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1 **Interventions for treating children and**
2 **adolescents with overweight and obesity:**
3 **An overview of Cochrane reviews**

4 Louisa J Ells¹, Karen Rees², Tamara Brown¹, Emma Mead^{1,7}, Lena Al-Khudairy²,
5 Liane Azevedo¹, Grant J McGeechan¹, Louise Baur³, Emma Loveman⁴, Heather
6 Clements¹, Pura Rayco-Solon⁵, Nathalie Farpour-Lambert⁶, Alessandro Demaio⁵.

7

8 *¹School of Health and Social Care, Teesside University, Middlesbrough, UK*

9 *²Division of Health Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK*

10 *³University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia*

11 *⁴Effective Evidence LLP, Hampshire, UK*

12 *⁵World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland*

13 *⁶Obesity Prevention and Care Program, University Hospitals of Geneva, Switzerland*

14 *⁷University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK*

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19 Running Title: Treating children and adolescents with obesity

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21 Corresponding author: Dr Louisa J Ells

22 School of Health and Social Care

23 Teesside University

24 Middlesbrough

25 TS1 3BA

26 UK

27 E-mail: L.Ells@tees.ac.uk

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29

30 **Abstract**

31 Children and adolescents with overweight and obesity are a global health concern. This is an
32 integrative overview of six Cochrane systematic reviews, providing an up to date synthesis of
33 the evidence examining interventions for the treatment of children and adolescents with
34 overweight or obesity. Data extraction and quality assessments for each review were
35 conducted by one author and checked by a second. The six high quality reviews provide
36 evidence on the effectiveness of behaviour changing interventions conducted in children
37 <6yrs (7 trials), 6-11yrs (70 trials), adolescents 12-17yrs (44 trials) and interventions that
38 target only parents of children aged 5-11yrs (20 trials); in addition to interventions examining
39 surgery (1 trial) and drugs (21 trials). Most of the evidence was derived from high income
40 countries and published in the last two decades. Collectively the evidence suggests that
41 multi-component behaviour changing interventions may be beneficial in achieving small
42 reductions in body weight status in children of all ages, with low adverse event occurrence
43 where reported. More research is required to understand which specific intervention
44 components are most effective and in whom, and how best to maintain intervention effects.
45 Evidence from surgical and drug interventions was too limited to make inferences about use
46 and safety, and adverse events were a serious consideration.

47

48 Introduction

49 Excess weight in children and adolescents is a growing public health crisis (1-3), with
50 inequalities occurring in populations from different socioeconomic (4-6) and ethnic groups (7,
51 8) (9, 10).

52 Children and adolescents with obesity can develop a number of serious related
53 comorbidities. These include musculoskeletal conditions (11), cardiovascular risk factors
54 such as hypertension, insulin resistance, and hyperlipidaemia (12), respiratory conditions
55 including sleep apnoea (13) or asthma (14), and digestive diseases such as non-alcoholic
56 fatty liver disease (15). Psychosocial well-being can also be affected, with young people with
57 obesity more susceptible to stigmatisation (16), reduced self-esteem and quality of life (17).
58 Evidence also demonstrates that obesity in childhood tracks into adulthood (18, 19) thus
59 increasing the risk of ill health later in life (20, 21).

60 Given the complex nature of obesity, there is unlikely to ever be one treatment regime that
61 will be effective across all populations, with the most suitable intervention approach
62 determined by the child's age and degree of excess weight, amongst other considerations.
63 Treatment options range from lifestyle modification interventions, to the use of bariatric
64 surgery and drugs.

65 The least invasive and most widely used approach to treating obesity in childhood is lifestyle
66 modification. These programmes aim to improve dietary quality, increase physical activity
67 levels and reduce sedentary behaviours, often incorporating behaviour changing techniques
68 to help sustain positive changes and prevent relapse. Many interventions have a family
69 focus, with parents defined as the "agents for change", particularly in children under 12
70 years (27).

71 Forms of bariatric surgery include gastric bypass, sleeve gastrectomy and gastric banding
72 (22). Drugs used to treat obesity include: Sibutramine an appetite suppressant which, whilst

73 still licensed in Brazil, was suspended by the European Medicine Agency and withdrawn by
74 the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2010 due to adverse cardiovascular effects;
75 Orlistat, a fat absorption inhibitor that has been approved by the FDA but only for children
76 ≥ 12 years old (23). Other drugs frequently used off license to treat obesity in childhood
77 include: metformin, an anti-diabetic medication (24, 25) and fluoxetine, an antidepressant
78 (26). New drugs targeting appetite regulation are currently under development or evaluation.

79

80 The aim of this review was to conduct an integrative overview of six Cochrane reviews (28)
81 (29) (30) (31) (32) (33), to provide a comprehensive update to the previous Cochrane review
82 on interventions for treating obesity in children (34).

83 This overview was written to help inform ongoing work by the World Health Organization on
84 the management of children and adolescents with overweight and obesity.

