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1 **This is the Author's Accepted Manuscript version of the article: Dalrymple et al.**
2 **(2024) Breastfeeding Behaviours in Women with Obesity; Associations with**
3 **Weight Retention and the Serum Metabolome: A Secondary Analysis of**
4 **UPBEAT. International Journal of Obesity. Accepted for publication 17th June**
5 **2024.**

6

7 **Title:** Breastfeeding Behaviours in Women with Obesity; Associations with Weight
8 Retention and the Serum Metabolome: A Secondary Analysis of UPBEAT.

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33 **Short running head:** Breastfeeding in women with obesity

34 **Abbreviations:** Body mass index (BMI), Postpartum weight retention (PPWR) UK
35 Pregnancy Better Eating and Activity Trial (UPBEAT), World Health Organisation
36 (WHO)

37 **Clinical trial registry:** ISRCTN reference 89971375

38 **Data Availability Statement:** The datasets generated during and analysed during the
39 current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request

40 pending application (via a research application form) and approval by the UPBEAT

41 Consortium.

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46

47 **Abstract**

48 **Background/Objectives:** Maternal obesity is associated
49 with a decreased intention and initiation of breastfeeding
50 as well as a shortened duration of breastfeeding. This
51 analysis was undertaken to identify breastfeeding
52 behaviours, and relationships with maternal
53 anthropometry and the serum metabolome at 6-months
54 postpartum in an ethnically diverse cohort of women with
55 obesity.

56 **Subjects/Methods:** A cohort analysis of 715 women from
57 the UK Pregnancies Better Eating and Activity Trial
58 (UPBEAT); a multi-centre randomised controlled trial of an
59 antenatal lifestyle intervention in women with obesity.
60 Maternal data were collected in early pregnancy and
61 included body mass index (BMI), socio-demographic
62 characteristics and anthropometry. At 6-months
63 postpartum, breastfeeding behaviours, anthropometry and
64 158 maternal metabolic measures from blood samples
65 were recorded. Kaplan-Meier curves of breastfeeding
66 duration were constructed and were stratified by obesity
67 class (I: BMI 30.0-34.9kg/m², II: 35.0-39.9kg/m², III:
68 ≥40.0kg/m²). Relationships between breastfeeding
69 behaviours, socio-demographic characteristics, the
70 metabolome, and anthropometry were determined using
71 regression analyses.

72 **Results:** 82% (591/715) of the cohort-initiated
73 breastfeeding and at the 6-month follow-up 40% (283/715)
74 were breastfeeding exclusively or partially. Duration of
75 exclusive breastfeeding decreased with increasing BMI:
76 Compared to BMI class I (mean 90.4±64 days) the
77 difference in mean for classes II and III were -15.8 days
78 (95% confidence interval: -28.5, -3.1, $p<0.05$) and -16.7
79 (95% CI: -32.0 to -1.35, $p<0.05$), respectively. Compared
80 to no breastfeeding, any breastfeeding at 6-months
81 postpartum was associated with improvements in
82 metabolites towards a healthier profile, reduced weight
83 retention by -1.81kg (95% CI -0.75, -2.88) and reduced
84 anthropometric measures, including mid-upper arm and
85 hip circumferences. The breastfeeding related changes in
86 anthropometry were not evident in women of Black
87 ethnicity.

88 **Conclusions:** Greater emphasis on enabling
89 breastfeeding for women with obesity could improve
90 duration, women's weight management and metabolic
91 health. The lack of breastfeeding related anthropometric
92 effects in Black women requires further investigation.

93

94 **Introduction:** The World Health Organization (WHO)
95 recommends exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6-months
96 of a child's life for optimum infant development and health¹.
97 Despite this advice, exclusive breastfeeding rates in the
98 UK at hospital discharge and 6-8 weeks postpartum
99 remain low at ~70%² and ~33%, respectively³. Some
100 reports have shown that maternal obesity
101 ($\text{BMI} \geq 30.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$) is associated with a lower prevalence of
102 breastfeeding compared with women of a healthy BMI
103 ($18.5\text{-}24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$)^{4,5}, with up to 13% lower rates of initiation
104 and 20% decreased likelihood of any breastfeeding by 6-
105 months postpartum^{4,6}, whereas others have reported no
106 differences between initiation of breastfeeding and
107 maternal BMI⁷. Despite wide cultural and international
108 variation, maternal obesity has been associated with
109 reduced breastfeeding rates, independent of country of
110 study⁸.

111 Barriers to breastfeeding in BMI heterogeneous women,
112 such as embarrassment, fear of pain and concerns about
113 insufficient milk are commonly reported^{9,10}. However, in
114 women with obesity a range of factors further impact on
115 breastfeeding initiation and duration, such as delayed
116 lactogenesis, low prolactin and poor body confidence
117 ^{6,8,11,12}. These additional barriers faced by women with
118 obesity are reflected in breastfeeding behaviours,

119 including lower initiation and duration.

120 The metabolome, a descriptor for the small-molecule
121 chemicals of body processes, responds to environmental
122 and genomic interactions, and is increasingly utilized as a
123 precision medicine tool with which to identify those at risk
124 of cardiometabolic and other diseases. Whilst the benefit
125 of breastfeeding on maternal weight and BMI is well
126 recognized, the impact of breastfeeding on maternal
127 metabolic health remains unclear¹³. Exploration of the
128 metabolome in breastfeeding women may provide further
129 insight into biological changes that occur during
130 lactogenesis.

