

1 **Full Title:**

2 Fetal growth trajectories and measures of insulin resistance in young adults

3

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43

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45 The authors have nothing to disclose.

46

47 **ABSTRACT**

48

49 **Context**

50 Events during gestation significantly influence the risk of cardiometabolic diseases including
51 diabetes in the offspring during later life.

52

53 **Objective**

54 The study aimed to investigate relationships between serial ultrasound derived fetal growth
55 trajectories and markers of insulin resistance in young adults in the Raine Study, an Australian
56 pregnancy cohort.

57

58 **Research Design and Methods**

59 Linear mixed modeling examined the relationship between fetal growth trajectory groups,
60 constructed using serial ultrasound-based abdominal circumference (AC), femur length (FL)
61 and head circumference (HC) from 1333 mother-fetal pairs, and offspring Homeostatic Model
62 Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR), as a marker of diabetes risk, at 20 (n=414), 22
63 (n=385) and 27 (n=431) years. Analyses were adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, socio-economic
64 status, adult lifestyle factors and maternal factors during pregnancy.

65

66 **Results**

67 The study identified seven AC, five FL and five HC growth trajectory groups. Compared to
68 the average-stable (reference) group, a low-falling AC growth trajectory (26%, P=0.005) and
69 two low HC growth trajectories (20%, P=0.006 and 8%, P=0.021) associated with higher adult
70 HOMA-IR. Trajectories representing a high-stable FL and a rising HC associated with 12%

71 (P=0.002) and 9% (P=0.021) lower adult HOMA-IR respectively, compared to the reference
72 group.

73

74 **Conclusions**

75 Restricted fetal head and abdominal circumference from early pregnancy associate with higher
76 relative insulin resistance in the offspring during adulthood. These data strengthen our
77 understanding of the importance of the intrauterine environment and its effect on the risk of
78 predisposition to adult diabetes and related metabolic disorders.

79

80 **INTRODUCTION**

81 Diabetes has emerged as a serious, life threatening and disabling chronic disease with more
82 than 1 in 10 adults presently living with diabetes worldwide (1). In 2021, 536.6 million people,
83 accounting for approximately 10.5% of the world’s adult population, had either *type 1* or *type*
84 *2* diabetes which is projected to rise to 12.2% (783.2 million) in 2045 (1). An estimated 1.3
85 million Australians (4.9%) had diabetes in 2020 including 48,300 people newly diagnosed with
86 *type 2* diabetes mellitus (T2DM) in the year 2020 (2). T2DM associates with a 2-3 times higher
87 risk of premature death, compared to the general population (3,4). The rising prevalence over
88 the past two decades has led to growing concerns and prompted research into the
89 developmental and environmental factors that contribute to the onset and progression of T2DM
90 (5-8). Sedentary lifestyle, consumption of energy-dense foods and rise in overweight and
91 obesity associate with a greater risk of early onset T2DM (4,9).

92 There is considerable evidence that events during gestation may predispose to increased risk
93 of adult cardiometabolic diseases including diabetes (10-12). Birthweight has been extensively
94 studied as a surrogate marker of fetal growth; low birthweight closely associates with adult
95 diabetes (5-7,13). However, birthweight does not necessarily provide an accurate measure of
96 early fetal growth and development. In the Raine Study, an Australian longitudinal pregnancy
97 cohort, we have shown a disassociation between birthweight and growth trajectories *in utero*
98 (14). We have also reported significant associations between different intrauterine growth
99 trajectories and offspring adult blood pressure (14), body-mass index (BMI), waist-
100 circumference and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP)(15).

101 The present study extends our recent findings and investigates the relationships between fetal
102 growth trajectories and adult Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-
103 IR) as a marker of insulin resistance.

104

105

106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

107 The Raine Study enrolled 2900 pregnant women from 1989-91 in Perth, Western Australia.
108 The study aimed to investigate the effect of ultrasound imaging on pregnancy outcomes and
109 the role of early life events on subsequent childhood and adult health. Details on recruitment,
110 randomization and data collection in the original trial are published (16). In brief, the study
111 randomized pregnant women (Gen1) into two groups based on the number of ultrasounds
112 administered during gestation. While the intervention arm had five imaging examinations at
113 18, 24, 28, 34 and 38-weeks gestation, the control arm had a single ultrasound at 18-weeks
114 unless clinically required. Only participants from the intervention arm were selected for the
115 current analysis as a minimum of two ultrasound measurements were needed to develop growth
116 trajectories. Offspring (Gen2) (n=2868) have been prospectively followed up from birth to their
117 current age of 27-years. Demographic, lifestyle, clinical and biochemical information has been
118 collected at regular intervals through questionnaires and clinical assessments. The present
119 analysis uses Gen2 cohort information at 20, 22, and 27-years. Informed, written consent was
120 provided by the pregnant women during initial recruitment and the adult offspring at each
121 follow-up. The Human Research Ethics Committees at King Edward Memorial Hospital and
122 The University of Western Australia approved the study.

123

124 **Gen1 (pregnancy) Demographic and Lifestyle Measures**

125 Information on Gen1 maternal and paternal socio-demographic characteristics and ethnicity,
126 mother's marital status, family income, maternal smoking and alcohol drinking was obtained
127 by self-reported questionnaires at 16 and 34-weeks gestation. Annual family income during
128 pregnancy was used to assess family income, low being <\$24 000 (AUS) in 1989-91. Maternal
129 medical records provided pregnancy characteristics including maternal weight, height and
130 medical conditions. Gestational age was calculated from the date of the last menstrual period