85

86 **Methods**

87 We conducted this overview of reviews in accordance with the recommendations for
88 Cochrane overviews of reviews (35). PROSPERO ([CRD42016053423](https://www.crd42016053423)). All reviews
89 produced to update the Oude Luttikhuis (2009) review (34) were included.

90 A detailed description of the methods can be found in the online supplementary appendix 1.
91 In brief, data was extracted using a standardised data collection form, and review quality
92 was assessed using the revised Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews (R-AMSTAR)
93 measurement tool (36), by one reviewer and checked for accuracy by a second reviewer,
94 with disagreements resolved by consensus. Each R-AMSTAR assessment was conducted
95 by reviewers who were not authors of the original review.

96 The primary outcomes of interest were changes in BMI or BMI-z score, with results from
97 relevant meta-analyses extracted alongside secondary outcomes as reported in the
98 summary of findings tables. The original review authors' Cochrane 'risk of bias' assessment
99 (37) and Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE)
100 assessment were also extracted.

101 **Results**

102 **Characteristics of included studies**

103 The characteristics of the six included reviews and the Randomised Controlled Trials (RCTs)
104 included in each review are shown in the appendix: Tables S1 and S2 (online supplementary
105 file), respectively. All six reviews were published between 2015 and 2017, and included
106 RCTs with a minimum of six months data from baseline. Across all reviews a total of 163
107 studies (19,756 participants) were included, representing trials conducted between 1968 and
108 2016, from 30 countries. The vast majority of studies were undertaken in the USA (n=73,
109 45%) or Europe (n=44, 27%), with only 16 (10%) studies conducted in upper-middle income
110 countries, whilst the remainder were conducted in high income countries.¹ Most studies were
111 published within the last two decades.

112 The number of trials included in each review varied substantially from just one trial included
113 in the surgery review (28), to 70 trials included in the review of lifestyle interventions in
114 children aged 6-11 years (32). Most trials were individually randomised, with a small number
115 of cluster trials (n=11) across all six reviews. The median sample sizes for included studies
116 within each review ranged from 50 to 96, with individual trial samples sizes within reviews
117 ranging from just 10 to 686 participants. Participant views (e.g. satisfaction with, or opinions

1 According to the World Bank list of economies (July 2016)
<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DATASTATISTICS/Resources/CLASS.XLS>

118 of the intervention,) were not reported in any of the surgery or drug trials, and were only
119 reported in 23 trials across the four lifestyle reviews.

120

121 **Participants**

122 Every review excluded children who were critically ill or diagnosed with a syndromic form of
123 obesity. Where applicable, pregnant and breast feeding females were also excluded. All
124 reviews included children with obesity, and the four lifestyle intervention reviews also
125 examined children with overweight (median BMI-z score across the lifestyle reviews was
126 between 2.2 and 2.3, although calculated using a variety of different growth references). The
127 surgery and drug reviews included any child under the age of 18 years. *A priori* mean age
128 groups were set for trials included in the lifestyle reviews to ensure each trial was only
129 included in one review (the lifestyle interventions targeting the child and parent, or child
130 alone were reviewed in the following age groups: up to 6, 6-11 and 12-17 years; for lifestyle
131 interventions targeting the parent as the sole agent for change, an age range of 5-11 years
132 was included). The median proportion of females in each review ranged from 54 to 65%, and
133 reporting of socioeconomic status and ethnicity was limited.

134 **Interventions**

135 All reviews in this series examined the effectiveness of interventions that aimed to treat
136 children or adolescents with overweight or obesity. One review (28) examined the
137 effectiveness of bariatric surgery, another (29) studied drug interventions, whilst the
138 remaining reviews (30-33) examined the effectiveness of lifestyle interventions that delivered
139 diet, physical activity and behavioural interventions either as a single or multicomponent
140 programme. Of these, Loveman (2015) (30) focused on parent only interventions whilst
141 Colquitt (2016) (31), Mead (2017) (32) and Al-Khudairy (2017) (33) examined any lifestyle
142 intervention by age group of the participating child. Interventions could be undertaken in any

143 setting, although more than half of the trials (n=85) were undertaken in either primary or
144 secondary care.

145 **Comparators**

146 Comparators in each of the six reviews included true control (placebo or no intervention)
147 (n=38), usual care (defined by either the study author or reviewer) (n=72) or an alternative
148 concomitant therapy providing it was delivered in both the intervention and comparator arms
149 (n=53).

150 **Outcome measures**

151 All six reviews examined the same primary outcome measures (BMI / BMI-z score, body
152 weight and adverse events) and secondary outcome measures (health-related quality of life;
153 self-esteem; all-cause mortality; morbidity; body fat distribution; behaviour change;
154 participants' views of the intervention; socioeconomic effects).

155 **Methodological quality of included reviews**

156 The R-AMSTAR assessment results for each review are shown in supplementary appendix
157 Table S3. All six reviews scored between 35 and 41, out of a possible 44, and were
158 therefore deemed of good methodological quality. Areas where all reviews were marked
159 down included not providing a clinical consensus statement and not adequately describing
160 statistical tests.