131 Participants were from the UK Pregnancy Better Eating
132 and Activity Trial (UPBEAT), a multicentre randomized
133 controlled trial of an antenatal lifestyle intervention. As the
134 UPBEAT intervention did not affect breastfeeding initiation
135 or duration, this data was treated as a cohort. In a
136 secondary analysis, we have investigated breastfeeding
137 initiation after birth and behaviours (exclusivity, mixed or
138 no breastfeeding), anthropometry, postnatal weight
139 retention (PPWR) and the impact breastfeeding had on the
140 maternal metabolome in a population of women with
141 obesity up to 6-months postpartum¹⁴. As UPBEAT
142 participants were an ethnically diverse cohort, the

143 influences of ethnicity have also been explored.

144 **Materials/Subjects and Methods:** Between 2009-2014
145 UPBEAT recruited 1555 women (15⁺⁰-18⁺⁶ weeks'
146 gestation), with a BMI $\geq 30\text{kg/m}^2$ (median 35.1kg/m^2 (IQR
147 32.8, 38.5)) from UK inner city settings, including, London,
148 Glasgow, Newcastle, Sunderland, Bradford and
149 Manchester. Participants were randomized to standard
150 antenatal care or to a lifestyle intervention aimed at
151 reducing dietary glycaemic load and increasing physical
152 activity, superimposed on standard antenatal care. The
153 primary aim of UPBEAT was to reduce the incidence of
154 gestational diabetes (GDM) and large-for-gestational age
155 infants. Sociodemographic, pregnancy information,
156 anthropometric measurements and blood samples were
157 obtained at study entry and at two further time points
158 during pregnancy and at 6-months postpartum (2010-
159 2015)¹⁵. All participants provided written informed consent.
160 The NHS research ethics committee granted approval for
161 all participating centres (UK integrated research
162 application system, reference 09/H0802/5). Additional
163 approvals were obtained through local Research and
164 Development departments in each participating centre.
165 UPBEAT was also registered with the ISRCTN reference
166 88971375).

167 At birth, pregnancy outcomes and mode of feeding were
168 recorded. At 6-months postpartum, data on infant feeding

169 intention in pregnancy, breastfeeding initiation at birth and
170 duration were obtained. Additional data regarding infant
171 weaning practices and the rationale for feeding choices for
172 their infant were also recorded.

173 For the mother, weight was measured at the 6-month visit
174 and the following circumferences and skinfold thicknesses
175 were measured in triplicate and a mean obtained: neck,
176 mid-arm, waist, hip (cm) and wrist (mm) using a tape
177 measure. Skinfold thickness of triceps, biceps, suprailiac
178 and subscapular were measured using Harpenden
179 callipers and the sum of skinfolds was generated.

180 The primary maternal outcomes for this analysis were
181 breastfeeding behaviours. For this study, these were
182 defined as the percentage of all women who intended to
183 breastfeed, the percentage of women who initiated
184 breastfeeding (baby put to the breast on at least one
185 occasion), the average duration of exclusive breastfeeding
186 (infant received only breast milk, directly or expressed, and
187 no other liquids or solids) and the percentage of any
188 breastfeeding at 6-months postpartum.

189 Secondary maternal outcomes included the relationship
190 between breastfeeding behaviours and obesity class
191 (WHO obesity class I [BMI 30.0-34.9kg/m²], II [BMI 35.0-
192 39.9kg/m²], III [\geq 40.0 kg/m²]), ethnicity, mode of birth,

193 diagnosis of gestational diabetes and infant birthweight
194 ≥ 4 kg. Maternal postnatal weight retention and
195 anthropometry in relation to breastfeeding initiation and
196 duration were also explored.

197 **Maternal Metabolome:** A total of 158 metabolites were
198 evaluated using serum blood samples from 6-months
199 postpartum. Targeted to multiple pathways relevant to
200 obesity and insulin resistance, we used a high throughput
201 NMR metabolomic platform (Nightingale Health Ltd,
202 Finland). This platform accurately quantifies numerous
203 lipid measures; lipoprotein particles include very low
204 density (VLDL) subdivided into 6 subclasses (extremely
205 large, very large, large, medium, small, very small),
206 (Intermediate) IDL, (low) LDL subdivided into 3 subclasses
207 (large, medium, small), and high (HDL) subdivided into 4
208 subclasses (very large, large, medium, small). The
209 platform also elucidates the constituents within each
210 lipoprotein particle type (triglyceride, total cholesterol, free
211 cholesterol and cholesterol ester levels, and phospholipid
212 concentrations). Fatty acids, amino acids, glycolysis
213 related metabolites, ketone bodies and inflammatory
214 markers are also measured.

215 **Statistical analyses:** Missing data mechanism was
216 assumed missing at random therefore a complete case

217 analysis was used. All UPBEAT women who provided
218 infant feeding data at the 6-month postpartum visit were
219 included in the analysis. Chi-square and t-tests were used
220 to investigate associations between breastfeeding
221 behaviours and maternal variables. Descriptive statistics
222 were used to identify the maternal rationales for choice of
223 infant feeding, with percentages calculated for the
224 proportion of women opting for each given reason when
225 asked by the midwives during the follow up visits. Interval
226 regression analysis with right sided censoring as not all
227 mothers had stopped breastfeeding at the time of follow up
228 was used to assess the duration of breastfeeding between
229 obesity classes. Regression analyses were used to assess
230 the difference between maternal variables for those who
231 did and did not initiate breastfeeding.

232 For the serum metabolome, multivariable linear regression
233 was applied for each metabolite with breastfeeding as the
234 primary independent variable of interest, adjusted for the
235 following confounders: age, BMI, parity, and intervention
236 arm. The models for all women (n=485) were also adjusted
237 for ethnicity. All analytes were checked for normality and
238 transformations were made as appropriate; analytes were
239 then scaled and centred¹⁶. Results were presented as
240 standard deviation (SD) differences between groups to
241 allow for comparisons across multiple measured units. We

242 present analysis for the entire cohort and, for comparison,
243 for samples from women randomised to the control arm
244 only. Metabolome analyses were also analysed by
245 ethnicity for Black and White women. Women were
246 excluded from the anthropometric and metabolomic
247 analysis if they were pregnant at the 6-month follow-up
248 visit. Statistical analyses were conducted using Stata
249 (version 18) and Rstudio version 3.5.2. *P* values ≤ 0.05
250 were considered statistically significant.

