not all differences between overweight and normal weight boys were
316 significant across sedentary behaviours and a significant difference was found across all
317 sedentary behaviours for obese boys. It was found that overweight and obese boys engaged in
318 larger periods of time playing electronic games compared to girls during weekdays (39.7% vs.
319 14.4%). Boys were found to play more electronic games than girls across all weight categories.
320 Weekends were also found to be periods of the week where more active play, TV viewing, PC

321 viewing and electronic games took place for both sexes. It was found that 70.6% of OW/OB
322 boys played some kind of electronic games compared to 62% of their normal weight peers ($\chi^2 =$
323 26.79, $p \leq 0.01$). Obese girls played more electronic games than overweight and normal
324 weighted girls; however it was clear that overweight and obese boys played with electronic
325 games for greater quantities of time than girls. Watching TV during mealtimes was found to
326 occur most frequently for obese boys than overweight and normal weight boys and girls.

327 Table 4 outlines the statistically significant odds ratios for the logistic models conducted for
328 overweight, obesity and OW/OB and the influence of physical activity and sedentary behaviours.
329 Key findings were that the likelihood of childhood obesity was significantly increased (OR 3.81
330 95%CI 1.15-12.66) if the children played on electronic games for more than 4 hours during
331 weekdays, however within this statistic there were only 13 children within the category so this
332 result should be interpreted with caution. This was also found to be true for electronic games
333 during weekends but the increased likelihood was significant for overweight only, not obesity
334 (OR 1.32 95%CI 1.06-1.64). Watching TV during the weekdays was associated with a greater
335 likelihood for children to be overweight and the likelihood increased as daily hours watching
336 TV increased (1hours, OR 1.43 95%CI 1.05-1.96; 2 hours, OR 1.60 95%CI 1.16-2.20). This was
337 evident for the group category of OW/OB and there was additional significance for watching TV
338 for 3 hours during a weekday (OR 1.52 95%CI 1.06-2.16). Obesity had an increased risk to
339 occur when children watched TV while eating meals. This was found for all number of times a
340 child watched TV while eating, but significant values were found for two meals (OR 1.47 95%CI
341 1.07-2.01) and four meals (OR 1.41 95%CI 1.04-1.91).

342

343 Table 4 illustrates the reduced likelihood of obesity if a child takes part in more active play
344 during weekdays (< 1hr = OR 0.70 95%CI 0.54-0.90; 1hr = OR 0.68 95%CI 0.51-0.90; 2hr = OR
345 0.67 95%CI 0.49-0.91; 3hr = 0.39 95%CI 0.23-0.66). The protective effect of 1hr of active play
346 was found to be greater on weekends compared to weekdays for obese children (1hr = 0.51
347 95%CI 0.30-0.86). Three hours of active play at weekends was also found not to have a higher
348 significant protection from obesity than 3hr in weekdays (3hr = OR 0.40 95%CI 0.21-0.76).

349

350 DISCUSSION

351

352 There are very few national surveys about the health and nutritional status of children in
353 Portugal. The previous survey by Padez et al (2004) showed an alarming trend on OW/OB of
354 Portuguese children that will have heavy health and economic repercussions. The importance
355 and novelty of this current study, is that it was conducted immediately before the
356 economic/financial crisis hit Portugal and most of Europe which has affected the lives of
357 thousands of Portuguese families. This fact makes this study a reference that show biological and
358 social changes reflected on the health of the Portuguese people. Any survey conducted after this
359 one should take this paper in consideration and use this studies results as the baseline gathered at
360 the beginning of a crisis that will have countless effects on the health and living conditions of the
361 Portuguese people for decades to come.

362

363 The results of this Portuguese national representative study show that the prevalence of OW/OB
364 children was high (27.9%), with girls having greater prevalence of OW/OB than boys (30.6 % vs

365 25.2%). However, the prevalence changed slightly when compared with the values obtained in
366 2004 (31.6%; boys 29.3%, girls 33.8%) (Padez et al (2005). Socio-demographic variables (i.e.
367 parents BMI and education level) have a significant risk upon childhood OW/OB. Fathers have
368 as just an important role in a child's likelihood of OW/OB as mothers. Sedentary behaviours,
369 such as screen time viewing and the amount of time children spend engaging in these
370 behaviours, and while eating meals are significant factors. Physical activity during weekdays and
371 weekends were significant protective factors of obesity.

