- 1 Associations between weight loss attempts, weight-related stress and body image during
- 2 childhood and adolescence in children with parental obesity
- 3 *Short title:* Weight loss attempts and body image in children
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ABSTRACT (249/250 words)

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Background. Few longitudinal studies have investigated the role of weight loss attempts or weight-related stress on body image during childhood. We examined whether weight loss attempts and weight-related stress are associated with weight misperception and body dissatisfaction across childhood and adolescence. Methods. Data were drawn from the Quebec Adipose and Lifestyle InvesTigation in Youth (QUALITY) cohort of Canadian children with parental obesity (8-10 years, n=630, 10-12 years: n=564, 15-17 years: n=377). We assessed weight loss attempts and weight-related stress at baseline and first follow-up, and perceived and desired silhouettes at first and second follow-up with questionnaires. Weight misperception consisted of the difference in body mass index z-score (zBMI) from the perceived silhouette and the measured zBMI. Body dissatisfaction consisted of the discordance between perceived and desired silhouettes. We estimated multivariable mixed effects regression models adjusting for age, sex, pubertal stage, parental BMI and education, and sport-based teasing. Results. Weight loss attempts were associated with a higher weight misperception score (ever tried, beta [95% CI]: 0.13 [0.01; 0.24]) and with 2.13 times higher desire to be thinner (95% CI: 1.39; 3.26) at the subsequent follow-up. Similarly, children stressed by their weight had a higher misperception score (beta [95% CI]: 0.15 [0.02; 0.27]) and greater desire to be thinner at the next follow-up (OR [95% CI: 1.73 [0.999; 3.00]). Conclusions. Weight-loss attempts and weight-related stress in children and adolescents are associated with weight misperception and body dissatisfaction, supporting empowerment and counselling focusing on healthy eating behaviors and a positive body image.

IMPACT STATEMENT (50/50 words)

- First study examining weight loss attempts and body image over seven years in children with
- 59 parental obesity. Weight loss attempts and weight-related stress were prospectively associated
- with weight misperception and body dissatisfaction. Findings highlight the importance of healthy
- diet-free eating and the promotion of a healthy body image in childhood.

INTRODUCTION

People living with a larger shape consistently report greater negative cognitions, perceptions, emotions, and behaviours related to their body shape and weight.¹ A negative body image is associated with adverse mental health and well-being outcomes such as depression, poor self-esteem, reduced self-confidence, and social marginalization in adolescents with overweight or obesity², with weight-based teasing worsening these outcomes.³ In the current study, we focus on two specific body image facets: weight misperception, defined as the incapacity to identify or describe one's own weight and body shape accurately, and body dissatisfaction, defined as not being satisfied with one's current weight or shape.⁴

Population-based studies report a high prevalence (49-61%) of body dissatisfaction in adolescents, especially among girls and among adolescents with overweight or obesity.^{5, 6} Engaging in weight loss attempts has been cross-sectionally associated with body dissatisfaction in adolescents,^{7, 8} however not in a previous longitudinal study.⁹ Regarding weight misperception, adolescents who perceive themselves as heavier tend to engage in weight loss attempts, especially using extreme measures such as the use of laxatives or diuretics, fasting, or vomiting.¹⁰

Furthermore, childhood psychosocial stress, caused by familial and contextual factors (e.g. exposure to violence) is associated with increased emotional eating, eating in the absence of hunger¹¹ and weight gain.¹² The role of stress, particularly weight-related stress, on body image remains uncertain. Indeed, interventions to reduce general stress as well as weight-focused stress

might be beneficial to restoring a healthy body image and preventing psychological distress in the long term.

Despite their young age, children are vulnerable to weight loss attempts and weight-related stress, ¹³ weight misperception, and body dissatisfaction. ^{14, 15} Yet few studies have reported associations between weight loss attempts, weight-related stress and weight misperception in children, ^{16, 17} and none to our knowledge examined the link with body dissatisfaction. As weight-based teasing is potentially a common cause of both weight loss attempts and body image, it is necessary to account for it when examining these associations. The studies on the relationship between weight loss attempts and weight misperception in children are of cross-sectional design, and one of the two relied on self-reported anthropometric data and omitted potential confounders (e.g., pubertal stage, parental adiposity), ¹⁷ such that their findings are subject to bias.