251

252 **Results:**

253 Participants: Data were available for 715/1555 (46.0%)
254 UPBEAT participants who attended the 6-month
255 postpartum follow-up visit. Of the 840 non-participants, 1
256 participant was excluded after randomisation, 19
257 pregnancies were affected by a major health problem,
258 miscarriage or sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS); 100
259 declined participation; 701 either did not respond or were
260 unable to participate as they had either, returned to full-
261 time employment, living overseas or the child was not the
262 primary responsibility of the woman. 5 women had no
263 infant feeding data recorded at the 6-month follow-up. Of
264 those attending the 6-month postpartum visit with their
265 child 354, 225 and 136 women were classified as BMI

266 obesity classes I, II and III respectively at baseline (15⁺⁰ to
267 18⁺⁶ weeks gestation) (for study flow diagram see **Figure**
268 **1**).

269 Compared to those women who did not return for the 6-
270 month visit, the women who attended the 6-month follow-
271 up were more likely to be of White ethnicity and less likely
272 to be of Black or Asian ethnicity. Women were more likely
273 to be nulliparous at study entry, less likely to be a smoker,
274 more likely to have had GDM in pregnancy and more likely
275 to have had an in-labour caesarean or an operative vaginal
276 birth (**Table 1**).

277 Effect of Intervention

278 There was no significant difference in breastfeeding
279 intention, initiation or exclusive or partial breastfeeding at
280 6-months by UPBEAT group allocation (**Supplementary**
281 **Table 1**). Therefore, data for intervention and control arms
282 of the trial were combined and the participants treated as
283 a cohort.

284 Breastfeeding behaviours

285 **Table 2** summarises breastfeeding intention and practices
286 by maternal BMI class at trial entry for those who
287 completed the 6-month follow up visit. Overall, 76.3% of
288 women stated antenatally that they intended to breastfeed,

289 and 82.7% put their baby to the breast on at least one
290 occasion. For those women who initiated breastfeeding,
291 the percentage of any breastfeeding at 6-months
292 postpartum decreased in BMI class III compared to
293 classes I and II (class I, 51.7%, II, 48.2% & III 30.7%,
294 $p < 0.05$). The percentage of those using formula milk at the
295 6-month follow-up increased with BMI class, 75.0%, 80.0%
296 and 84.0%, respectively.

297 **Figure 2** shows a Kaplan-Meier survival curve for
298 breastfeeding duration according to BMI category. Interval
299 regression analysis showed duration of exclusive
300 breastfeeding in women with class I obesity was 90.4 days
301 compared to 74.6 days and 73.7 days in those with class
302 II and class III obesity, respectively; mean differences
303 were: class II -15.8 (95% confidence interval (CI) -28.5 to
304 -3.1), $p < 0.01$) and class III -16.7 (95% CI -32.0 to -1.35),
305 $p < 0.05$), compared to class I (**Table 2**). More women with
306 obesity class I compared with class II and III were more
307 likely offering breastfeeding in combination with solids and
308 other fluids (e.g., water) at 6-months postpartum (24.8%,
309 21.6% and 14.8%) (**Table 2**). 92% of the cohort had
310 introduced solids by the 6-month follow-up.

311 Breastfeeding behaviours demonstrated associations with
312 educational attainment; a higher education attainment was

313 associated with a likelihood of partial or exclusive
314 breastfeed at 6-months postpartum. Maternal age
315 ≥ 30 years and cohabitation were associated with a higher
316 percentage of breastfeeding initiation and duration
317 (**Supplementary Table 2**). Whereas being of White
318 ethnicity and smoking were associated with lower rates of
319 breastfeeding initiation and duration.

320 Table 3 presents the birth outcomes stratified by BMI
321 class. There was no statistical difference in the relationship
322 between initiation of breastfeeding and maternal obesity
323 category (**Table 3**). There were no differences between
324 mode of birth or infant birthweight ≥ 4 kg when stratified by
325 maternal BMI. Diagnosis of GDM was significantly more
326 common in BMI classes II and III, compared to class I
327 (**Table 3**).

328 Weight and Anthropometric measures.

329 Supplementary table 3 summarises the data stratified by
330 any vs no breastfeeding, at 6-months postpartum. Women
331 who were offering any breast milk at 6-months (n=283)
332 weighed 1.12kg less than their pre-pregnancy weight.
333 Whereas women who were not breastfeeding at 6-months
334 demonstrated weight retention of 0.70kg (mean difference
335 of 1.81kg (95% CI 0.75, 2.88) $p < 0.01$). Changes from
336 baseline to 6-months in neck, midarm, wrist and hip

337 circumferences were also significantly lower in women
338 who were fully or partially breastfeeding at 6-months
339 compared to those women who were not breastfeeding.
340 There were no statistically significant associations
341 between maternal skinfold thicknesses and breastfeeding
342 behaviours (**Supplementary Table 3**).

343 Subgroup analysis between women of Black and White
344 ethnicity showed that changes in weight retention and
345 circumferences associated with breastfeeding apparent in
346 the White women were not evident in women of Black
347 African or Black Afro-Caribbean ethnicity (**Supplementary**
348 **Table 4**). Black women who were breastfeeding at the 6-
349 month follow-up had an average postpartum weight
350 retention of 3.35kg (95% CI 1.39, 5.30) compared to White
351 women. Similar observations were apparent in mid-upper
352 arm [0.93 (0.36, 1.51)] and hip circumferences [3.59 (2.00,
353 5.19)]. However, women of Black ethnicity were more likely
354 to initiate breastfeeding (95% vs 78%) and be
355 breastfeeding at the 6-month follow-up (62% vs 32%)
356 compared to women of White ethnicity (**Supplementary**
357 **Table 2**).