131 and in case of discordancy, ultrasound estimation at 18-weeks. Maternal BMI was calculated
132 at 16-weeks and pregnancy weight gain was calculated between 16 and 34-weeks gestation.
133 Gestational weight gain during this period associates with *in utero* growth and birthweight.
134 Smoking and alcohol drinking during pregnancy were assessed at 16 and 34-weeks and
135 recorded as yes/no, yes being consumption at either or both time points. Self-reported
136 gestational diabetes was recorded 2-days after delivery. All live births at <37 completed weeks
137 were categorised as preterm. Standard blood pressure recordings during pregnancy obtained
138 by midwives were used to establish pregnancy HTN, characterised as Uncomplicated-HTN or
139 Complicated-HTN. History of HTN before pregnancy or HTN during pregnancy without
140 proteinuria or preterm delivery was defined as Uncomplicated-HTN. Complicated-HTN was
141 defined as HTN during pregnancy with proteinuria (>2+ on dipstix test) or 300mg on 24-hour
142 urinary protein excretion or preterm delivery (17). Systolic blood pressure (SBP) >140mmHg
143 and/or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) >90mmHg was classified as HTN during pregnancy
144 (18). Birth weight of the offspring was extracted from hospital records. Breast feeding was
145 coded as not breastfed, breastfed for <6-months or breastfed for \geq 6-months.

146

147 **Adult Offspring (Gen2) Measures**

148 Wedderburn Chair Scales (to the nearest 100g) were used to measure body weight with
149 participants dressed in light clothing. A Stadiometer (to the nearest 0.1cm) recorded height
150 while a measuring tape was used to measure waist circumference (to the nearest 0.1cm). A
151 halfway point between the lowest rib and the iliac crest was used to record waist circumference.
152 Socio-demographic and lifestyle data at 20, 22 and 27-years were obtained from computer-
153 based questionnaires. Smoking was coded as a binary variable (yes/no) with participants
154 categorised as smokers if they smoked a cigarette in the past 1-month. Total ethanol
155 consumption in g/week was obtained for alcohol intake, with 1-standard drink equivalent to

156 10g ethanol. Information included the amount and type of alcoholic beverage consumed daily
157 over the past 7-days. In females, current use of any hormonal contraceptive pill, injection,
158 implants or intrauterine device determined the status of hormonal contraceptives (yes/no).
159 Offspring were categorised as Caucasian if both parents were Caucasians. Socioeconomic
160 indexes for areas (SEIFA) scores were used as a continuous variable to quantify the socio-
161 economic status (SES) of Gen2 participants. Education was categorised as completing high
162 school (level-1), apprenticeship or vocational training (level-2), or university (level-3).
163 Metabolic equivalents (MET-minutes/week) were used to measure physical activity; one MET
164 defined as the amount of oxygen consumed during rest (3.5ml/kg/min). MET-minutes/week
165 were obtained using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ-short/long) as
166 per a standardized protocol (19). BMI was coded as a continuous variable (bodyweight in
167 kg/height in m²). Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/L) was assayed by standard spectrophotometer
168 (Abbott Diagnostics, Abbott Laboratories, USA). Serum insulin was measured by the
169 immunoassay technique (Abbott Diagnostics, Abbott Laboratories, USA). HOMA-IR was
170 calculated according to the formula: [fasting insulin (mIU/mL) x fasting glucose
171 (mmol/L)]/22.5. Waist-to-height ratio (WHtR) was calculated as waist circumference divided
172 by height (both in cm). Prediabetes was defined as fasting plasma glucose ≥ 5.6 and < 7 mmol/L
173 (20). T2DM was diagnosed on the basis of self-reporting or fasting plasma glucose ≥ 7 mmol/L.

174

175 **Antenatal data and fetal growth trajectories**

176 Serial ultrasound measurements of abdominal circumference (AC), femur length (FL) and head
177 circumference (HC) from 1333 mother-fetal pairs were used to develop fetal growth
178 trajectories as described in detail previously (14). Briefly, linear regression models predicted
179 standard deviation scores (SDS) for the three fetal anthropometric markers (AC, FL and HC),
180 adjusting for physiological factors influencing fetal growth (sex and ethnicity of the fetus,

181 maternal height and parity). Seven AC, five FL and five HC trajectory groups were identified
182 (Supplementary Figure-1) (new ref 21) by group-based trajectory modelling using a Stata plug-
183 in (14).

184

185 **Statistical Analysis**

186 **Fetal growth trajectories and Gen2 adult measures of insulin resistance and adiposity**

187 The relationship between fetal growth trajectory groups and adult HOMA-IR at 20, 22 and 27-
188 years, was examined using random coefficient mixed-effects linear regression. Bootstrapping
189 with 500 replications minimised outlier influence and generated robust estimates. Data for
190 trajectory groups and Gen2 adult lifestyle information were available for 414, 385 and 431
191 participants at 20, 22 and 27-years, respectively, representing 641 individuals who attended at
192 least one follow-up. (Figure-1). Statistical reasoning, scientific evidence and availability of
193 data were used to select the final set of confounders. Age at each follow-up, sex, ethnicity,
194 alcohol intake, smoking, adult SES, educational status and physical activity constituted the
195 adult covariates. Maternal covariates included family income during pregnancy, smoking,
196 alcohol drinking, weight gain, maternal BMI at 16-weeks, preterm pregnancy, gestational
197 diabetes mellitus (GDM), family history of diabetes, Uncomplicated-HTN, Complicated-HTN
198 and breastfeeding. Family history of diabetes in the participants was examined using two
199 variables: family history of diabetes in the grandparents of Gen2 (both maternal and paternal;
200 self-reported by Gen1 parents; n=164) and history of maternal diabetes in Gen1 before
201 pregnancy (self-reported by mothers; n=22). Log-transformation of HOMA-IR and insulin was
202 performed due to evidence of significant skewing. Use of the mixed modelling technique and
203 bootstrapping accounted for missingness of data at one or more timepoints and for non-
204 normality. Selection of the most parsimonious model was based on a P-value threshold, change
205 in model estimates and *a priori* knowledge of the risk factors. Mixed model results were

206 interpreted using a conservative approach based on both the global and local P-value for the
207 trajectory variable. SES, physical activity and gestational age (for birthweight analyses) were
208 normalized by z-score standardization techniques. Model-1 examined the outcome variable
209 (HOMA-IR) and trajectory groups adjusted for age, sex, female hormonal contraceptive use,
210 ethnicity, SES and adult lifestyle factors. Model-2 additionally adjusted for pregnancy
211 covariates including uncomplicated hypertension during pregnancy, maternal alcohol drinking,
212 and maternal BMI at 16-weeks. Both Model-1 and -2 were adjusted for either BMI or WHtR
213 (as a measure of adult adiposity) with results presented separately. BMI was centered at 25
214 kg/m² and a second order polynomial was used in some models. Sex-trajectory interaction was
215 also examined. The relationship between birthweight as a continuous variable and HOMA-IR
216 was examined using linear mixed modeling.

