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51

52 **Abstract**

53 **Importance:** Screen-viewing in adults has been associated with greater abdominal adiposity, with the
54 magnitude of associations varying by sex and ethnicity, but the evidence is lacking at younger ages.
55 We aimed to investigate sex- and ethnic-specific associations of screen-viewing time at ages 2 and 3
56 years with abdominal adiposity measured by magnetic resonance imaging at age 4.5 years.

57 **Methods:** The Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes is an ongoing prospective
58 mother-offspring cohort study. Parents/caregivers reported the time their child spent viewing
59 television, handheld devices and computer screens at ages 2 and 3 years. Superficial and deep
60 subcutaneous and visceral abdominal adipose tissue volumes were quantified from magnetic
61 resonance images acquired at age 4.5 years. Associations between screen-viewing time and abdominal
62 adipose tissue volumes were examined by multivariable linear regression adjusting for confounding
63 factors.

64 **Results:** In the overall sample (n=307), greater total screen-viewing time and handheld device times
65 were associated with higher superficial and deep subcutaneous adipose tissue volumes, but not with
66 visceral adipose tissue volumes. Interactions with child sex were found, with significant associations
67 with superficial and deep subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue volumes in boys, but not in girls.
68 Among boys, the increases in mean (95% CI) superficial and deep subcutaneous and visceral adipose
69 tissue volumes were 24.3 (9.9, 38.7), 17.6 (7.4, 27.8), and 7.8 (2.1, 13.6) mL per hour increase in
70 daily total screen-viewing time, respectively. Ethnicity-specific analyses showed associations of total
71 screen-viewing time with abdominal adiposity only in Malay children. Television viewing time was
72 not associated with abdominal adiposity.

73 **Conclusion:** Greater total screen-viewing time (and in particular, handheld device viewing time) was
74 associated with higher abdominal adiposity in boys and Malay children. Additional studies are
75 necessary to confirm these associations and to examine screen-viewing interventions for preventing
76 excessive abdominal adiposity and its adverse cardiometabolic consequences.

77

78 **Introduction**

79 Childhood obesity is an ongoing epidemic. The World Health Organization has estimated that forty-
80 one million children aged five years or below are overweight, nearly half of whom live in Asia (1).
81 Many overweight/obese children remain overweight/obese as adults and develop health complications
82 such as cardiometabolic diseases (1, 2). Abdominal fat has been more strongly linked with obesity-
83 related morbidity and mortality than overall body fat mass in adults (3-5). Moreover, within the
84 abdominal compartments, superficial subcutaneous adipose tissue (SSAT), deep subcutaneous adipose
85 tissue (DSAT) and visceral adipose tissue (VAT) may differently associate with health outcomes (6-
86 8). Studies in adults reported that a higher volume of VAT and/or DSAT, but not SSAT, is associated
87 with insulin resistance and higher cardiometabolic risk (5, 9). The accumulation of abdominal fat
88 begins in early life and it may track into adulthood (10, 11). However, because preventive measures in
89 adulthood seem to have limited effect, it is important to prevent the accumulation of excessive
90 abdominal adiposity among young children (7, 12, 13).

91 Several risk factors contribute to childhood obesity, among which sedentary behaviour makes an
92 important and modifiable contribution (14, 15). Screen-viewing, including television and handheld
93 mobile devices, occupies an increasingly prominent place in young children's leisure-time sedentary
94 activities (16-18). Previous studies have reported that a large proportion (~16 to 50%) of children
95 from high-income countries exceed the recommended limit of ≤ 1 hour of high-quality content screen-
96 viewing time (SVT) per day between ages 2 and 5 years (17, 19-25). A review of prospective studies
97 in children concluded that greater SVT is associated with higher general adiposity (26). The effect of
98 SVT may not be limited to an increase in general adiposity, though. A previous study using measures
99 of waist circumference suggested that screen (television) viewing time may be associated with
100 abdominal adiposity in children (24). However, waist circumference may not distinguish between the
101 different abdominal adipose tissue compartments in children (27). Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)
102 is considered the most accurate method to determine abdominal adipose tissue compartment volumes
103 without radiation exposure (28, 29). We are aware of only two cross-sectional studies that have
104 examined associations of the screen (television) viewing time with MRI-measured abdominal

105 adiposity among children and adolescents (aged 5 to 18 years) and the findings were inconsistent: one
106 study reported a positive association and the second no evidence of associations (30, 31).

107 Moreover, our previous research suggests sex-specific associations between SVT and adiposity in
108 young children (32). Evidence suggests the existence of disparities in childhood adiposity according
109 to sex and ethnicity due to biological and sociocultural factors (33, 34). Previously we observed sex
110 and ethnic differences in abdominal adipose tissue compartment volumes among children in
111 Singapore (6, 7). A recent study in the US adult population suggests that associations of screen-
112 viewing with abdominal adiposity differ by sex and ethnicity (15), warranting further investigation. In
113 this study, we investigated the associations of SVT at ages 2-3 years with abdominal adiposity
114 distribution as measured by MRI at age 4.5 years in children enrolled in a mother-offspring cohort
115 study in Singapore. We considered both television and handheld screen device use, as well as
116 differences in childhood adiposity according to sex and ethnicity.