358 Metabolome

359 There were no significant differences in the metabolome at
360 6 months postpartum between women randomised to the

361 control and intervention arms following adjustment for age,
362 ethnicity and parity, and the data were therefore treated as
363 a cohort. Exclusive or partial breastfeeding vs no
364 breastfeeding at 6-months postpartum was associated
365 with marked changes in the NMR metabolome (**Figures 3**
366 **& 4**). Breastfeeding was associated with a reduction in
367 some metabolites and an increase in others. A marked
368 reduction in total triglycerides was observed (**Figure 4b**),
369 reflecting a reduction within multiple subclasses of VLDL,
370 LDL and HDL lipoprotein particles, and within the IDL
371 lipoprotein subclass (**Figure 3b**). VLDL particle 13-1 was
372 smaller (**Figure 4b**), and there were lower total lipids in
373 VLDL (Very large, large, medium, small and very small)
374 subclasses which was attributable to lower VLDL
375 triglycerides, cholesterol, and phospholipids (**Figures 3a &**
376 **b**). HDL particle size was higher and there were higher
377 total lipids in HDL (very large and large) subclasses
378 (**Figure 4b**) which was attributable to greater total
379 cholesterol and phospholipid content (**Figures 3a**).
380 Apolipoprotein A-1 concentration was higher and
381 Apolipoprotein B and the ApoA/ApoB ratio were lower
382 (**Figure 4b**). When expressed as proportions of total fatty
383 acids, polyunsaturated fatty acids were increased (linoleic,
384 omega-6 and PUFA), there was a decrease in mono-
385 unsaturated fatty acids (**Figure 4a**). In addition,

386 glycoprotein acetyls, an inflammatory marker, was
387 reduced, whereas acetate and the amino acids alanine
388 and glycine were increased (**Figure 4a**) in the
389 breastfeeding group compared to those who did not
390 breastfeed.

391 When considered according to ethnic group, a similar
392 metabolic profile to the whole group was observed in the
393 White women who were breastfeeding at 6-months
394 postpartum (**Supplementary Figures 1 & 2**). However,
395 although numbers were smaller there were a number of
396 notable differences seen in the metabolome of Black
397 breastfeeding mothers compared to White mothers; IDL
398 and LDL particle size, concentration and content, were
399 little impacted by breastfeeding in White women (apart
400 from triglyceride content), there was a tendency for these
401 to be lower in breastfeeding women of Black ethnicity,
402 likely as a result of lower phospholipid and total cholesterol
403 content in these particles (**Supplementary Figures 1a &**
404 **1b**). Reductions in total fatty acids including
405 polyunsaturated, monounsaturated and saturated fatty
406 acids appeared more marked in women of Black ethnicity
407 who breastfed (**Supplementary Figure 2a**).
408 **Supplementary Figures 3 & 4** demonstrate that the
409 metabolic profile comparing breastfeeding and non-
410 breastfeeding women in the control arm only (n=253), was

411 similar to that in the entire cohort (n=485).

412 Reasons for maternal choices regarding infant feeding

413 Of the 124 women who did not initiate breastfeeding, 64%
414 reported “never planned to”, 13% gave reasons including
415 “difficulty in establishing lactation”, “feeding issues with a
416 previous child” and “inverted nipples”. A further 5%
417 reported being “advised not to breastfeed”. Of those who
418 initiated breastfeeding but stopped before their child was
419 6-months old, the most common reason was “perceived
420 inadequate milk supply” (23%); others were “discomfort”
421 (7%) and “convenience” (5%). Thirty nine percent of
422 women reported “other” reasons for cessation including:
423 infant tongue tie, difficulty in ‘latching on’, needing to return
424 to work and partner/family members wanting to feed the
425 baby. Of the 290 women who maintained some
426 breastfeeding at 6-months, the most cited reasons for
427 continuing were that breast milk is the “best nutrition for
428 baby” (74%), “convenience” (55%), “enjoyment” (47%),
429 “cheaper” (37%) and “maternal weight loss” (22%).

430 Discussion:

431 This study reports original observations on breastfeeding
432 behaviours and the metabolome in an ethnically diverse
433 cohort of women with obesity. The findings also strengthen
434 the case for additional support and strategies to enable
435 women with obesity to breastfeed for a longer duration. We
436 have described the relationship between severity of
437 obesity and breastfeeding and found that women with a
438 higher BMI had a shorter exclusive breastfeeding duration
439 of 17 days compared with women from a lower obesity
440 class. We have also described the previously recognised
441 relationships between breastfeeding and reduction of
442 postpartum weight and measures of anthropometry,
443 although these positive changes in anthropometry were
444 not observed amongst women of Black ethnicity, despite
445 Black women being more likely to initiate and continue to
446 breastfeed until 6-months postpartum, compared to other
447 ethnic groups.

448 Breastfeeding duration has previously been identified as
449 an important determinant of maternal weight loss
450 postpartum^{17,18}, with previous reports documenting the
451 largest reduction in weight amongst women of
452 heterogeneous BMI breastfeeding at 6-months and
453 beyond^{17,19}. Compared to no breastfeeding, we have

454 reported a -1.8kg difference in those women who were
455 giving any breastfeeding at 6months postpartum. Although
456 modest, our study confirms that breastfeeding duration is
457 equally relevant to weight loss in women with obesity; and
458 indeed, to reduce adiposity, providing further evidence for
459 healthcare professionals to support women with obesity to
460 breastfeed, and to encourage longer durations of
461 breastfeeding to aid postpartum weight loss. An ongoing
462 randomized controlled trial in Columbia is investigating the
463 impact of breastfeeding counselling on breastfeeding
464 prevalence and postpartum weight loss in women with a
465 BMI>24.9kg/m²,which may contribute to an evidence
466 based intervention for encouraging women with a higher
467 BMI to breastfeed²⁰.