161 **Risk of bias of included randomised controlled trials**

162 The bias associated with the included trials varied across the six reviews (Appendix Table
163 S4, supplementary file). In general random sequence generation was rated as low risk of
164 bias for the majority of included studies. Allocation concealment was generally rated low or
165 unclear risk of bias. Performance bias (i.e. not blinding study participants and personnel)

166 was rated as high or unclear risk for the majority of the non-drug trials. Detection bias (i.e.
167 not blinding outcome assessment) varied across the reviews, with lower risk of bias for
168 objective outcomes (which included body mass measurements). Attrition bias² (i.e.
169 incomplete data), was rated as unclear or high risk, in over half of all trials included in each
170 review. Selective reporting bias (i.e. differences between reported and unreported findings)
171 was generally poor in a large proportion of trials in each review. The proportion of trials with
172 low risk of other biases varied across the reviews.

173 **Quality of evidence from randomised controlled trials in** 174 **the included reviews**

175 Each of the six reviews assessed overall quality of the evidence using the GRADE method
176 which is shown in the summary of findings (Supplementary appendix: Tables S5A-E).
177 Overall the quality of the evidence was low for BMI and, where provided, was very low or low
178 for other outcomes measured in the reviews. No studies provided data on socioeconomic
179 effects. Reasons for downgrading BMI evidence included: high risk of bias (e.g. attrition),
180 imprecision (wide confidence intervals), and inconsistency (heterogeneity).

181 **Effects of interventions**

182 Summary of findings (Supplementary appendix: Tables S5A-E), and BMI and BMI-z score
183 outcome analyses (Supplementary appendix: Table S6) are presenting in the supplementary
184 file.

185

186 *Lifestyle interventions for the treatment of overweight or obesity*

² Attrition bias was determined by assessing the completeness of the outcome data including attrition and exclusions from the analysis.

187 The vast majority of evidence (141 out of 163 trials) reviewed in this overview were lifestyle
188 interventions (i.e. those that addressed diet, physical activity and / or behaviour change).
189 This evidence was assessed across four reviews, examining the effectiveness of
190 interventions delivered to the child, or parent and child across infancy, pre adolescence and
191 adolescence. This was supplemented by a further review that specifically examined
192 interventions that targeted parents as the sole agent for change in their child. The results
193 are summarised below.

194 Interventions for pre-school children up to the age of 6 years

195 Colquitt *et al* (2016) (31) conducted searches up to March 2015 and identified seven
196 completed and four ongoing trials. Of the seven completed trials (923 participants), six
197 tested multicomponent interventions and one tested a dietary intervention. Trials were
198 undertaken in four countries (one upper-middle income) in a variety of settings, and all were
199 published from 2009. The mean age of participants ranged from 2 to 5 years, and the
200 median of the mean baseline BMI-z score was 2.25. The proportion of female and white
201 participants ranged from 25-80% and 47-91%, respectively. The duration and nature of the
202 intervention and comparators varied across the studies, and whilst all seven trials reported a
203 period of post intervention follow up ranging in duration from 6 to 32 months, follow up data
204 was only available for five studies.

205 When the multicomponent interventions were compared with control (usual care, enhanced
206 usual care, or information provision) at the end of the intervention (6 to 12 months), a
207 reduction in BMI-z score was observed in favour of the intervention: mean difference (MD) -
208 0.3 units (95% CI: -0.4 to -0.2) (210 participants; four trials). This reduction was maintained
209 at both 12 to 18 months follow-up from baseline (6 to 8 months post intervention) (MD -0.4
210 units (95% CI: -0.6 to -0.2); 202 participants; four trials), and at 2 years follow-up from
211 baseline (12 months post intervention) (MD -0.3 units (95% CI: -0.4 to -0.1); 96 participants;
212 one trial). Three out of the four multicomponent studies also assessed parental weight

213 change (parents were required to have a BMI of least 25 or 27 kg/m² to be included).
214 Results from the parental weight change analysis revealed an overall mean difference of -
215 4.69 kg (95% CI: -7.27 to -2.11) in favour of the intervention, measured at the end of the
216 intervention (three trials, 146 participants, low quality evidence). This reduction appeared to
217 be sustained at 12 to 24 months follow up (6 to 12 months post intervention).

218 Only one very low quality trial examined the effectiveness of an energy restricted (57
219 participants) and dairy rich (59 participants) diets, and reported a small reduction in BMI-z
220 score (MD -0.1 units [95% CI: -0.11 to -0.09]), but this reduction was maintained at 36
221 months in only the dairy rich arm. Only one trial documented adverse events stating that
222 none had occurred. Three trials reported health-related quality of life, with improvement
223 shown in some, but not all domains, whilst behaviour change and parent-child relationships
224 were reported inconsistently. No data was reported for all-cause mortality, morbidity, and
225 socio-economic effects.

226 A large cluster RCT (n=475) was included in the review but not included in the meta-analysis
227 due to possible methodological bias. This trial demonstrated a statistically non-significant
228 change in BMI-z score (MD: -0.05 units [95% CI: -0.14 to 0.04]) over the one year
229 intervention (no post intervention follow up data was provided).