Emerging evidence points to differences in sex and adiposity (e.g. body mass index [BMI]) in terms of weight loss attempts, ¹⁸ weight misperception and body dissatisfaction. ^{14, 15} In adolescents, weight loss attempts are related to weight misperception, but differently across sexes. ¹⁹ Our study aims to examine how weight loss attempts and weight-related stress are associated to weight perception and body dissatisfaction across childhood and adolescence. A secondary objective is to investigate whether these associations differed by sex and by childhood adiposity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

105 Design

Data were drawn from the Quebec Adipose and Lifestyle InvesTigation in Youth (QUALITY) cohort (Province of Québec, Canada) of children at risk of developing obesity due to a parental history of obesity. The QUALITY study's overarching objective is to better understand the natural history of obesity, its cardiometabolic consequences and the role of its determinants across childhood. Complete methodology of the study has been published elsewhere.²⁰ We used data collected at baseline, first, and second follow-ups for this study.

Participants

A total of 387 377 recruitment flyers were distributed among 2^{nd} , 3^{rd} , 4^{th} , and 5^{th} grade students in 1040 elementary schools (89% of schools approached) within a 75-km radius of 3 urban cities in the province of Québec. Eligible children were aged between 8 and 10 years, with at least one biological parent with obesity (defined as self-reported BMI \geq 30 kg/m² or a waist circumference > 102 cm in men and > 88 cm in women) and of White race/ethnicity. A total of 3350 families contacted the research staff to assess their eligibility. Among the 1320 eligible families, 630 families (48%) agreed to participate and were evaluated between 2005 and 2008. The first follow-up took place between 2008 and 2011 (10-12 years, n=564), and the second follow-up between 2012 and 2015 (15-17 years, n=377).

The study was approved by the ethics research committees of Centre Hospitalier Universitaire (CHU) Sainte-Justine and Institut Universitaire de Cardiologie et de Pneumologie de

Québec (IUCPQ). We obtained informed assent and consent from the child and parent, respectively.

Measurements

Participants were invited to a full-day research visit at either CHU Sainte-Justine in Montréal or at IUCPQ in Québec City at ages 8-10, 10-12, and 15-17 years. Trained research nurses measured weight, height, and Tanner pubertal stage (0 = prepubertal), stage 1; 1 = pubertal, stage 2 or above) at each visit following standardized protocols. BMI was calculated by dividing weight (kg) by squared height (m²). We computed age and sex adjusted BMI z-scores (zBMI) and percentiles according to Center for Disease Control and Prevention. BMI categories were attributed as follows: underweight if $< 5^{th}$ percentile; normal weight if between the $\ge 5^{th}$ and $< 85^{th}$; overweight if $\ge 85^{th}$ and obese if $\ge 95^{th}$. Mothers' and fathers' BMI were calculated from measured weight and height at baseline. To estimate socioeconomic status, we used the highest parental educational attainment reported by parents at baseline, categorized as follows: high school degree or less, college/vocational or trade school degree, and university degree. We measured weight-based teasing but only in the context of physical activity with the child's questionnaire: "I often don't do physical activity because my friends tease me" (1 = totally true, 2 = fairly true, 3 = more or less true, 4 = false).