117

118 **Methods**

119 *Study design*

120 Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) is an ongoing mother-offspring
121 multi-ethnic Asian cohort study in Singapore with detailed phenotyping of mothers and children.
122 Pregnant women <14 weeks of gestation, Chinese, Malay or Indian ethnicity, attending two major
123 public maternity units in Singapore, National University Hospital or KK Women's and Children's
124 Hospital, were recruited between June 2009 and- October 2010. All participants gave written
125 informed consent. The study was granted ethical approval by the National Healthcare Group Domain
126 Specific Review Board and SingHealth Centralized Institutional Review Board in Singapore
127 (ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT01174875). More details of the study are available elsewhere (35, 36).

128 *Screen-viewing time (SVT)*

129 At age 2 and 3 years, parents or caregivers of children were asked to answer the screen-viewing
130 questions that how much time per day on average their children spent in activities involving screens
131 during one month prior to the study visits as part of the interviewer-administered indoor and outdoor
132 activities questionnaires at ages 2- and 3-years. Time spent in three types of screen media were
133 reported in 5-minute increments for both weekdays and weekends: i) television viewing/playing time
134 (e.g., Xbox™, Wii™, PlayStation®), ii) computer use time (laptop or desktop), and iii) hand-held
135 devices viewing/playing time (e.g., hand-phones, tablets or Game Boy®). Daily television, computer
136 and handheld device viewing time at both ages were calculated $[(\text{weekday} \times 5 + \text{weekend day} \times 2)/7]$.
137 The total SVT, television and handheld device viewing times at ages 2 and 3 years were derived by
138 averaging the times at the two ages to reduce reporting error (17).

139 *Quantification of abdominal adipose tissue compartment volumes*

140 MRI of the abdominal region was performed using a 3T MR scanner (Siemens Skyra, VE11A) at age
141 4.5 years for the subset of the GUSTO participants who consented for this specific measurement.
142 Water suppressed HASTE sequence (TR=1,000 ms, TE=95 ms) and body matrix coil were used to

143 obtain sixty axial images of 5-mm slice thickness and in-plane resolution of 0.94×0.94 mm covering
144 the abdominal region from the top of the liver to upper sacrum (37). A validated and fully automated
145 algorithm based on graph cuts was used for segmentation of SAT and VAT depots (6, 38). SAT was
146 classified into DSAT and SSAT by manual tracing of the fascial plane. Bowel and other misclassified
147 structures were removed by manual editing. The number of voxels in SSAT, DSAT and VAT were
148 summed and multiplied by the image resolution to obtain the fat volumes (in mL) (6).

149 *Covariates*

150 Data on ethnicity, maternal age, educational attainment and self-reported pre-pregnancy weight were
151 obtained at recruitment as part of the interviewer-administered questionnaires. At age 2 and 3 years,
152 parents or caregivers of children answered interviewer-administered questions on outdoor
153 playing/exercising; it included how much time their child spent playing/exercising (activities that
154 require physical exertion) out of doors (e.g. in a backyard, walk, bike riding) per day on weekdays and
155 weekend days during the month prior to the study visit. Time spent in outdoor playing/exercising
156 activities were reported in 5-minute increments for both weekdays and weekends, and time spent per
157 week was calculated ($\text{weekday} \times 5 + \text{weekend day} \times 2$). Time spent at ages 2 and 3 years were then
158 averaged to reduce reporting error and used for analysis. Total energy intake per day was derived
159 from a single 24-hour food recall data collected using the 5-stage multiple-pass interviewing
160 technique at age 3 years (39). Nutrient intakes from 24-hour food recall was analyzed using a nutrient
161 analysis software Dietplan (Forestfield software) that includes a food composition database of locally
162 available foods (40). Alternatively, for the dishes that were not present in the database, nutrient
163 analyses were conducted using recipes or food labels or using a similar composite dish or obtaining
164 nutrient information from the US Department of Agriculture's national nutrient database (41, 42).
165 Maternal height at 26-28 weeks of gestation, paternal height and weight at the 2- or 3- year clinic visit
166 and weight and height of the children at ages 2 and 4.5 years were measured in duplicate by research
167 staff using a weighing scale (SECA model 803) and a stadiometer (SECA model 213, Hamburg,
168 Germany). When the difference between the two measures was >1.0 cm for height or >0.2 kg for
169 weight, a third measurement was taken, and the average of the two closest measures was used. Biceps,

170 triceps, and subscapular skinfold thicknesses (to the nearest 0.2 mm) of the children were measured in
171 triplicate at age 2 years using Holtain skinfold callipers (Holtain Ltd, Crymych, UK) (43, 44). When
172 the three measures varied by more than 1 mm, a fourth reading was taken; the average of the three
173 closest measures were used. Measured height and weight data were used to calculate paternal and
174 child BMIs (kg/m^2). Maternal BMI was calculated based on the mother's self-reported pre-pregnancy
175 weight and her height measured at 26-28 weeks. Biceps, triceps and subscapular skinfolds were added
176 to calculate the sum of skinfolds measures.