230 Interventions for school aged children under 12 years

231 *Lifestyle interventions targeting parents as the sole agents for change:*

232 Loveman *et al* (2015) (30) conducted searches up to March 2015, and identified 20 trials and
233 ten ongoing studies. The 20 trials comprised of 3057 participants, and reported a median
234 mean baseline age of 8 years, a median female proportion of ~60%, and where reported a
235 median baseline BMI-z score of 2.2 in the intervention group and 2.3 in the control group.
236 The proportion of white participants ranged from 54-100%. All but one trial were published
237 from 2000 onwards, and were conducted in seven countries (one upper middle income). The
238 sample size of individual trials ranged from 15 to 645 and the duration of the intervention

239 ranged from 2.25 to 24 months. All but three trials included a period of post intervention
240 follow up ranging from 2.75 to 18.5 months, giving rise to a follow up from baseline ranging
241 from 5.5 to 24 months. Whilst the content of the interventions varied considerably, the
242 comparators also differed, and so the outcomes were meta-analysed by comparator group.

243 BMI-z score was the most frequently reported outcome measure. The mean difference in
244 BMI-z score at longest follow up (10 to 24 months) was -0.04 units (95% CI: -0.15 to 0.08)
245 for three trials (267 participants) comparing parent-only intervention with parent child
246 intervention. A similar statistically non-significant change in BMI-z score was seen when
247 comparing parent-only interventions to minimal contact control interventions at the longest
248 follow-up period (9 to 12 months), with a mean difference of -0.01 units (95% CI: -0.07 to
249 0.09) (one trial, 165 participants). For the two trials (136 participants) comparing parent-only
250 interventions with a waiting list control, a statistically significant change in BMI-z score was
251 observed in favour of the intervention at the longest follow-up period (10 to 12 months) with
252 a mean difference of -0.10 units (95% CI: -0.19 to -0.01). Where the comparator was a
253 concomitant intervention, no meta-analysis was reported due to a very high degree of
254 heterogeneity ($I^2=94\%$).

255 Secondary outcomes reported in the summary of findings table included parent-child
256 relationships which were assessed in three studies (low quality evidence): two demonstrated
257 a small effect in favour of the parent only intervention and one showed no effect. Whilst two
258 studies reported that no serious adverse events occurred, generally adverse events were not
259 reported. Data on morbidity, all-cause mortality and socioeconomic effects were not
260 reported.

261

262 *Lifestyle interventions targeting the child-only, or child and parent:*

263 Mead *et al* (2017) (32), conducted searches up to July 2016 and identified 70 trials (8,461
264 participants), four of which were cluster trials, and 20 ongoing studies. Although the vast

265 majority of trials included both the child and parent/care giver (n=65) and comprised a
266 dietary, physical activity and behavioural component (n=49), the delivery and content of the
267 interventions varied considerably. Individual trial sample sizes ranged from 16 to 686
268 participants, with a median mean age of 10 years at baseline (with only 15 trials including
269 participants with a mean age of <9 years). The median proportion of female participants was
270 approximately 55% (ranging from 26 to 100%). Where reported, the median proportion of
271 white participants was 80% and 71% in the intervention and control arms, respectively
272 (ranging from 0 to 100%). Median of the mean BMI-z score at baseline was 2.2 (ranging
273 from 1.3 to 5.6), the duration of the interventions ranged from 0.25-24 months, and follow up
274 from baseline ranged from 5.5-36 months. Just over half of the trials (n=37) had a period of
275 post intervention follow up, with a median duration of 10 months.

276 The majority of trials (n=63) were published from 2000. Trials took place in 18 high income
277 countries and three upper-middle income countries. Setting varied significantly across
278 studies, although half (n=36) took place in primary or secondary care. Fifteen trials
279 evaluated an additional element as part of a concomitant intervention, and were
280 consequently analysed separately. A further two separate analyses were also conducted for
281 the four cluster trials and two maintenance trials. Of these separately assessed trials, two of
282 the clusters were subject to methodological queries which precluded them from analysis,
283 and the remaining studies did not demonstrate any substantial impact on BMI.

284 Twenty four trials reporting BMI could be pooled for analysis, and demonstrated a change in
285 BMI in favour of the intervention (measured at last available point of follow up) of -0.53 kg/m^2
286 (95% CI: -0.82 to -0.24); 2785 participants). Thirty-seven trials reported BMI-z score suitable
287 for meta-analysis, which resulted in a change in favour of intervention (measured at last
288 available point of follow up) of -0.06 units, (95% CI: -0.10 to -0.02); 4019 participants).

289 As the main meta-analyses revealed significant heterogeneity, subgroup analyses were
290 conducted to examine the impact of: type of intervention, type of comparator, risk of attrition

291 bias, setting of intervention, duration of post intervention follow up period, parental
292 involvement and severe obesity at baseline. None of the subgroup analyses gave rise to a
293 consistent effect that differed significantly from the overall pooled effect for both BMI and
294 BMI-z score. However, subgroup analysis of BMI by duration of post intervention follow up
295 period (no post intervention follow up [15 trials] vs follow up at: <6 [3 trials], 6-12 [2 trials]
296 and >12 [4 trials] months) demonstrated that intervention effects only remained significant
297 immediately post intervention. A similar pattern was also observed for BMI-z score although
298 it did not reach significance. These findings align with data from the two trials (263
299 participants) identified in this review that specifically examined the impact of a post
300 intervention maintenance period on BMI-z score and found no significant intervention effect.