Exposure variables

We evaluated self-reported weight loss attempts and weight-related stress at baseline and first follow-up with the children's questionnaire. The children completed the questionnaire in a

private room with the research assistant who ensured confidentiality of the responses and clarified questions when necessary. Parents were in a separate room. Questions were retrieved from the Quebec Child and Adolescent Health and Social Survey 1999 questionnaire.²² We assessed lifetime and current weight loss attempts using these questions: "Have you ever tried to lose weight?" (1 = yes, 0 = no) and "Currently, what are you doing about your weight?" (1 = trying to lose weight, 2 = trying to gain weight, 3 = want to maintain my weight, 4 = not doing anything about my weight). We evaluated weight-related stress with the question: "During the past three months, have you been worried or stressed by your weight?" (1 = not at all, 2 = a little bit, 3 = quite a bit, 4 = a whole lot) from the 2002 Health and Social Survey questionnaire.²³

Outcome variables

We assessed weight misperception with a scale of seven drawn sex-specific silhouettes ranging from a child with a very thin body (silhouette 1) to a child with a very large body (silhouette 7) in the child's questionnaire at the first and second follow-ups with the question "Choose the illustration that best corresponds to your current appearance". Body silhouettes have been shown to be reliable and highly correlated with specific BMI percentiles in children. Using a previously published methodology, be calculated a continuous weight misperception score by calculating the difference between the zBMI of the perceived silhouette and the measured zBMI. A negative score indicates underestimation whereas a positive score indicates overestimation and a score of zero indicates accurate estimation of body size. Higher scores represent greater misperception in either direction.

To assess body dissatisfaction, we asked the children to "Choose the illustration that best corresponds to what you would like to look like" on the same scale of seven silhouettes and calculated the difference between perceived and ideal silhouettes.⁵ Children were classified as desiring to be thinner if the desired silhouette was thinner than the perceived silhouette, desiring to be heavier if the desired silhouette was heavier than the perceived silhouette, and as satisfied with their weight if the same two silhouettes were chosen.

Statistical analyses

We described children's characteristics using means (standard deviations, SD), medians (25th and 75th percentiles), and proportions for categorical variables. Characteristics were displayed according to the children's weight status based on zBMI cut points (underweight, normal weight and overweight or obese) at the corresponding time point.

For our main objective, that is to examine the association between weight loss attempts/weight-related stress and weight misperception and body dissatisfaction across childhood and adolescence, we carried out distinct mixed effects multivariable regression models for each exposure (ever tried to lose weight; currently trying to lose weight; stressed by weight) and outcome combination (weight misperception; body dissatisfaction). Specifically, using the three time points, we modelled beta coefficients and 95% confidence intervals (CI) on the relationship between the exposure of interest at time t and the outcome at the subsequent follow-up (time t+1) allowing for random intercepts. Thus, we provide a combined estimate of the relationship between exposures at baseline (8-10 years) on outcomes at first follow-up (10-12 years), and between

exposure at first follow-up on outcomes at second follow-up (15-17 years). The variable ever tried to lose weight was coded 1 = yes and 0 = no. The variable currently trying to lose weight was coded 1 = trying to lose weight and 0 = not doing anything about my weight as the reference category. The variable being worried or stressed by weight was coded 1 for those who responded "a little bit", "quite a bit" or "a whole lot" and 0 = "not at all". We combined the three stress categories because the numbers of children who reported "quite a bit" and "a whole lot" were too small to allow inference as distinct categories. The number of observations remained low even when combining "quite a bit" and "a whole lot" (n = 39).

Models were adjusted for potential confounders measured concurrently with the exposure and included child's age, sex, pubertal stage, zBMI, parental BMI and education level, and sport-based teasing. This variable was coded 1 if responded "totally true", "fairly true", or "more or less true", and coded 0 if responded "false" to sport-based teasing. Because of the nonlinear relationship between zBMI and the weight misperception score (Figure S1, Supplemental Material), we used generalized additive models with penalized regression splines for zBMI in weight misperception models. For the body dissatisfaction models, we estimated generalized mixed effect models (logit link) comparing the likelihood of desiring to be thinner to being satisfied with one's silhouette as the reference category. We also verified the association between weight-related stress and the desire to be heavier compared to being satisfied with one's silhouette as the reference category.