217 Results are presented as percentages, means with standard deviations or medians with upper
218 and lower quartiles. Stata v17.0 (Stata Corp., College Station, Texas, USA) was used for all
219 statistical analyses with 2-sided significance at p<0.05.

220

221 **RESULTS**

222 General characteristics of the Gen2 adults at 20, 22 and 27-years and their mothers (Gen1)
223 during pregnancy are shown in Table-1. Ninety percent of Gen2 adults were Caucasians. Males
224 had a higher BMI, waist circumference and WHtR compared to females at all three ages. The
225 highest proportion of central adiposity (identified by WHtR ≥ 0.5) was in females at 22-years
226 and in males at 27-years. Median HOMA-IR values tended to be higher in females compared
227 to males at 20 and 22-years. Alcohol was consumed by approximately 70-85% of participants
228 at the three ages. The frequency of smoking was approximately 16% at 20-years and 21-24%
229 at 27-years. Physical activity in both males and females was higher at 20-years than at 22 and
230 27-years. Female hormonal contraceptive use was 60% at 20-years and 49% at 27-years. Mean

231 birthweight of the participants was between 3.30-3.42 kg. The distribution of Gen2 with
232 prediabetes or diabetes was uniform across AC, FL and HC trajectory groups at 20, 22 and 27-
233 years (Supplementary Tables 1-3) (new ref 21). *Type 2* diabetes was diagnosed in one person
234 at 20-years and five each at 22- and 27-years.

235 In relation to maternal characteristics (Gen1), up to 6% reported preterm deliveries, 3.5%
236 gestational diabetes, 27.7% uncomplicated-HTN and 3.3% complicated-HTN (Table-1). Up to
237 25% of Gen1 mothers smoked and 60% consumed alcohol during pregnancy. About 32-38%
238 of Gen1 families had an annual income <\$24 000 (AUS) at the time of pregnancy.

239

240 **Growth trajectories and Gen2 HOMA-IR**

241 **(i) Relationship of AC trajectories with HOMA-IR**

242 Participants in Group-1 (low-falling) had 26% higher HOMA-IR ($\beta=1.26$, $P=0.005$), compared
243 with the reference group (Group-3), after adjusting for age, sex, hormonal contraceptive use,
244 ethnicity, SES, BMI and alcohol intake (Model-1: Table-2, Figure-2 and Supplementary Table-
245 4) (new ref 21). The association remained significant with further adjustment for maternal
246 covariates (Model-2: Table-2 and Supplementary Table-4) (new ref 21). Maternal alcohol
247 drinking in pregnancy (Model-2) was found to be independently associated with HOMA-IR
248 ($P=0.004$).

249 A sex-trajectory interaction was detected ($P=0.025$) and in sex-specific analysis, males in
250 Group-7 (high-rising) had 22% lower ($\beta= 0.78$, $P=0.008$) HOMA-IR (adjusted for age, BMI,
251 ethnicity and SES) while females in Group-1 (low-falling) had 56% higher ($\beta= 1.56$, $P<0.001$)
252 HOMA-IR (adjusted for age, contraceptive use, BMI, ethnicity and SES) (Model-1:
253 Supplementary Table-5) (new ref 21). These associations remained significant with additional
254 adjustment for maternal covariates (Model-2: Supplementary Table-5) (new ref 21).

255 Using WHtR to adjust for adult adiposity instead of BMI, Group-1 participants associated with
256 23% higher HOMA-IR (P=0.008) while Group-7 participants associated with 11% lower
257 HOMA-IR (P=0.040), compared to the reference group (Model-1: Table-2 and Model-1:
258 Supplementary Table-6) (new ref 21).

259

260 **(ii) Relationship of FL trajectories with HOMA-IR**

261 Compared with reference Group-4, participants in Group-5 (high-stable) associated with 12%
262 lower HOMA-IR ($\beta= 0.88$, P=0.002) (Model-1: Table-2, Figure-2 and Supplementary Table-
263 7) (new ref 21). This association persisted with adjustment for maternal covariates (Model-2:
264 Table-2 and Supplementary Table-7) (new ref 21) and showed maternal alcohol drinking was
265 independently associated with HOMA-IR (P=0.002). There was no sex-trajectory interaction
266 (P=0.812). Using WHtR instead of BMI produced similar β coefficients for Group-5
267 (Supplementary Table-8) (new ref 21).

268

269 **(iii) Relationship of HC trajectories with HOMA-IR**

270 Participants in Group-1 (low-stable) and Group-2 (average-falling) associated with 20% ($\beta=$
271 1.20, P=0.006) and 8% ($\beta= 1.08$, P=0.021) higher HOMA-IR respectively, compared to
272 reference Group-4 (average-stable) (Model-1: Table-2, Figure-2 and Supplementary Table-9)
273 (new ref 21). In the same model, participants in Group-3 (low-rising) associated with 9% ($\beta=$
274 0.91, P=0.021) lower HOMA-IR compared to the reference group. Adjustment for maternal
275 covariates (Model-2) resulted in similar coefficients, with maternal alcohol drinking
276 independently associated with HOMA-IR (P=0.002). There was no sex-trajectory interaction
277 (P=0.639).