468 In contrast to the present study, a study from the USA with
469 smaller sample size (n=37) reported that postnatal weight
470 retention in women with obesity was associated with
471 increased energy intake, independent of breastfeeding,
472 eating behaviours and metabolic biomarkers ²¹. The
473 authors investigated body composition, diet and activity
474 from early pregnancy until 12 months postpartum and
475 stratified results by PPWR vs postpartum weight loss.
476 Duration of breastfeeding was similar in both groups (30±5
477 vs 29±6 weeks), indicating that higher energy intake could

478 override the role of breastfeeding in postpartum weight
479 loss.

480 We found that intention to, and initiation of, breastfeeding
481 in the study cohort of women with obesity was higher than
482 reported in a general UK population^{2,3}. Contributory factors
483 may include participation in a clinical trial, or changes in
484 local midwifery and health visitor practice to support
485 breastfeeding in line with the UK Baby Friendly Initiative²².
486 The follow up rate of 46% of the original trial participants
487 could also reflect selection bias, with findings less
488 generalisable to the whole study cohort, although those
489 choosing not to take part at 6-months postpartum had
490 similar characteristics at baseline to the participants
491 included in this analysis.

492 We found that increasing BMI class was associated with
493 decreased duration of breastfeeding. A retrospective
494 cohort study of women from the USA reported a similar
495 relationship, although with different BMI classification;
496 18.5-24.9kg/m²; 30.0-39.9kg/m²; 40.0-49.9kg/m²;
497 ≥50.0kg/m² ²³. The authors found that overall
498 breastfeeding rates were low (32%) with no data on
499 continued breastfeeding beyond hospital discharge, a
500 strength of the present study.

501 Previously reported reasons for decreased duration of
502 breast feeding in women with obesity have included
503 reduced maternal confidence to breastfeed associated
504 with larger breasts^{8,11} and delayed lactogenesis II²⁴. Once
505 initiated, milk supply may be impacted by hormonal
506 imbalance^{8,25} or through consequences of the mother's
507 perceived body image¹².

508 We report here reasons given by the study participants for
509 non-initiation and shorter duration of breastfeeding. These
510 indicated that family and healthcare staff support are
511 important in facilitating breastfeeding in women with
512 obesity. To achieve this would require relevant healthcare
513 staff in acute and primary care settings to acquire
514 appropriate competencies and skills, with inherent cost
515 implications. Insufficient regulations of the marketing of
516 breastmilk substitute as well as food insecurity also
517 undermine breastfeeding prevalence^{26,27}. Also, more
518 research is required to explore women's perceptions of
519 inadequate milk supply and to identify why some of the
520 participants, and indeed the wider population of women,
521 do not consider breastfeeding.

522 A 2017 narrative review suggested that interventions
523 aimed at breastfeeding women will not be successful
524 unless there is protection, promotion, and support at a

525 population health level, along with increased investment in
526 health services to support women to breastfeed²⁸.
527 Furthermore, open responses from the participants
528 indicated that at 6-months postpartum many had returned
529 to paid employment, or were imminently planning to, a
530 common reason for early weaning and cessation of
531 breastfeeding. Comments from women on reasons for not
532 initiating breastfeeding, or for stopping early, highlighted
533 several areas for further research to better comprehend
534 the complexity surrounding maternal breastfeeding
535 behaviours.

536 Our study was also supported by a biological 'read out' of
537 metabolic health through the NMR metabolome at 6-
538 months postpartum, until which time the WHO recommend
539 exclusive breastfeeding. To our knowledge changes in the
540 metabolome in women with obesity continuing to
541 breastfeed at 6-months postpartum, either partially or
542 exclusively, have not previously been reported and may
543 provide insight into the mechanisms of weight loss
544 associated with breastfeeding^{19,29}. This could contribute to
545 the protective effect of breastfeeding against progression
546 to diabetes after gestational diabetes^{30,31}. There were
547 numerous indications of metabolic health, when compared
548 with non-breast feeding women, including a reduction in
549 atherogenic VLDL particles and triglycerides across

550 lipoprotein particles, and an increase in anti-atherogenic
551 larger HDL particles, including constituent HDL cholesterol
552 and phospholipids. In addition, continuation of
553 breastfeeding was associated with higher polyunsaturated
554 fatty acids and lower mono-unsaturated fatty acids. The
555 majority of fats in breastmilk comprise triglycerides,
556 synthesised in the mammary glands of the breast from de-
557 novo lipogenesis of breast fat^{32,33} and intact triglycerides
558 are not directly transported from the circulation into breast
559 milk³⁴. The fall in maternal plasma triglycerides observed
560 in association with breastfeeding likely reflects increased
561 mobilisation of maternal fat stores and enhanced
562 metabolism to fatty acids that would contribute to
563 generation of energy to meet the demands of
564 breastfeeding. Mechanistically, it has been proposed that
565 the stimulation of prolactin during lactation would lead to a
566 fall in maternal oestrogens which, in turn, would stimulate
567 lipolysis¹⁸. An increase in the proteogenic amino acid
568 glycine could be advantageous to maternal health. Our
569 findings are consistent with a targeted mass spectrometry
570 metabolome undertaken 6–8 weeks postpartum in a cohort
571 of normoglycaemic individuals but with previous GDM,
572 where lactation intensity was associated with lower
573 triglycerides (and diglycerides) and higher phospholipids³⁵;
574 indeed they suggest that downregulation of

575 triglycerides/diglyceride lipogenesis during lactation is
576 directly associated with formation of phospho- and
577 sphingolipids through the CEPT1 gene. In addition, the
578 'healthy' metabolic profile seen here mirrors that seen
579 during pregnancy in individuals with obesity who were
580 normoglycaemic compared to those who had GDM³⁶ and
581 may reflect a comparatively insulin-sensitive state in those
582 who are breastfeeding. As we had previously reported a
583 beneficial effect of the intervention on the maternal
584 metabolic profile between 16 and 36 weeks of gestation³⁷,
585 to exclude any residual effect of the intervention
586 postpartum we also analysed the metabolome in women
587 in the control arm, which demonstrated similar differences
588 in the profile between the breastfeeding and non-
589 breastfeeding mothers as that of the metabolome from the
590 whole cohort.