301 Thirty one trials documented whether serious adverse events occurred, although the vast
302 majority (n=29) reported zero occurrence. In the two trials that reported a serious adverse
303 event occurrence, examples included influenza, muscular-skeletal surgery or injuries,
304 however none were considered to be related to the study. Six trials reported a range of
305 adverse events in a small percentage of participants (examples included elevated
306 triglycerides, blood pressure and cholesterol in both groups in one trial, and a range of
307 accidents, infections, and skin rashes across groups, none of which were deemed to be
308 related to the trial). Only a small number of trials reported secondary outcomes with data
309 suitable for meta-analysis: parent reported and child reported health-related quality of life
310 was reported in five trials (718 participants) and three trials (164 participants) respectively;
311 two trials reported on self-esteem (144 participants); two trials (168 participants) reported
312 change in caloric intake; and six trials (744 participants) reported accelerometry measured
313 physical activity. However, none of the analyses demonstrated a significant difference
314 between intervention and control. Two trials (55 participants) reported minutes per day of TV
315 viewing, and found a small significant reduction of 6.6 mins per day in favour of the
316 intervention. Data on morbidity, all-cause mortality and socioeconomic effects were not
317 reported.

318 *Interventions for children 12 years and older*

319 Al-Khudairy *et al* (2017) (33) conducted searches up to July 2016, and 44 trials (4781
320 participants; median mean age at baseline: 14.3 years), and 50 ongoing studies were
321 identified. All studies (apart from two) were published between 2000 and 2017, and were
322 conducted in 15 countries (with five trials conducted in four upper-middle income countries).
323 The duration of the interventions ranged from 6 weeks to 2 years, with follow up from
324 baseline ranging from 24 weeks to 2 years, with a post intervention follow up period (median
325 length 6 months; range 1-21 months) in just over half of all studies. The setting and content
326 of the interventions varied considerably across the trials; five trials focused solely on physical
327 activity interventions, five on diet only interventions, and 34 on multicomponent interventions.
328 Sample size ranged from 10 to 521 participants. Median of the mean (and range) baseline
329 BMI and BMI-z score across the studies in the intervention groups were 32.4 kg/m² (26.6-
330 45.5 kg/m²) and 2.2 units (1.92-4.2 units) respectively, and in the control groups 31.84 kg/m²
331 (26.6-45.5 kg/m²) and 2.2 units (1.81-4.3 units), respectively. The median proportion of
332 female participants was 55.8% in the intervention groups and 54.5% in the controls (ranging
333 from 0-100%); in the 19 trials reporting ethnicity, the proportion and range of white
334 participants was 58.8% for the intervention groups and 34.8% for the controls (ranging from
335 0-100%).

336 For the trials that could be pooled for meta-analysis, the overall mean difference in change in
337 BMI at the last available measurement point was -1.18 kg/m² (95% CI: -1.67 to -0.69) (2774
338 participants; 28 trials), whilst the change in BMI-z score was -0.13 units (95% CI: -0.21 to -
339 0.05) (2399 participants; 20 trials). This reduction remained when examined in those trials
340 with long (18-24 months) follow-up from baseline: BMI -1.49 kg/m² (95 CI: -2.56 to -0.41)
341 (760 participants; six trials) and BMI-z score -0.34 units (95% CI: -0.66 to -0.02) (602
342 participants; five trials). As expected intervention effects were larger when compared to no
343 intervention or usual care, than those compared to concomitant interventions. The length of
344 the post intervention follow-up period had no significant effects on BMI. Further subgroup

345 analyses revealed that the type of intervention (multicomponent, physical activity only or diet
346 only) had little effect on outcomes although the vast majority of trials were multicomponent.
347 Similarly, parental involvement in the intervention, the intervention setting, mode, and
348 theoretical basis of intervention did not significantly alter the overall effect estimates. Only
349 five trials documented adverse events, three of which reported no events; one stated 6.4%
350 of participants experienced an adverse event (but no further details provided) and only one
351 reported the occurrence of adverse events documented as ranging from 19-25%. Seven
352 trials (972 participants) demonstrated an improvement in health-related quality of life at a
353 follow up of 6-24 months (SMD 0.44 (95% CI: 0.09 to 0.79)). Lifestyle related behaviours
354 were measured too inconsistently to summarise, whilst measures of all-cause mortality,
355 morbidity and socioeconomic effects were not reported.