278 Replacing BMI with WHtR for adiposity as a covariate resulted in similar coefficients for
279 Groups-1, -2 and -3 (Table-2 and Supplementary Table-10) (new ref 21). Additionally, with

280 WHtR as a covariate, Group-5 (high-stable) participants associated with 9% ($\beta= 0.91$, $P=0.042$)
281 lower HOMA-IR compared to the reference group (Model-1: Table 2 and Model-1:
282 Supplementary Table-10) (new ref 21).

283

284 In all analyses examining associations between AC, FL and HC trajectories and HOMA-IR,
285 family history of diabetes was not statistically significant in the final model and did not
286 significantly change the coefficients.

287

288 **Relationship of growth trajectories with Insulin and Glucose**

289 Associations between growth trajectories and insulin were similar to HOMA-IR
290 (Supplementary Table-11) (new ref 21). However, the two falling AC trajectory groups:
291 Group-1 (low-falling) and Group-6 (high-falling) had higher fasting glucose ($\beta= 0.10$, $P=0.014$
292 and $\beta= 0.09$, $P=0.047$ respectively), compared to the reference Group-3. No association was
293 found for FL and HC trajectories and glucose (Supplementary Table-11) (new ref 21).

294

295 **Relationship of birthweight and adult HOMA-IR and WHtR**

296 Birthweight (kg), adjusted for gestational age, was inversely associated with HOMA-IR ($\beta=$
297 0.86 , $P<0.001$), representing 14% lower HOMA-IR for every 1kg increase in birthweight, in
298 models adjusted for age, sex, female contraceptive use, ethnicity, SES, BMI and alcohol intake
299 (Model-1: Supplementary Table-12) (new ref 21). This association remained significant with
300 adjustment for maternal covariates (Model-2).

301

302 **DISCUSSION**

303 This study has shown significant relationships between *in utero* fetal growth trajectories from
304 early in pregnancy and measures of insulin resistance in the offspring during adulthood. In

305 particular, trajectories reflecting lower-than-average head and abdominal circumference,
306 representing restricted fetal growth, associated with higher adult HOMA-IR, while the
307 trajectory reflecting above-average and rising abdominal growth associated with lower
308 HOMA-IR. Similarly, above-average growth in femur length and head circumference, and
309 accelerated growth in head circumference, associated with lower HOMA-IR. The associations
310 were independent of maternal and adult lifestyle factors and showed some differences between
311 the sexes. For example, the relation between the restricted abdominal growth patterns and
312 HOMA-IR was substantially greater in females than males. The results complement our
313 previous findings of relationships between fetal growth patterns and markers of adult risk
314 factors for cardiometabolic diseases including blood pressure, BMI, waist circumference and
315 hs-CRP (14,15). The associations between HOMA-IR and growth trajectories in this study
316 were mainly driven by serum insulin. Use of waist-to-height ratio instead of BMI as a covariate
317 for the relationship between trajectories and HOMA-IR showed similar results although in
318 some instances, strengthened the coefficients, which highlight the value of WHtR as a measure
319 for assessing cardiometabolic risk (21,22).

320

321 Fetal growth is determined by many interactions including those between genetics,
322 environmental factors, placental nutrition, and oxygen, and is an identified risk factor for the
323 development of several diseases in adulthood including *type 2* diabetes (6,10,23,24). Poor
324 maternal nutrition during gestation and consequent placental insufficiency can cause lower-
325 than-average growth of fetal head circumference, reflecting diminished brain size and poor
326 development (25). The development of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis,
327 responsible for neuroendocrine regulation of insulin metabolism and immune responses, begins
328 in early fetal life. One could speculate that reduced head size and related *in utero* environmental
329 stressors during critical periods of growth can alter normal neuropeptide synthesis, thereby

330 disrupting proper functioning of the HPA axis and leading to a dysregulation of glucose-insulin
331 homeostasis (26). Abdominal circumference, on the other hand, approximates growth of fetal
332 liver and abdominal subcutaneous fat. Restricted fetal abdominal growth could cause reduced
333 beta cell mass with reduced secretory capacity in the pancreas, reduced glucose uptake and
334 increased gluconeogenesis in the liver, increased lipid oxidation in the muscles and decreased
335 insulin inhibition of lipolysis in the adipocytes, all cumulatively leading to glucose intolerance
336 (27). While these adaptive mechanisms help in fetal survival, many persist into postnatal life
337 and may increase the propensity of future abdominal obesity, insulin resistance and T2DM.
338 Preterm birth, exposure to antenatal corticosteroids in growth restricted fetuses and rapid catch-
339 up growth in infancy can also contribute to the risk of visceral adiposity and insulin resistance
340 in later life (28,29). The role of insulin in mediating normal growth in healthy individuals and
341 promoting adiposity during hyperinsulinemia through maintenance of the insulin-growth
342 hormone (GH)- insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) axis is well recognized (30). However, the
343 Raine Study does not have measures of insulin, GH or IGF-1 of the mothers during pregnancy
344 and GH or IGF-1 of the offspring during childhood, adolescence and adulthood.

345

346 Lifestyle maternal characteristics during pregnancy have been identified as determinants of the
347 long-term health of the offspring (31). As reported previously, mothers with a fetus in a
348 restricted growth trajectory in this study cohort were more likely to experience a preterm
349 delivery. Similarly, mothers of a fetus with restricted abdominal growth had a higher BMI at
350 16-weeks of gestation, while those with a fetus with restricted head growth were more likely
351 to smoke during pregnancy (14). Our findings reinforce the importance of public health
352 strategies targeting lifestyle interventions like maternal obesity and smoking to ameliorate the
353 future risk of diabetes in the offspring.