For our secondary objective, we investigated effect modification by sex by testing interaction terms between sex and the exposure variable in each model described previously. Similarly, we tested effect modification by the child's adiposity by including an interaction term between zBMI and the exposure variable in each model. We conducted our analyses with R 4.2.1 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Statistical significance was two-sided at alpha 5% level.

RESULTS

Participants characteristics

Characteristics of participants by weight status are reported in **Table 1**. Overall, 80% of children with overweight or obesity and 30% of normal weight children had ever tried to lose weight at 8-10 years of age. Forty-two percent of children with overweight or obesity reported weight-related stress. On average, children underestimated their weight at 10-12 years, and to a lesser extent at 15-17 years. Eighty-six percent of children with overweight or obesity and 29% of normal weight children desired to be thinner at 10-12 years. At 15-17 years, proportion increased to 92% in children with overweight or obesity and 37% in normal weight children.

The **Supplemental Material** presents data on weight loss attempts, weight-related stress, weight misperception and body dissatisfaction in girls and boys separately. Of the 630 children at baseline, 90% returned to the first follow-up and 60% to the second follow-up. Average duration was 24 months (SD = 2) between baseline and first follow-up and 62 months (SD = 4) between

first and second follow-up. Children who did not come back for follow-up were younger, had a higher zBMI and were more likely to have tried to lose weight, as previously reported.¹³

Associations between self-reported weight loss attempts, weight-related stress, and weight misperception

As shown in **Table 2**, children who reported trying to lose weight were more likely to overestimate their weight compared to their measured weight at the subsequent follow-up (ever tried, beta [95% CI] = 0.13 [0.01; 0.24], currently trying = 0.13 [0.003; 0.25]). Moreover, children who were stressed by their weight were more likely to overestimate their weight by 0.15 SD of BMI at the next follow-up (95% CI = 0.02; 0.27), compared to children who did not experience weight-related stress. We did not observe statistically significant interactions by zBMI or by sex.

Associations between self-reported weight loss attempts, weight-related stress, and body dissatisfaction

Children who ever tried or were currently trying to lose weight were 2.13 (95% CI: 1.39, 3.26) and 2.21 times (95% CI: 1.38; 3.54) more likely to desire to be thinner at the subsequent follow-up, compared to those who reported doing nothing about their weight (**Table 3**). Similarly, children worried or stressed by their weight were more likely to desire to be thinner at the next follow-up (OR [95% CI]: 1.73 [0.999; 3.00]). We did not observe statistically significant interactions for sex or zBMI. Moreover, weight-related stress was not associated with a greater likelihood of desiring to be heavier (data not shown).

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DISCUSSION

This study examined the relationship between weight loss attempts and weight-related stress with weight misperception and body dissatisfaction during pubertal years in children with parental obesity. At 10-12 years of age, 86% of children with overweight or obesity desired to be thinner compared to 29% of children with normal weight. Furthermore, self-reported weight loss attempts and weight-related stress were found to be risk factors of weight misperception and body dissatisfaction. Children in our sample were more prone to underestimate their weight although the amplitude attenuated in adolescence. Weight underestimation was also reported in Canadian children and adolescents²⁵ and children in Norway²⁶ and the Netherlands.²⁷ Weight underestimation among children is greater when parents have a higher BMI, 25 which could explain this finding in our study of children with parental obesity. Our findings support the visual normalization theory, which proposes that weight status perception is influenced by visual norms of body size and because of the higher prevalence of individuals with overweight or obesity today, the definition of a "normal" weight has been recalibrated.²⁸ We thus hypothesize that because the children in our sample live with parents with larger bodies, they may be more likely to underestimate their weight and consider it as "normal".