356

357 *Drug interventions for the treatment of obesity in children and* 358 *adolescents*

359 Mead *et al* (2016) (29) conducted searches up to March 2016 and identified 21 trials (11
360 metformin [including one trial arm with Metformin and Fluoxetine], six Sibutramine, four
361 Orlistat), and eight ongoing studies. Duration of the interventions ranged from 2.75 to 12.5
362 months, with duration of follow up (from baseline) ranging from 5.5 to 23 months. It is
363 important to note that only four trials reported post intervention follow up. In total 2484
364 children (mean baseline age range 10-16 years [median 13.7 years], mean baseline BMI
365 range 26-42 kg/m² [median approximately 35 kg/m²]) participated in the included trials, which
366 were undertaken in secondary care settings and conducted in the last two decades (1999-
367 2010). The trials took place in twelve different countries (four upper-middle income) with an
368 individual trial sample size ranging from 24 to 539 participants, and completion rates ranging
369 from 36 to 100% (median 78.6%).

370 Eighteen trials were placebo controlled, and 17 of these also included a concomitant lifestyle
371 intervention. Ethnicity was clearly reported in 10 out of the 21 trials with the proportion of
372 white participants ranging from 37 to 92%. BMI was meta-analysed for 16 trials (1884
373 participants) at 6 months (14 trials) and 12 months (two trials), which was the end of the
374 active intervention in all but one trial. A small but statistically significant mean difference in
375 BMI was observed: -1.3 kg/m^2 (95% CI: -1.9 to -0.8) in favour of the intervention. When
376 these data were analysed by drug type, Sibutramine, Metformin and Orlistat all
377 demonstrated a reduction in BMI. Additional subgroup analyses indicated statistically
378 significant differences, favouring studies with higher dropout and from middle income
379 countries. The most common adverse events were: gastrointestinal in the Orlistat and
380 Metformin trials; and tachycardia, constipation and hypertension in the Sibutramine trials.
381 Serious adverse events were reported in five trials (1347 participants) resulting in a relative
382 risk of 1.43 (95% CI: 0.63 to 3.25). Health-related quality of life was only reported in two
383 trials (86 participants), with no significant between group differences seen in the trial
384 reporting findings from the SF36 health questionnaire. One suicide was reported in an
385 Orlistat group. Morbidity was reported in only one trial (533 participants) resulting in a small
386 between group difference in new gallstone development in an Orlistat arm. Data on
387 socioeconomic effects were not reported.

388 *Surgery for the treatment of obesity in children and adolescents*

389 Ells *et al* (2015) (28) conducted searches up to March 2015, and identified one recent
390 Australian RCT examining the effectiveness of a laparoscopic adjustable band compared to
391 a multicomponent lifestyle intervention (usual care). Fifty predominantly female adolescent
392 participants with severe obesity (mean age 16 years, mean BMI over 40), took part in the
393 trial. Between baseline and last point of measurement (24 months) participants in the
394 surgery arm experienced a significant 12.7 kg/m^2 (95% CI: 11.3 to 14.2) reduction in BMI
395 compared to a reduction of 1.3 kg/m^2 (95% CI: 0.4 to 2.9) in the control arm. The surgery
396 participants also experienced improvements in two of eight quality of life concepts, when

397 compared to the control. Post intervention morbidity (metabolic syndrome) was reported in
398 four patients completing the control arm and no patients in the intervention arm. No other
399 secondary outcome data were reported. Four ongoing studies were identified which may
400 help strengthen future evidence for surgery interventions in this population group.

401

402 **Discussion**

403 This overview provides a comprehensive update to Oude Luttikhuis, 2009 (34). However,
404 despite a dramatic increase in the number of trials conducted over the last eight years,
405 overall the findings remain similar. The outcomes also align with more recent systematic
406 reviews of parent only interventions (38, 39); educational interventions to treat obesity in 6 to
407 12 year old children (40); school based interventions (41) and lifestyle interventions for
408 children up to 18 years (42). BMI-z score change by age group also followed a similar
409 pattern to changes reported in a recent observational study (43).

410

411 All six reviews provided good quality evidence with high R-AMSTAR scores, thus providing a
412 high degree of confidence in the review findings and clinical relevance (36). However the
413 overall quality of the trials included in the reviews was low, with improvement required
414 across most of the risk of bias domains, but in particular attrition and selective reporting.
415 Performance bias was also an identified risk in many of the non-drug trials, reflecting the
416 difficulties in blinding lifestyle and surgical interventions.

417

418 **Implications for research**

419 Despite a sizeable evidence base, there remain a number of important gaps (Table 1).
420 Therefore, serious consideration should be given to ensuring all new trials follow the

421 CONSORT criteria, use standardised outcome assessment criteria and validated
422 measurement tools, to facilitate comparisons across trials. Trials co-ordinators should also
423 ensure that long term (>12 month) post intervention follow ups are conducted, and details on
424 all adverse events and maintenance periods are clearly and consistently reported. Authors
425 should use the TIDieR checklist (44) to provide comprehensive and reproducible trial
426 descriptions (clearly describing both the control and intervention conditions, given the
427 differences that can arise in usual care provision), and must ensure: 1) trials are adequately
428 powered; 2) attrition is accounted for in an appropriate intention to treat analysis (i.e. the use
429 of multiple imputation); 3) intervention cost is included; and 4) where possible study
430 personnel are blinded.