354

355 Fetal growth during pregnancy has largely been assessed using birthweight and less commonly
356 using ultrasound based *in utero* anthropometric growth markers (13). Systematic reviews and
357 meta-analyses have shown an inverse relationship between birthweight and measures of insulin
358 resistance and/or T2DM during adolescence and adulthood (32-35). In our analysis, HOMA-
359 IR in adulthood was 14% lower for every 1kg increase in birthweight, after adjusting for adult
360 lifestyle and maternal factors. As we have previously shown, birthweight may not provide an
361 accurate measure of different patterns of fetal development *in utero* (14). Use of growth
362 trajectories as a measure of fetal growth therefore provides a more complete picture of the
363 dynamics of the intrauterine environment which may be contributing to programming of adult
364 diseases (24,36).

365

366 Our analyses have also accounted for maternal factors influencing fetal growth such as
367 maternal drinking, maternal BMI, and hypertension in pregnancy, as well as family history of
368 diabetes. In particular, maternal alcohol drinking was found to be independently associated
369 with HOMA-IR. Several animal studies have reported strong evidence of linkage between
370 prenatal alcohol exposure and T2DM through alteration of insulin expression and insulin-like
371 growth factor signaling leading to metabolic dysregulation in the offspring (37,38). However,
372 establishing causality in humans is an ethical challenge and alcohol consumption during
373 pregnancy continues to be major health concern with an estimated global prevalence of about
374 10% (39). About 58% mothers in the Raine Study consumed alcohol in pregnancy, possibly
375 due to lack of awareness about the detrimental effects of fetal alcohol exposure during 1989-
376 91. The HAPO study on associations with maternal BMI showed that higher maternal BMI is
377 strongly associated with excess fetal growth and adiposity (40). We have previously shown
378 strong associations of maternal BMI with offspring adiposity (15) in the Raine cohort. In the
379 present study, although maternal BMI was significantly associated ($P < 0.001$) with offspring

380 HOMA-IR in the univariate analysis, no significant association was found in the final
381 multivariate analysis, most likely as the latter was adjusted for offspring adiposity.

382

383 In this study, we showed significant relationships between fetal growth patterns and HOMA-
384 IR, adjusting for either BMI or WHtR as a measure of adult central adiposity. Both BMI and
385 WHtR were found to be independent significant predictors of diabetes risk in adulthood. Jayedi
386 et al have recently shown significant associations between different anthropometry measures
387 and the risk of T2DM in the general population (41). An increase in WHtR by 0.01 units, BMI
388 by one unit and waist circumference by 1 cm associates with a 7.3%, 14.4% and 6.1%,
389 respectively, higher risk of T2DM (41). A meta-analysis by Ashwell et al provides robust
390 evidence from studies involving >300 000 adults from several ethnic groups, showing that
391 WHtR is a better measure than BMI and waist-circumference in predicting cardiometabolic
392 risk (22). WHtR has also been recognized as a more reliable measure to distinguish differences
393 in body fat distribution, thereby allowing more accurate interpretations of visceral adiposity
394 both in men and women (42). Use of WHtR in the present analysis strengthens our previous
395 findings that showed significant associations between trajectories and adult BMI and waist
396 circumference and builds strong evidence of association between early fetal growth and risk
397 factors for T2DM in adulthood.

398

399 Strengths of this study include the application of serial ultrasound measures to identify unique
400 fetal growth patterns and longitudinal analysis of adult measures across three ages from 20 to
401 27 years. The Raine Study cohort is a well characterized homogenous population, primarily
402 Caucasians of above-average socioeconomic status. The cohort is representative of the
403 contemporary Western Australian population both at the time of recruitment and at subsequent
404 follow-ups, even allowing for attrition (16,43,44). Information related to pregnancy, birth and

405 follow-up visits has been carefully documented through medical records and online databases,
406 eliminating any concerns for recall bias. Longitudinal analysis using mixed modeling made
407 efficient use of the available data and allowed us to examine relationships independent of a
408 number of adult and maternal factors. Study limitations include the relatively small sample for
409 some trajectories restricting the use of multiple comparisons to explore sex-trajectory
410 interactions and limiting our statistical ability to detect more subtle relationships in sub-group
411 analyses. Non-availability of sibling rank data was another limitation, but we did account for
412 mother's parity during trajectory modelling. Low rates of gestational diabetes in this cohort,
413 could be due to lack of routine testing in late pregnancy and lower rates of maternal obesity in
414 the 1990s. Allocation of hypertensive pregnancies was performed by mid-wives based on the
415 retrieval of medical records which could have led to an overestimation of the proportion of
416 pregnancies with Uncomplicated-HTN. Additionally, Gen1 mothers were recruited from King
417 Edward Memorial Hospital, Perth which historically associated with a higher proportion of
418 pregnancies with complications (38.6% compared to 30% in the contemporary Western
419 Australian obstetric population) (43). However, follow-up studies have shown that those who
420 attended subsequent follow-ups were more representative of the contemporary population.
421 Importantly, we adjusted for uncomplicated-HTN in our analysis. Whilst analyses accounted
422 for several antenatal, postnatal, current lifestyle and socioeconomic factors, we cannot exclude
423 the contribution of unmeasured residual confounding factors including a possible genetic
424 influence on the relationship between in utero growth trajectories and adult insulin sensitivity.
425 Lastly, assumptions about causality need a cautious approach due to the observational nature
426 of the study.

427 To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the relationship between fetal growth
428 trajectories based on serial ultrasound and markers of insulin resistance in adulthood using
429 novel modeling techniques. While the Raine Study cohort is relatively young with a low

430 incidence of diabetes, follow-up is ongoing and will provide more evidence as the cohort
431 matures. A global increase in the rates of obesity in the 30-year period since the Raine Study
432 was initiated is likely to further amplify the metabolic risk shown in our study. Together with
433 our previous results, these findings provide further insight to our understanding of early
434 gestational determinants of adult diabetes. Early identification of fetuses with future risk based
435 on ultrasound-based growth assessment could play an important role in long-term risk-
436 prevention of diabetes and related cardiometabolic diseases.