372

373 Prevalence of overweight and obesity

374

375 Comparing the results of this study with others outlines a clear consensus that the prevalence of
376 OW/OB of Portuguese children is clearly high. The international association for the study of
377 obesity (IASO, 2013) reports that 28.1% of Portuguese children aged 6-8 years are OW/OB. The
378 finding of the IASO (2013) is similar to the prevalence found within this study, 27.9%. Results
379 from the previous survey by Padez *et al* (2005) (31.6%) could suggest that OW/OB prevalence is
380 lowering or possibility stabilising. However discrepancy occurs when viewing results of the
381 organisation for economic co-operation and development (OECD, 2011) of who reported a
382 prevalence of 22.6% of children aged 5-17 years were OW/OB. Reasons for difference could be
383 the different age ranges of surveyed of previous studies in comparison to this study. However, it
384 is clear that OW/OB is high in Portugal and across Europe particularly in other Mediterranean
385 countries (Italy, Spain and Greece). Children's OW/OB levels of Italy (31.7%), Spain (24.8-
386 27.9%) and Greece (41.1%) along with Portugal are all consistently found to be among the
387 highest of childhood obese nations in Europe and globally (IASO, 2013; OECD, 2011).

388

389 Biological Factors

390

391 We found statistically significant sex differences for OW/OB. Girls across all ages (3-10 years)

392 were more overweight than boys and generally found to be more obese than boys. This finding is

393 interesting when comparing to other national data sets, with some reports stating that Portuguese

394 boys have greater prevalence of OW/OB than girls (IASO, 2013; OECD, 2011). However, sex

395 differences between previously published Portuguese works have shown to differ between

396 studies (Moreira et al, 2007). The findings of the current study are in agreement with Wiisneieski

397 et al (2009) who concluded that sex difference existed between boys and girls' rates of OW/OB

398 (Girls OW/OB > Boys OW/OB). Reasons for this could be due to girls biologically having

399 greater fat mass, fat distribution and being found to be less physically active than boys (Mota et

400 al, 2002; Baptista et al, 2012). However, Guerra and colleagues found no significant

401 relationships between Portuguese Girls physical activity and obesity, but did find that inactive

402 Portuguese boys had twice the likelihood of being obese than active Portuguese boys (Guerra et

403 al, 2006). Therefore more research is required to understand in more depth sex differences of risk

404 factors of OW/OB in Portuguese children. The relationship between other moderators of OW/OB

405 such as ethnicity and culture should also be investigated in greater depth and frequency as

406 studies are small in numbers (Owen et al, 2005). Another well-established risk factor of OW/OB

407 that this study found was age which is a well-documented factor across the literature with higher

408 OW/OB being more likely as age increases (Hernandez et al, 1999; Gonzalez-Suarez, 2011;

409 Pereira et al, 2010).

410

411 Behaviours of mothers and the choice to smoke during pregnancy and to breastfeed or not, were
412 clearly significant risk factors of childhood obesity. These finding has been documented
413 elsewhere (Owen et al, 2005). This study only included a two choice answer to breastfeeding
414 (yes/no) so therefore a more detailed description and risk association on duration of
415 breastfeeding could not be found like in previous studies (Padez et al, 2005; Ryan, 2007). Clear
416 guidance and promotion of anti-smoking and the encouragement of breastfeeding should be
417 implemented by health professionals to mothers in order to combat many health outcomes
418 associated including childhood obesity.

419

420 Socio-Demographic Factors

421

422 This study found that OW/OB was associated with parental obesity and educational levels. An
423 obese child was more likely to have parents who were obese and had a lower level of education.
424 This finding has been found previously (Xi et al, 2009; Dannemann et al, 2011; Patterson et al,
425 1997) however; Padez et al (2005) concluded that although parental obesity and educational
426 levels were important associations of Portuguese childrens OW/OB, mother's obesity and
427 educational levels had a greater risk on children's OW/OB than fathers. This conclusion of
428 maternal superiority has previously been well documented in previous work (Whitaker et al,
429 2010) but this study found that fathers with high BMI and low education had a greater risk upon
430 children's OW/OB than mothers BMI and education. The importance of parental demographics
431 (BMI and educational level) and their risk association to children's OW/OB, reinforces the idea
432 of future interventions targeting the whole family. Previous lifestyle interventions targeted
433 within a family environment have found positive results (Luttikhuis et al, 2009). A major

434 conclusion of this study is that although mothers in Portuguese families are culturally seen to be
435 the parent who takes the role for buying, preparing and serving the food, (Padez et al, 2005)
436 fathers have a significant link to childhood obesity. Future research should seek to confirm this
437 finding, and fathers may need to be included in future interventions.