431 Conducting more qualitative research to understand the barriers and facilitators to weight
432 management in different populations would be advantageous, as would more process
433 evaluations (45). These studies may help guide implementation, tailor interventions to
434 populations needs, and understand which approaches may work better for which populations
435 and why.

436

437 **Implications for practice**

438 It is important to note that the vast majority of the evidence was generated in high income
439 countries, thus calling into question the generalisability of these findings in low and middle
440 income countries. This is particularly important given the most rapid recent rises in
441 overweight in young children from low and lower-middle income countries (1), and lack of
442 cost-effectiveness data, making it difficult to effectively translate findings for lower income
443 countries with potentially different health and political economies.

444 Only one trial of bariatric surgery was identified which provides insufficient evidence to
445 assess the wider applicability and acceptability of this approach. A recent non-RCT study

446 including 242 adolescents undergoing bariatric surgery at five U.S. centres reported
447 significant improvements in weight, cardio-metabolic health, and weight-related quality of life
448 3 years post-surgery. However, associated risks included specific micronutrient deficiencies
449 and the need for additional abdominal procedures (46). A recent French review, concluded
450 that bariatric surgery is not a simple surgical intervention in teenagers, with minor side
451 effects reported in 10-15%, and severe side effects in 1-5% (47).

452 Drug interventions were also assessed, however, some of the trial drugs were used off
453 license, or have been withdrawn in some countries, which coupled to the lack of long term
454 follow up and safety data, makes it impossible to make any conclusive recommendations.

455 From the lifestyle modification reviews, the largest (0.3 unit) BMI-z score reduction was
456 observed in the interventions targeting the youngest children (2-5 years), although this was
457 by far the smallest evidence base. However, given the tracking of excess weight into later
458 childhood (48, 49) it is important to observe the effectiveness of early intervention to help
459 prevent excess weight persisting into later childhood. Early treatment may also be important
460 given the smallest overall reduction in BMI-z score (0.06 units) was observed in interventions
461 delivered to children aged 6-11 years. This finding may reflect the challenges of intervening
462 in this age group, who may be more influenced by the wider obesogenic environment than
463 their younger counterparts. This age group may also be less autonomous than their older
464 adolescent peers and may therefore rely more on parental support, yet the exact role of
465 parents and parental weight status is not clearly described. This finding warrants further
466 consideration given the association between parental and child obesity (50).

467 Whilst any reduction in BMI-z score for children with overweight and obesity may be of
468 clinical benefit, the BMI-z score reduction required to ameliorate any comorbidities is less
469 clear. For example, a small observational study in young people (median age 12.4 years)
470 with severe obesity reported that a reduction of 0.25 BMI-z score units was required to
471 improve adiposity and metabolic health (51). However, improvements in cholesterol were

472 observed in children with obesity aged 7-17 years with a BMI-z score reduction of <0.1 unit
473 (52), and improvement in insulin and cholesterol was observed in 5-19 year olds with
474 obesity, following a BMI-z score reduction of 0.15 (SD 0.5) units (53). Reduction of systemic
475 blood pressure and arterial stiffness was also reported in pre-pubertal children with obesity
476 following a BMI-z score reduction of 0.1 unit (54). The differences in BMI-z score associated
477 cardio-metabolic changes may also be affected by the use of different reference populations
478 used to calculate the BMI-z score (Farpour-Lambert personal communication). In addition to
479 any clinical benefit, it is important to consider the public health benefits of even small
480 BMI/BMI-z score reductions if feasibly achieved across an entire population (55).

481

482 As BMI it is not a direct measure of body composition, changes in fat mass may be
483 confounded with changes in fat-free mass. This is particularly important given data from the
484 UK (56), US (57) and Australia (58) demonstrates increases in central adiposity exceeding
485 increases in BMI in children. Although other body composition measures were not the focus
486 of this overview given variations in the use, cost and precision, each review did show (as a
487 secondary outcome) other body composition indices were reported in the individual trials.
488 Waist circumference was the most frequently reported measure however, meta-analyses of
489 this outcome were only reported in the reviews of children (32) 6-11years (final follow-up:
490 MD -2.41 cm, 95% CI -3.59 to -1.23; P < 0.0001; 11 trials; 1325 participants) and 12-17years
491 (33) (final follow up: MD -2.26 cm, 95% CI -3.80 to -0.72; P = 0.004; 17 trials; 1997
492 participants), thus demonstrating a parallel reduction in waist circumference and BMI as a
493 result of lifestyle interventions in school age children.

494

495 Although intervention content, format and delivery varied significantly both within and across
496 the included reviews, collectively there was evidence to support the role of multicomponent
497 interventions. There was also no clear difference in terms of outcome according to setting,
498 which may suggest that intervention content and wider context may be more important than
499 delivery setting. Very little data were provided on the role of the family characteristics or the

500 wider environment. Although the inclusion of parents in both the school age (6-11 years) and
501 adolescent (12-17 years) studies did not appear to significantly impact on the overall effect
502 of the intervention, specifically targeting children and parents with overweight in the
503 preschool (up to 6 years) review seemed to demonstrate a dual benefit to both children and
504 their parents. Workniak *et al* (59) also showed that parental weight status change was an
505 independent predictor of child weight status change in a family based weight management
506 study of children 8-12 years. Parents have an important role in controlling their child's food
507 and activity environment, helping their child attend treatment sessions and implement
508 changes. Thus intensity of parental involvement (60) and their role as an influential role
509 models (61), may all be important contributors to effective long term paediatric weight
510 management.