591 The lack of effect of breastfeeding on weight and
592 measures of adiposity in women of Black African or Black
593 Afro-Caribbean ethnicity compared with women of White
594 ethnicity is a novel observation. There may be fundamental
595 differences of genetic origin in fat metabolism, or
596 differences in postpartum physical activity, and diet. We
597 have previously reported³⁸ the longitudinal dietary
598 trajectories in the UPBEAT women across pregnancy and
599 up to 3-years postpartum. Amongst the women who had a

600 high adherence to an African/Caribbean dietary pattern,
601 we observed a dietary rebound for those women who
602 followed a high adherence to the African/Caribbean
603 trajectory at 6-months postpartum. This may reflect food
604 insecurity, sociocultural drivers of diet such as social
605 support or family food preferences and may contribute to
606 the null findings for postpartum weight loss for women of
607 Black ethnicity. Differences in the metabolome observed
608 between White and Black women who breastfeed are
609 novel. These may be driven by a modification in their
610 diets³⁸, or implicated by the lower sample of Black women
611 in the study; these findings need to be evaluated in a larger
612 cohort.

613 **Strengths and Limitations:** Strengths of the study
614 include the rich UPBEAT dataset which provided
615 comprehensive information on breastfeeding and
616 anthropometry outcomes at 6-months postpartum in an
617 ethnically diverse cohort. To our knowledge, this study is
618 the first to report metabolomic changes associated with
619 breastfeeding in a cohort of women with obesity. The main
620 limitation is the observational study design, which is
621 subject to residual confounding and potential
622 overestimation of reported effects³⁹. Although the
623 breastfeeding outcomes are reported in detail, these
624 outcomes are self-reported by the mother which may be

625 subject to recall bias⁴⁰. Furthermore, while the findings are
626 generalisable amongst women with obesity, they may not
627 be directly generalisable to the general population of
628 women with a heterogeneous BMI.

629 **Conclusion:** Given the prevalence of obesity in women of
630 reproductive age, strategies to support and enable women
631 with a BMI $\geq 30.0\text{kg/m}^2$ to initiate and continue to
632 breastfeed are required to improve long-term maternal
633 health outcomes. This study supports strategies to
634 encourage, support and enable all women to continue
635 breastfeeding for at least 6 months, according to the WHO
636 recommendation, and to overcome barriers associated
637 with breastfeeding. The initiation and duration of
638 breastfeeding requires collective societal approaches,
639 including support from family members, healthcare
640 professionals, as well as government action to enable and
641 support breastfeeding, such as the development of
642 actionable policies which promote breastfeeding and
643 reduce the misleading advertising and marketing of
644 breastmilk substitutes⁴¹. Further exploration into the null
645 findings for postpartum weight loss in women of Black
646 ethnicity are required.

647

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654 **Conflict of Interest:** None

655 **Authors' Contribution:** AB, CS, PT and LP designed
656 research; AB, CS, AF conducted research, KD and FT
657 analysed data, KD, AB and LP, wrote the paper. SW
658 provided metabolomic expertise. KD had primary
659 responsibility for the final content.

660 **Details of Ethics Approval:** The NHS research ethics
661 committee granted approval for all participating centres
662 (UK integrated research application system, reference
663 09/H0802/5). Additional approvals were obtained through
664 local Research and Development departments in each
665 participating centre. UPBEAT was also registered with the
666 ISRCTN reference 88971375).

667

668 **Data availability statement:** The data that support the
669 findings of this study are available from the corresponding

670 author, upon reasonable request and approval by the
671 UPBEAT consortium.

672

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Figure legend

Figure 1: Summary diagram of recruitment process by maternal BMI at trial entry

Figure 2: Kaplan-Meier survival curve for duration of exclusive breastfeeding from birth until cessation in women in each obesity class

Figures 3a & 3b: Standard deviation difference in lipoprotein particle concentration and subclass constituents between breastfeeding and non-breastfeeding UPBEAT women at 6 months postpartum (n=485). The right-hand side of the x-axis represents positive associations with breastfeeding (fully or mixed) at 6 months, compared to non-breastfeeding women, and negative associations to the left-hand side.

Figures 4a and 4b: Standard deviation differences for (a) fatty acids, amino acids, glycaemic and other markers and (b) lipoprotein particle groups between breastfeeding and non-breastfeeding UPBEAT women at 6 months postpartum (n=485). The right-hand side of the x-axis represents positive associations with breastfeeding (fully or mixed) at 6 months, compared to non-breastfeeding women, and negative associations to the left-hand side.