437

438

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456 Conceptualization: TAM, LJB; Funding acquisition: TAM, LJB; Study design: AY, TAM,
457 LJB, RCH; Data acquisition: TAM, AY; Formal analysis: AY; Data interpretation: AY, TAM,
458 LJB, RCH; Writing- original draft: AY; Writing- review & editing: AY, TAM, LJB, RCH,
459 JPN, SWW. All authors provided critical feedback and helped shape the research, analysis and
460 paper. All authors gave final approval for this version to be published.

461 TAM is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and
462 takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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Table-1: General characteristics of the participants (Gen2) at 20, 22 and 27 years and their mothers (Gen1) during pregnancy

Characteristics	Year 20 (n=414)		Year 22 (n=385)		Year27 (n=431)	
	Males n=204	Females n=210	Males n=198	Females n=187	Males n=215	Females n=216
Adult Participants (Gen2)						
Age (years) Mean (SD)	20.1 (0.5)	20.0 (0.5)	22.2 (0.6)	22.1 (0.6)	26.8 (0.4)	26.8 (0.4)
BMI (kg/m ²) Median (Q1, Q3)	23.4 (21.2,26.4)	23.0 (20.9,25.8)	24.1 (22.0,27.5)	23.8 (21.4,28.8)	24.7 (22.6,27.6)	23.7 (21.3,27.4)
Waist Circumference (cm) Median (Q1, Q3)	79.1 (75.0,86.9)	74.0 (68.0,81.8)	83.3 (77.0,91.2)	76.4 (70.5,90.3)	85.6 (79.8,94.3)	76.6 (70.8,85.8)
Waist-to-Height Ratio Median (Q1, Q3)	0.45 (0.42,0.49)	0.44 (0.41,0.49)	0.47 (0.43,0.51)	0.46 (0.42,0.54)	0.47 (0.44,0.52)	0.46 (0.42,0.52)
Waist Height Ratio \geq 0.5 (%)	22.5	21.9	29.3	37.4	32.1	31.0
HOMA-IR Median (Q1, Q3)	0.48 (0.44,1.05)	0.57 (0.43,1.32)	1.50 (1.13,2.08)	1.75 (1.24,2.45)	1.13 (0.80,1.61)	1.12 (0.80,1.58)
Insulin (mIU/ml) Median (Q1, Q3)	2.0 (2.0,4.4)	2.7 (2.0,5.8)	6.6 (5.0,9.0)	8.1 (6.0,11.2)	5.0 (4.0,7.0)	5.5 (4.0,8.0)
Glucose (mmol/L) Mean (SD)	5.0 (0.4)	4.9 (0.4)	5.1 (0.4)	4.9 (0.4)	4.9 (0.4)	4.7 (0.6)
Alcohol drinkers (%)	74.5	70.5	84.3	79.7	75.4	69.9
Alcohol intake (g/wk ethanol) Median (Q1, Q3)	80.0 (0.0,200.0)	50.0 (0.0,110.0)	105.3 (36.8,238.0)	46.5 (11.1,106.7)	82.8 (10.0,203.3)	43.6 (0.0,120.7)
Smoking (% smokers)	15.7	15.7	14.7	16.0	23.7	20.8
Physical Activity (METmin /week) Median (Q1, Q3)	7386.0 (3672.0, 12834.0)	10441.5 (3291.0, 17280.0)	3822.0 (1866.0, 7164.0)	2079.0 (810.0, 4678.0)	2697.0 (1200.0, 5112.0)	1972.5 (495.0, 3582.0)
Socio-economic status (SEIFA score) Median (Q1, Q3)	1080.9 (1008.3, 1118.4)	1069.7 (1006.8, 1116.5)	1081.1 (1004.8, 1119.6)	1066.5 (1004.7, 1111.8)	1076.0 (997.1, 1115.2)	1072.2 (1004.7, 1117.8)
Educational status (%)						
Category-1	76.5	73.8	52.3	51.7	26.1	24.5
Category-2	18.1	17.6	25.6	19.2	36.3	31.5
Category-3	5.4	8.6	22.1	29.1	37.7	44.0
#Contraceptive use in females (%)	-	60.0	-	59.4	-	49.1
Ethnicity (% Caucasians)	86.7	90.0	88.9	89.8	90.7	91.2
Breastfed >6 months (%)	58.6	56.6	59.5	56.8	59.1	53.1
Birthweight (g) Mean (SD)	3386.4 (517.9)	3304.9 (491.4)	3366.3 (544.6)	3303.2 (528.1)	3413.7 (575.9)	3337.6 (531.2)
Maternal (Gen1)						
BMI at 16-weeks (kg/m ²) Median (Q1, Q3)	22.8 (20.8,24.7)	23.1 (21.1,25.8)	22.7 (20.7,24.4)	23.4 (21.1,26.2)	22.9 (21.1,25.3)	23.4 (21.1,25.9)
Preterm delivery (%)	4.4	5.2	5.1	5.4	6.1	4.2
GDM (%)	2.5	1.4	3.5	1.6	3.3	0
Maternal smoking (%)	20.6	23.3	18.2	24.1	16.7	25.5
Alcohol drinkers (%)	60.8	56.7	58.6	54.6	58.6	57.9
Uncomplicated HTN (%)	27.7	20.0	24.9	20.9	26.2	19.4
Complicated HTN (%)	3.0	2.9	2.5	1.1	3.3	2.3
Low income (%)	31.7	34.6	36.9	34.3	38.4	34.0