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Although most children in the cohort underestimated their weight, those who reported past or current weight loss attempts and were worried by their weight were more likely to overestimate their weight at the subsequent follow-up. Similar findings have been noted in previous cross-sectional studies in children.^{16, 17} Weight loss attempts and weight-related stress in childhood could

be involved in the development of a distorted perception of the body, which in turn can cause shame and stress and predispose to disordered eating as a coping strategy.^{4, 10}

Most children with overweight or obesity desired to be thinner at 10-12 and 15-17 years, which is very concerning for their mental health: body dissatisfaction in adolescence has been associated with poorer self-esteem and higher risk of depression.² We found that past self-reported weight loss attempts and weight-related stress were associated with the desire to be thinner at the next visit. One case-control study observed that adolescents who engaged in weight loss attempts reported past body dissatisfaction.²⁹ Our findings are consistent with the current literature in adolescents on the exacerbating effect of weight loss attempts on body dissatisfaction.^{5, 8} In Norwegian preteens and in French Canadian adolescents, weight loss attempts were cross-sectionally associated with a greater body dissatisfaction, with the relationship being stronger in girls compared to boys in both studies.^{5, 8} In contrast, we did not find effect modification by sex in our study. Absence of effect modification could be because our sample is composed of children with overweight or obesity (or at risk, given the parental history), such that boys, as much as girls, report stress toward their weight and weight loss attempts, and that the relationship with body image is similar across sexes.

Unlike most existing studies, our study focused on children with data collected prospectively over seven years. This cohort design informs on the temporal causal sequence between weight loss attempts, weight misperception and body dissatisfaction. We also used innovative methods to define weight perception and body dissatisfaction using sex-specific child silhouettes and measured zBMI. Another limitation is that self-reported weight loss attempts and

weight-related stress constructs were measured using single items. Importantly, we were not able to distinguish between healthy and extreme methods of weight loss nor assess the motivations and attitudes towards weight control. The associations of interest in the present study should be examined in future studies with more detailed questionnaires or qualitative designs. There also may be unaccounted confounders that biased our findings. For instance, we did not measure experiences of weight-based teasing in other settings than a physical-activity-related context, parental weight-related stress, or parental practices around weight loss and body image perception. Finally, our study comprises only White children between years 2005 and 2015, which limits the transposability of our findings to other ethnicities and to today's context.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, our study suggests that children engaging in weight loss attempts or stressed by their weight have an altered perception of their silhouette and suffer from body dissatisfaction. This study lends further support towards empowerment and counselling that focus on healthy eating behaviors and a positive body image, particularly among children with overweight or obesity. Findings also call for health promotion campaigns that favor body acceptance starting at an early age. Finally, more knowledge is needed on the role of weight loss attempts and weight-related stress and body image in childhood, using more comprehensive measures and a longer follow-up.

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CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

Soren Harnois-Leblanc: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing. Andraea Van Hulst: conceptualization, methodology, writing – review and editing. Kristen M. Lucibello: writing – review and editing. Marie-Josée Harbec: writing – review and editing. Catherine M. Sabiston: conceptualization, writing – review and editing. Katerina Maximova: conceptualization, writing – review and editing. Marie-Pierre Sylvestre: conceptualization, methodology, writing – review and editing. Mélanie Henderson: conceptualization, methodology, resources, writing – review and editing, supervision, funding acquisition. All authors have approved the final article.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

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- Figure S1: Non-linear relationship between body mass index z-score and the weight misperception score at next follow-up.
- Table S1. Weight loss attempts in the children at baseline and first follow-up, by sex.
- Table S2. Profile of weight perception and body dissatisfaction in the children at first and second follow-up, by sex.

Table 1. Characteristics of the children from the QUALITY cohort at baseline, first follow-up, and second follow-up stratified by weight status at the corresponding time