438

439 Behavioural Factors

440

441 Portuguese children watching 1hr and 2hr of TV during weekdays were found to have an
442 increased risk of being overweight. This finding is similar to previous Portuguese research
443 (Padez et al, 2005). This study did not find the same effects for childhood obesity, which is
444 indifferent to previous Portuguese studies which concluded that an increase of TV viewing leads
445 to a greater likelihood of obesity (Carvalho et al, 2007; Hernandez et al, 1999). Much of
446 previous research has mainly concentrated upon TV viewing. This study furthered the scope of
447 sedentary behaviours within a Portuguese sample by measuring personal computer use and
448 electronic games use over weekdays and weekends. Playing electronic games for long periods of
449 time during weekdays (3hr) was associated to childhood obesity, and playing on electronic
450 games for long periods of time (4hr<) during the weekend was associated with childhood obesity
451 being overweight. Previous research found similar results (Boyland et al, 2011; IASO, 2013). TV
452 viewing during meal times is reportedly a common behaviour among Portuguese families
453 (Carvalho et al, 2007). Possible reasons for the link between TV (screen) viewing and obesity
454 are low levels of energy expenditure (Hancox et al, 2004), along with an increase snacking of
455 unhealthy foods (Rey-Lopez et al, 2011; Liang et al, 2009). Children also being subjected to
456 advertising of unhealthy products while TV (Halford et al, 2008; Boyland et al, 2011) could well

457 be factors especially as this findings of this study adds strength to the argument as watching TV
458 while consuming food during meal times was a significant factor to childhood obesity.

459
460 Physical activity in the form of active play was found to be a protective behavior against
461 childhood obesity. The more active the child, the greater the protection against obesity. Similar
462 findings have been previously reported (Trost et al, 2001; Hernandez et al, 1999; Gonzalez-
463 Suarez & Grimmer-Somers, 2011; Pereira et al, 2010; Guerra et al, 2006). Taking part in 1 hour
464 of active play at weekends had a greater protective effect than 1hr of active play during
465 weekdays. This finding is of interest as the current international physical activity guidelines for
466 children is to take part in 1 hour of moderate to vigorous physical activity every day (World
467 Health Organisation, 2010). With the added protection of physical activity taking place during
468 weekends, which do not have time restraints for physical activity found during weekdays
469 (school), along with the observed increase in prevalence of sedentary behaviours during
470 weekends, this study supports the view of past research. For example, weekends offer an
471 opportunity for future physical activity promotions/interventions to take place (Aznar et al,
472 2010). Engaging in active play will help combat the epidemic of childhood obesity while also
473 providing other health benefits (World Health Organisation, 2010).

474
475 Like all investigations this study has limitations, self-reported data is well established to have
476 problems of bias, reliability and validity especially within complex behaviours such as physical
477 activity and sedentary behaviour (Shephard, 2003).The nature of the questionnaire being sent
478 home and filled out by parents could lead to one parent completing the questionnaire on behalf
479 of both parents, this could well lead to bias and inaccuracies. The questionnaire also asked about

480 individual screen time behaviour therefore multi-screen use data was not available, such as using
481 a laptop or games device while watching the television (Jago et al, 2012). A final limitation is the
482 term “active play”. Active play has no standard definition across academics (Brockman et al,
483 2011) therefore it could be suggested that parents who completed the questionnaires and reported
484 the level of active play for children, could well have a different definition of active play to
485 another parent and family, therefore results of active play/physical activity should be viewed
486 with caution. Even with the discussed limitations, this study has strong statistical strength
487 because it is a nationally stratified representative study of Portugal with large numbers of
488 children within all 18 districts of mainland Portugal.

489
490 In conclusion, this study found that childhood OW/OB in Portugal is high, with the prevalence
491 being higher in girls than in boys. Child’s age, maternal smoking during pregnancy and no
492 breastfeeding are significant biological risk factors. Both mothers and fathers education level and
493 BMI are risk factors for childhood OW/OB along with sedentary behaviours such as TV, PC use
494 and, especially for boys playing electronic games. Physical activity (active play) was found to
495 have a protective dose response to obesity, with greater protection found during weekends.
496 Future research should investigate the sex differences between different districts and look to
497 implement the use of objective measures of physical activity and sedentary behaviors. Future
498 interventions should take note of the importance of breastfeeding, mothers not smoking during
499 pregnancy, maternal and paternal weight status, education level, physical activity levels and the
500 importance of sedentary behaviours especially while eating meals and the increase use of
501 electronic games during weekends, particularly in boys.

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