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607 SD- Standard deviation, Q1- 1st quartile or 25th percentile, Q3- 3rd quartile or 75th percentile; BMI-body mass
608 index; HOMA-IR- Homeostatic Model Assessment of insulin resistance; hs-CRP- high sensitivity C-reactive
609 protein; SEIFA: Socio-economic indexes for areas; Educational status: Category-1 Those completing high
610 school, Category-2 Those with apprenticeship or vocational training, Category-3 Those in university
611 #Contraception refers to the female use of hormonal contraceptives; GDM- gestational diabetes mellitus; HTN-
612 hypertension; Uncomplicated-HTN: History of HTN before pregnancy or HTN during pregnancy without
613 proteinuria or preterm delivery. Complicated-HTN: HTN during pregnancy with proteinuria (>2+ on dipstix test)
614 or 300mg on 24-hour urinary protein excretion or preterm delivery. Low income- family income in 1989-1991,
615 low being annual income <\$24 000 (AUS).
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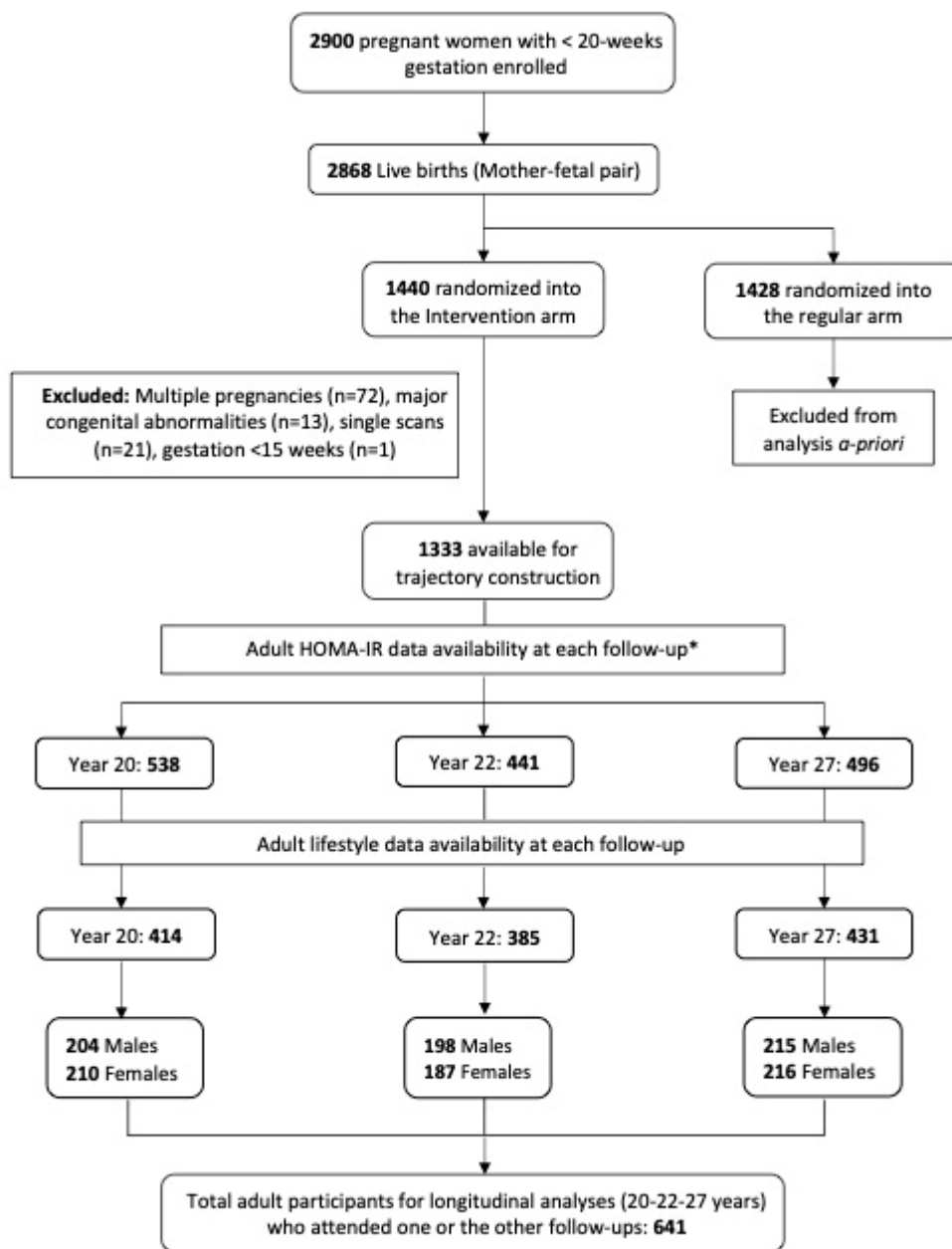
Table-2: Fetal growth trajectories and their association with HOMA-IR

Abdominal Circumference (AC)							
#Trajectories (Group membership)	Group1 Low-falling 4.9% (n=28)	Group2 Low-stable 13.0% (n=75)	Group4 Average-falling 21.2% (n=122)	Group5 Average-rising 13.0% (n=75)	Group6 High-falling 17.2% (n=99)	Group7 High-rising 5.6% (n=32)	Global P-value
HOMA-IR (using BMI) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	1.26**	1.01	1.03	0.96	1.06	0.88	0.011
Model 2	1.27**	1.01	1.03	0.96	1.07	0.90	0.014
HOMA-IR (using WHtR) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	1.23**	1.01	1.00	0.96	1.04	0.89*	0.010
Model 2	1.23**	1.01	1.00	0.96	1.05	0.91	0.015
Femur Length (FL)							
#Trajectories (Group membership)	Group1 Low-falling 5.6% (n=32)	Group2 Very low-rising 8.0% (n=46)	Group3 Low-stable 30.8% (n=177)	Group5 High-stable 12.7% (n=73)			Global P-value
HOMA-IR (using BMI) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	0.99	0.94	0.98	0.88**			0.026
Model 2	0.99	0.94	0.98	0.87**			0.019
HOMA-IR (using WHtR) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.87***			0.005
Model 2	0.99	0.96	0.99	0.87***			0.005
Head Circumference (HC)							
#Trajectories (Group membership)	Group1 Low-stable 7.8% (n=45)	Group2 Average-falling 30.1% (n=173)	Group3 Low-rising 8.2% (n=47)	Group5 High-stable 12.2% (n=70)			Global P-value
HOMA-IR (using BMI) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	1.20**	1.08*	0.91**	0.92			<0.001
Model 2	1.20**	1.08*	0.90*	0.92			<0.001
HOMA-IR (using WHtR) Exponentiated β coefficients							
Model 1	1.17*	1.07*	0.90*	0.91*			<0.001
Model 2	1.17*	1.08*	0.90*	0.92			<0.001