Table 1: Demography of women included in analysis of breastfeeding behaviour compared to UPBEAT women who did not attend 6 months postnatal follow up visit

	Included in analysis n= 715	Not included in analysis n=839	Comparison
	Mean (SD)/N (%)		beta- coefficient/Risk ratio/Odds ratio (95% CI)
Age (years)	31.2 (5.31)	29.9 (5.60)	1.32 (0.78 to 1.87)
BMI (kg/m ²)	36.3 (4.90)	36.3 (4.66)	0.04 (-0.43 to 0.52)
Ethnic origin			
White	506 (71%)	467 (56%)	ref
Black	141 (20%)	260 (31%)	0.50 (0.39 to 0.63) ***
Asian	5 (3%)	70 (8%)	0.33 (0.20 to 0.53) ***
Other	43 (6%)	42 (5%)	0.94 (0.61 to 1.47)
Nulliparous	363 (51%)	311 (37%)	1.75 (1.43 to 2.14) ***
Current smoker	27 (4%)	81 (10%)	0.37 (0.23 to 0.57) ***
Index of multiple deprivation			
1 (least deprived)	35 (5%)	30 (4%)	1.51 (0.91 to 2.51)
2	49 (7%)	54 (6%)	1.17 (0.77 to 1.78)
3	76 (11%)	101 (12%)	0.97 (0.60 to 1.36)
4	261 (37%)	272 (33%)	1.24 (0.98 to 1.56)
5 (most deprived)	292 (41%)	378 (45%)	ref
Pregnancy outcomes			
Diagnosis of GDM ¹	197/699 (28%)	141/606 (23%)	1.29 (1.00 to 1.66) *
Gestation at birth ≤ 37 weeks	32/715 (4.5%)	67/805 (8.3%)	0.52 (0.33 to 0.79)
Unassisted vaginal birth	345/715 (48%)	453/805 (56%)	ref
Operative vaginal birth	93/715 (13%)	85/805 (10%)	1.43 (1.04 to 1.99) *
Prelabour Caesarean Section	144/715 (20%)	151/805 (19%)	1.25 (0.96 to 1.63)
In labour Caesarean section	133/715 (18%)	116/805 (14%)	1.50 (1.13 to 2.00) **
Birthweight ≥4kg	101/715 (14%)	109/805 (13%)	1.05 (0.78 to 1.41)

Abbreviations: BMI: body mass index, CI: confidence interval, GDM: gestational diabetes, SD: standard deviation.

¹OGTT results not available for all participants therefore denominator noted here.

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Table 2: Infant feeding outcomes recorded at the 6-month follow-up, stratified by maternal BMI class at trial entry

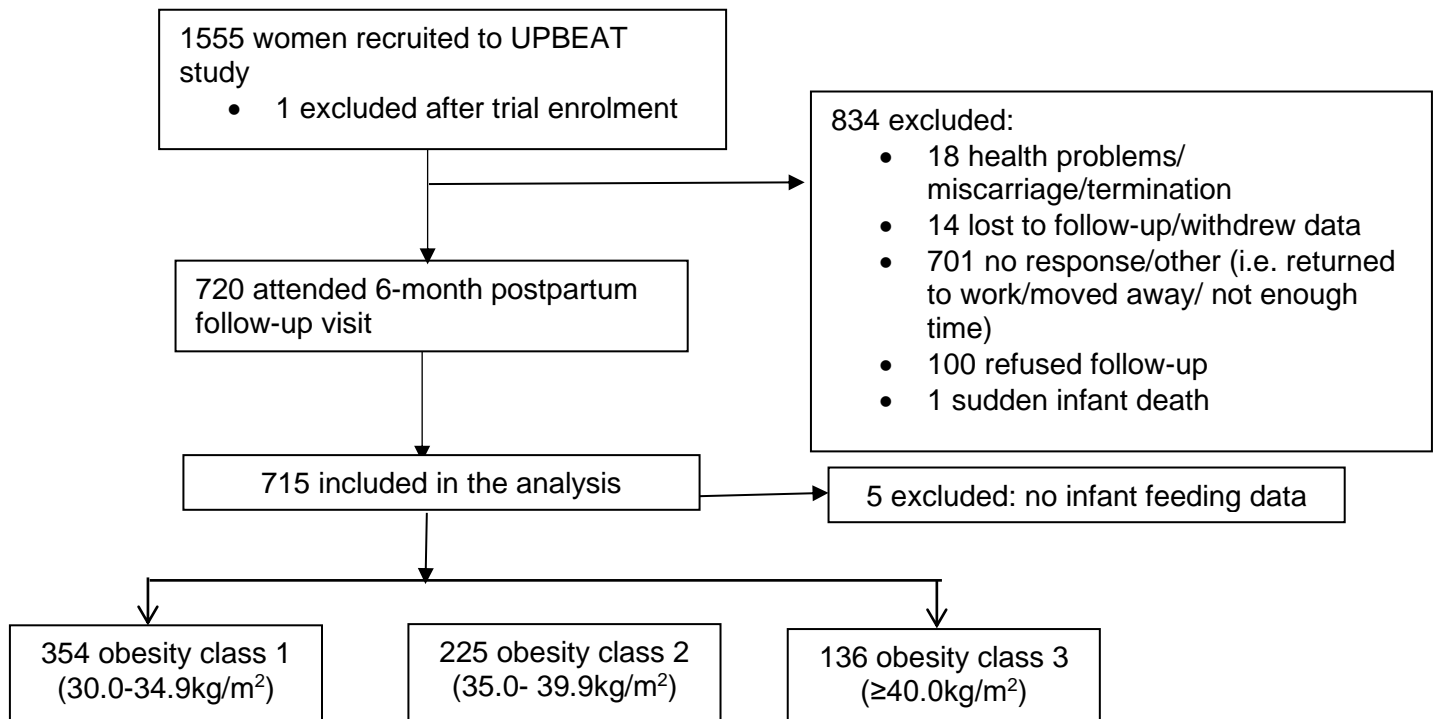
	BMI Class I (30.0- 34.9kg/m ²)	BMI Class II (35.0- 39.9kg/m ²)	BMI Class III (≥40.0kg/m ²)
	N (%) / Mean (standard deviation)		
Intended to breastfeed	267/354 (75.4%)	178/225 (79.1%)	101/136 (74.3%)
Initiated breastfeeding at birth	294/354 (83.1%)	189/225 (84.0%)	108/136 (79.4%)
6-month breastfeeding status of those who initiated breastfeeding			
Age of infant at 6-month follow-up	5.9 (0.86)	5.8 (0.87)	6.0 (1.01)
Exclusive breastfeeding	11/294 (3.7%)	7/189 (3.7%)	1/108 (0.9%)
Formula milk only	8/294 (2.7%)	6/189 (3.2%)	0/108 (0%)
Breastfeeding + other fluids	4/294 (1.3%)	4/189 (2.1%)	5/108 (4.6%)
Breastfeeding + solids ± other fluids	73/294 (24.8%)	41/189 (21.6%)	16/108 (14.8%)*
Formula + solids ± other fluids	134/294 (45.6%)	92/189 (48.7%)	68/108 (63.0%)*
Breastfeeding + Formula milk + solids ± other fluids	64/294 (21.7%)	39/189 (20.6%)	18/108 (16.7%)*
Any breastfeeding at 6-months	152/294 (51.7%)	91/189 (48.2%)	40/108 (30.7%)*
All women			
Formula feeding at 6 months	266/354 (75.0%)	203/255 (80.0%)	114/136 (84.0%)
Introduced solids at 6 months	329/354 (92.9%)	201/225 (89.3%)	128/136 (94.1%)
Mean duration of exclusive breastfeeding (days)	90.4 (64.0)	74.6 (66.3)	73.7 (65.1)
Difference in mean (95%CI) vs class I		-15.8 (-28.5, -3.1)*	-16.7 (-32.0, -1.35)*
Never breastfed	60 (17.0%)	36 (16.0%)	28 (20.7%)