Baseline (8-10 years, $n = 630$)			
	Underweight (n = 12)	Normal weight (n = 354)	Overweight or obesity (n = 264)
Age, mean (SD)	9.9 (1.0)	9.5 (0.9)	9.7 (0.9)
Girls, n (%)	7 (58.3)	160 (45.2)	120 (45.4)
Pubertal, n (%)	4 (33.3)	56 (15.8)	76 (28.9)
zBMI, mean (SD)	-1.91 (0.41)	0.03 (0.64)	1.75 (0.42)
Ever tried to lose weight, n (%)	1 (8.3)	99 (30.0)	212 (80.3)
Currently trying to lose weight, n (%)	0 (0)	68 (28.1)	169 (77.5)
Worried or stressed by weight, n (%)	0 (0)	25 (7.1)	109 (41.8)
Teased in sports, n (%)	1 (8.3)	54 (15.3)	44 (16.7)
Parental education, n (%) ≥ 1 parent with high school degree or less ≥ 1 parent with college/vocational/trade school degree ≥ 1 parent with university degree	1 (8.3) 8 (66.7) 3 (25.0)	25 (7.1) 115 (32.5) 214 (60.5)	27 (10.2) 113 (42.8) 124 (47.0)
Mothers' BMI (kg/m ²), mean (SD)	26.9 (3.1)	28.3 (6.3)	31.0 (6.9)
Fathers' BMI (kg/m ²), mean (SD)	27.3 (4.0)	29.7 (4.9)	32.2 (5.8)
First follow-up (10-12 years, $n = 564$)			
	Underweight (n = 13)	Normal weight (n = 327)	Overweight or obesity (n = 224)
Ever tried to lose weight, n (%)	0 (0)	77 (23.5)	163 (72.8)
Currently trying to lose weight, n (%)	0 (0)	54 (24.3)	139 (80.8)
Worried or stressed by weight, n (%)	1 (7.7)	38 (11.7)	102 (45.6)
Teased in sports, n (%)	0 (0)	21 (6.4)	25 (11.1)
Weight misperception score, mean (SD) ^a	0.08 (0.84)	-0.93 (0.81)	-1.23 (0.70)

Concordance between perceived silhouette and desired silhouette, n (%)			
Same/Satisfied	6 (46.2)	184 (56.3)	31 (13.8)
Desire to be thinner	0(0.0)	94 (28.7)	193 (86.2)
Desire to be heavier	7 (53.8)	49 (15.0)	0 (0.0)
Second follow-up (15-17 years, $n = 377$)			
	Underweight (n = 7)	Normal weight (n = 236)	Overweight or obesity (n = 134)
Weight misperception score, mean (SD) ^a	0.56 (0.58)	-0.60 (0.69)	-0.65 (0.60)
Concordance between perceived silhouette			
and desired silhouette, n (%)			
Same/Satisfied	2 (28.6)	97 (41.3)	11 (8.2)
Desire to be thinner	0(0)	88 (37.4)	123 (91.8)
Desire to be heavier	5 (71.4)	50 (21.3)	0 (0)

Legend: BMI: body mass index, SD: standard deviation, zBMI: body mass index z-score.

^aThe misperception score is calculated with the following equation: perceived zBMI - measured zBMI. A negative score indicates weight underestimation, and a positive score, weight overestimation.

Table 2. Separate multivariable mixed effects linear regression models of the association between weight loss attempts and weight-related stress and the weight misperception score^a at the subsequent follow-up between baseline (8-10 years) and second follow-up (15-17 years)^b

	Weight misperception score $\hat{\beta}$ [95% CI]	p value
Ever tried to lose weight (vs. never)	0.13 [0.01; 0.24]	0.029
Currently trying to lose weight (vs. doing nothing)	0.13 [0.003; 0.27]	0.046
Worried or stressed by weight (vs. not)	0.15 [0.02; 0.27]	0.024

Legend: $\hat{\beta}$: estimated beta coefficient, CI: confidence intervals. Results in bold indicate statistical significance at the 5% level.

^aThe misperception score is calculated by the following equation: perceived zBMI - measured zBMI. A negative score indicates weight underestimation, and a positive score, weight overestimation.

^bAll models were distinct and were adjusted for age, sex, pubertal stage, zBMI, parental BMI, parental education, and sport-based teasing, as well as the subject ID variable as random intercept. We used penalized regression splines for the zBMI variable because the relationship between zBMI and the weight misperception score is nonlinear. See the Figure in the Supplemental Material.