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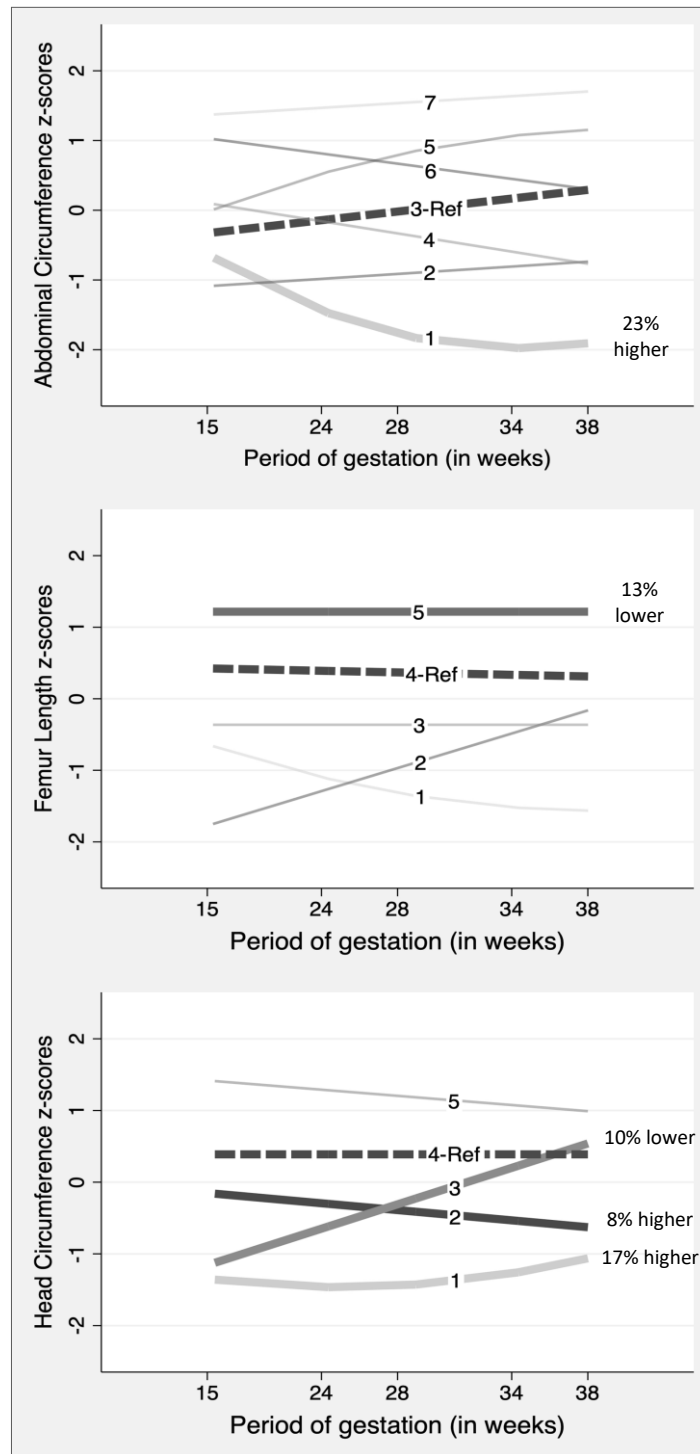
Linear mixed modelling results displayed; HOMA-IR- Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance. WHtR- Waist-to-height Ratio. Significant P-values: *<0.05, **<0.01, ***<0.001. #Trajectories based on 1333 participants; Reference group is Group-3 (Average-stable) with a membership of 25.0% (n=144) for abdominal circumference, Group-4 (Average-stable) with a membership of 43.0% (n=247) for femur length and Group-4 (Average-stable) with a membership of 41.7% (n=240) for head circumference. Sample size: Model 1 and 2: 1147 observations representing 575 participants who attended one or more follow up. Covariates: Model 1- age, sex, female contraceptive use, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, adult BMI & alcohol intake; Model 2- Model 1 plus maternal alcohol drinking.

Figure-1: Representation of the original cohort and subsequent follow ups



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Figure 2: Fetal growth trajectories highlighting the association with adult HOMA-IR



635 **Figure Legends**

636

637 **Figure-1:**

638 * HOMA-IR- Homeostatic Model Assessment of insulin resistance

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640 **Figure-2:**

641 Y-axis: Standard deviation scores or z-scores for abdominal circumference (AC), femur length (FL)
642 and head circumference (HC). X-axis: Gestational age in weeks.

643 Dashed lines (— —) represent the reference trajectory group while solid-bold lines (—) represent those
644 trajectory groups having a significant association with reference group. The percentages represent
645 change in HOMA-IR (Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance) values in the respective
646 trajectory groups, compared to the HOMA-IR value in the reference group.

647 Adapted from Yadav A, Beilin, LJ, Huang RC, Vlaskovsky P, Newnham J, White S, Mori TA. The
648 Relationship between Intrauterine Fetal Growth Trajectories and Blood Pressure in Young Adults.
649 Journal of Hypertension 2022; 40(3): 478-489. DOI:10.1097/HJH.0000000000003035 with permission
650 from Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.