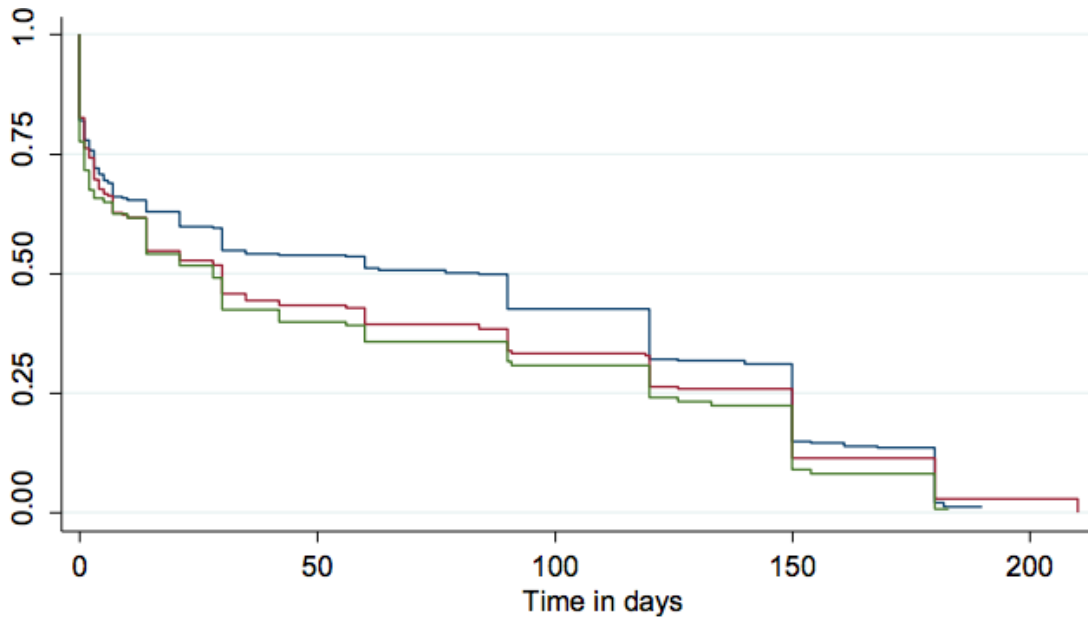
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001. other fluids defined as drinks such as water or juice.

Table 3: Initiation of breastfeeding and pregnancy outcomes according to BMI class. Data presented as number of women/total (%)

	BMI Class I (30.0-34.9kg/m ²)	BMI Class II (35.0-39.9kg/m ²)	BMI Class III (≥40.0kg/m ²)	Class 2 compared to class 1	Class 3 compared to class 1
	N (%)			Odds ratio (95% CI)	
Initiation of breastfeeding	294/354 (83.1%)	189/225 (84.0%)	108/136 (79.4%)	1.07 (0.68 to 1.68)	0.79 (0.48 to 1.30)
Parity	176/354 (50%)	120/354 (53%)	67 (49%)	1.15 (0.83, 1.62)	0.98 (0.66, 1.46)
Unassisted vaginal	176/354 (50%)	112/225 (50%)	57/136 (42%)	ref	ref
Operative vaginal	44/354 (12%)	33/225 (15%)	16/136 (11%)	1.18 (0.71 to 1.96)	1.12 (0.59 to 2.14)
Pre-labour Caesarean	75/354 (21%)	37/225 (16%)	32/136 (23%)	0.78 (0.49 to 1.23)	1.32 (0.79 to 2.19)
Caesarean in labour	59/354 (17%)	43/225 (19%)	31/136 (23%)	1.14 (0.72 to 1.81)	1.62 (0.96 to 2.75)
GDM diagnosis	77/345 (22%)	75/218 (34%)	45/136 (33%)	1.82 (1.25 to 2.66) **	1.11 (1.11 to 2.66) *
Infant birthweight ≥4kg	54/354 (15%)	30/221 (13%)	17/136 (13%)	0.85 (0.53 to 1.38)	0.79 (0.44 to 1.43)

Abbreviations: BMI: body mass index, CI: confidence interval, GDM: gestational diabetes * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001





Obesity class 1



Obesity class 2



Obesity class 3