Table 3. Separate multivariable mixed effects generalized linear models of the association between weight loss attempts and weight-related stress and the desire to be thinner at the subsequent follow-up between baseline (8-10 years) and second follow-up (15-17 years)^a

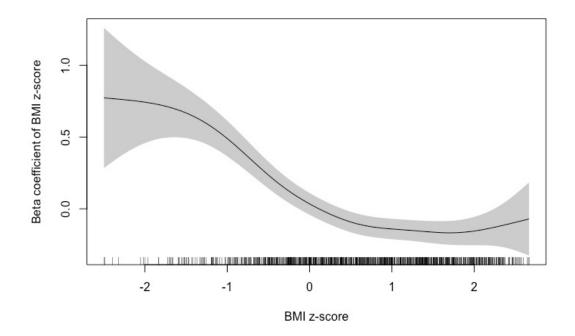
	Desire to be thinner \widehat{OR} [95% CI]	p value
Ever tried to lose weight (vs. never)	2.13 [1.39 ; 3.26]	<0.001
Currently trying to lose weight (vs. doing nothing)	2.21 [1.38 ; 3.54]	0.001
Worried or stressed by weight (vs. not)	1.73 [0.999 ; 3.00]	0.050

Legend: CI: confidence intervals, \widehat{OR} : estimated odds ratio. Results in bold indicate statistical significance at the 5% level.

^aAll models were distinct and were adjusted for age, sex, pubertal stage, body mass index z-score (zBMI), parental BMI, parental education, and sport-based teasing.

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Figure S1. Non-linear relationship between body mass index z-score and the weight misperception score at next follow-up



Legend: The generalized additive mixed model used penalized regression splines to estimate with flexibility the relationship between body mass index z-score (zBMI) on the x-axis and weight misperception score. The y-axis represents the beta coefficient of the effect of zBMI on the weight misperception score across the spectrum of zBMI. The effect of zBMI on the weight misperception score plateaus at a zBMI of -2 to -1, decreases and becomes slightly negative starting at a zBMI of +1, and increases again at a zBMI of +2. The curve should be interpreted with caution in the extremes given the small number of observations.

Table S1. Weight loss attempts in the children at <u>baseline and first follow-up</u>8-10 and 10-12 years of age, by sex

Baseline (8-10 years)		
	Girls	Boys
	(n = 287)	(n = 343)
Ever tried to lose weight, n (%)	143 (49.8)	169 (49.3)
Currently trying to lose weight, n (%)	113 (51.8)	124 (49.6)
Worried or stressed by weight, n (%)	68 (23.8)	66 (19.5)
First follow-up (10-12 years)		
	Girls	Boys
	(n = 251)	(n = 313)
Ever tried to lose weight, n (%)	103 (41.0)	137 (43.8)
Currently trying to lose weight, n (%)	86 (47.5)	107 (48.9)
Worried or stressed by weight, n (%)	75 (29.9)	66 (21.3)

Table S2. Profile of weight perception and body dissatisfaction in the children at <u>first and</u> <u>second follow-up10-12 and 15-17 years of age</u>, by sex

First follow-up (10-12 years)			
	Girls	Boys	
	(n = 251)	(n = 313)	
Weight misperception score, mean (SD)	-1.03 (0.78)	-1.02 (0.81)	
Concordance between perceived			
silhouette and desired silhouette, n (%)			
Same/Satisfied	97 (38.6)	124 (39.6)	
Desire to be thinner	138 (55.0)	149 (47.6)	
Desire to be heavier	16 (6.4)	40 (12.8)	
Second follow-up (15-17 years)			
	Girls	Boys	
	(n = 173)	(n = 204)	

Weight misperception score, mean (SD)	-0.53 (0.70)	-0.65 (0.65)	
Concordance between perceived			
silhouette and desired silhouette, n (%)			
Same/Satisfied	44 (25.6)	66 (32.4)	
Desire to be thinner	121 (70.3)	90 (44.1)	
Desire to be heavier	7 (4.1)	48 (23.5)	