511 The sustainability of any observed reduction in BMI/BMI-z score is a key consideration.
512 Whilst effects appeared to be sustained in the adolescent and preschool aged children, data
513 from children aged 6-11 suggests effects were not sustainable. Given obesity is a chronic
514 relapsing disease (62) manifested in an obesity conducive environment, it is perhaps
515 unsurprising that short term effects do not persist particularly in children who may be most
516 influenced by their wider environment.

517 Data on adverse events were generally not well reported across the studies in any of the
518 lifestyle reviews, but where reported occurrence was low. However adverse events such as
519 effects on linear growth, injuries, eating disorders and psycho-social well-being must be
520 considered. Bariatric surgery is a major surgical intervention, with serious potential risks for
521 operative and perioperative complications and mortality. The restrictive or mal-absorptive
522 nature of some forms of bariatric surgery presents an additional consideration in growing
523 children. Psychological maturity, ability to provide informed consent, the availability of family
524 support, and provision of ongoing post-operative lifestyle support (63) should be considered.
525 Drug interventions are also not without adverse events, which depending on the drug
526 prescribed, include a variety of gastrointestinal and cardiovascular conditions.

527 In summary, this overview provides a comprehensive update on the effectiveness of obesity
528 treatments for children 2-18 years. However, it is essential that when translated into practice,
529 findings are interpreted within the context of local political and health systems, and
530 population needs (Table 2). It is also important to acknowledge the limitations of RCT
531 evidence when evaluating complex interventions. It may therefore be important to consider
532 additional observational studies, where gaps remain in the RCT evidence.

533

534 **Table 1: Outstanding research questions**

| |
|---|
| What weight management interventions are most effective in low and middle income countries? |
| What weight management interventions are most effective for children with disabilities, complex health needs or very severe forms of obesity? |
| What weight management interventions are most effective in specific ethnic, religious and culturally diverse groups? |
| How cost effective are child and adolescent weight management programmes? |
| What are the key intervention components that promote success? |
| What are the key family characteristics/environments that promote success? |
| What is the optimal role of parents within different age groups? |
| What behaviour change strategies are most useful? |
| What maintenance programmes are required to help improve the sustainability of positive weight management improvements? |
| What are the benefits of dual family weight management i.e. interventions that address weight management in overweight children and overweight parents simultaneously in the same intervention? |
| What are the impacts of emerging new technologies such as e-health in children? |
| What are the long term benefits, and safety of drug interventions in children and adolescents with obesity? |
| How clinically effective is restrictive or mal-absorptive bariatric surgery in treating obesity in adolescents from different backgrounds? |

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536

537 **Table 2: Practical considerations when implementing findings in practice.**

Evidence from surgical and drug RCTs was too limited to make inferences about use and safety, and adverse events were a serious consideration.

Lifestyle interventions can be successful in producing small reductions in BMI-z score with relatively low occurrence of adverse events. However obesity is a chronic relapsing condition, therefore it may be challenging to sustain changes over the longer term, thus ongoing maintenance support will be required.

As there is currently insufficient evidence to suggest which particular setting or intervention component may be more or less beneficial, it may be useful to consider the following:

- Take a multi-component approach incorporating nutrition, physical activity and behaviour change components.
- Identify high risk groups and ensure services are accessible and appropriate for them: can reasonable adjustments be made to improve inclusivity?
- Co-production: develop interventions with target populations, to tailor the intervention to local needs (e.g. language/cultural adaptations; co-morbidity management; tailored time, location and delivery style). This may also help reduce attrition and poor compliance which can be problematic.
- Effective communication: how best do you reach your target population and referring staff (e.g. available networks, social media, TV, radio, print)?
- A truly family based approach – ensuring support is in place for all family members with weight concerns.
- The influence of the wider environment (food taxes, availability of healthy food and drink; and opportunities to be active), and local systems (personal resources and staff training; financial coverage of treatment)
- Ensure comprehensive systems are in place to record adverse events.
- The needs of complex families (i.e. families in crisis, child protection issues, severe parental or child psychiatric illness) who are unlikely to participate in trials.
- Consider the scalability of any intervention, and the cost to both to the provider and participants.
- Evaluate and learn from local implementation, by using standardised and validated outcome measurement tools.

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550

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552 Louisa Ells and Emma Mead are co-authors on all six reviewed publications, Karen Rees
553 Lena Al-Khudairy, and Louise Baur are co-authors on four of the reviewed publications,
554 Emma Loveman, and Liane Azevedo are co-authors on three of the reviewed publications
555 and Tamara Brown and Alessandro Demaio are co-authors on one of the reviewed
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557 Louisa Ells is seconded to Public Health England as a specialist obesity advisor two days a
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