177 *Statistical analyses*

178 We used chi-square test to compare the characteristics of the GUSTO children with and without MRI-
179 measured abdominal adiposity data. Then, we compared screen-viewing time and abdominal adiposity
180 between boys and girls and between Chinese, Malay and Indian ethnicity using independent t-test and
181 one-way ANOVA, respectively. Among children with MRI measures, 30.3% had missing data for one
182 or more of the covariates, with a range from 1% to 15.6% on the individual covariates. We used
183 multiple imputations of 50 datasets using chained equations for these missing covariates (45). SVT
184 and MRI-measured abdominal adiposity data were not imputed, leading to a final analysis sample of
185 307 children with data on both SVT and MRI-measured abdominal adiposity (Figure 1) (46).

186 Multivariable linear regression models were used to estimate associations of total SVT, television
187 time and handheld devices time at age 2-3 years with SSAT, DSAT and VAT at age 4.5 years.
188 Computer time was not analyzed separately as more than two-thirds of the participants were not
189 exposed to computer-based screen time at ages 2 and 3 years [median (Interquartile range): 0 (0-
190 0.25)] (17). All models were adjusted for potential socio-demographic and lifestyle confounding
191 factors suggested by the literature, i.e., sex (boy, girl), ethnicity (Chinese, Malay, Indian), child sum
192 of skinfold thicknesses at age 2 years (in mm), maternal age at delivery (in year), maternal education
193 (\leq secondary, post-secondary and university and others) and pre-pregnancy BMI (in kg/m^2), and
194 paternal BMI (in kg/m^2) (32, 47). In models with television viewing time or handheld device viewing
195 time as exposures, each was adjusted for the other. The published literature suggests that magnitude of

196 associations between SVT and adiposity may change according to sex and ethnicity (15, 33, 34); we,
197 therefore, tested in separate models interaction terms between each SVT exposure and child sex
198 (SVT*sex) and ethnicity (SVT*ethnicity), and subsequent analyses were stratified by sex or ethnicity.
199 We also carried out sensitivity analyses with complete case analyses for the above-mentioned
200 regression models, to assess the potential influence of the multiple imputation procedure on the
201 results. In models with statistical interaction with child sex, we considered interaction p-values $p < 0.20$
202 as suitable for sex stratification. In sensitivity analyses, we repeated the above models with further
203 adjustment for potential mediators of the associations of interest, including time spent in outdoor
204 playing/exercising activities at age 2-3 years (in hours per week) and daily energy intake at age 3
205 years. All statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS v25 (IBM, Chicago, IL, USA).

206

207 **Results**

208 At age 2-3 years 987 (84.2%) children in the cohort had SVT data; 307 (31.1%) of these children
209 underwent MRI scans of the abdominal region at age 4.5 years and were included in the present
210 analysis (Figure 1). Table 1 compares the children with and without MRI adiposity measurements.
211 Children with MRI data were less likely to be boys or of Chinese ethnicity, and their mothers were
212 less likely to have a university education. Among included children, boys had higher SVT [Mean total
213 SVT: 3.0 (Standard deviation: 2.0) vs 2.5 (1.6) h/day, $p=0.046$] and lower SSAT [366.7 (206.9) vs
214 447.9 (247.6) mL, $p=0.002$] and DSAT [129.6 (143.7) vs 184.9 (182.3) mL, $p=0.004$], but not VAT
215 [196.2 (72.2) vs 186.9 (83.1) mL, $p=0.298$], compared to girls. Malay and Indians had higher total and
216 device-specific SVT and higher SSAT and DSAT, but not VAT, compared to Chinese children (Table
217 2).

218 *Associations of total SVT with abdominal adipose tissue compartment volumes*

219 In the overall sample, total SVT was positively associated with SSAT and DSAT but not with VAT.
220 Based on the observed interaction terms, child sex modified the association of SVT with SSAT (p for
221 interaction= 0.042), with suggestive interactions for DSAT ($p=0.101$) and VAT ($p=0.085$). Sex-
222 stratified analyses revealed that total SVT was associated with SSAT, DSAT and VAT in boys; the
223 addition of one hour of SVT per day was associated with an increase in mean (95% confidence
224 interval) SSAT [24.3 (9.9, 38.7) mL], DSAT [17.6 (7.4, 27.8) mL] and VAT [7.8 (2.1, 13.6) mL] in
225 boys. No associations were found in girls [SSAT: 1.3 (-15.9, 18.6), DSAT: 2.7 (-10.9, 16.4) and VAT:
226 -0.3 (-7.2, 6.5) mL]. Ethnicity-stratified analyses revealed stronger estimates with SSAT, DSAT and
227 VAT in Malay children than in Chinese or Indian children, but no interactions were observed (p for
228 interaction >0.20) (Table 3).

229 *Associations of device-specific SVT with abdominal adipose tissue compartment volumes*

230 Television viewing time was not associated with SSAT, DSAT and VAT in the overall sample, and no
231 interactions with child sex or ethnicity were observed (Table 3). Handheld device viewing time was
232 associated with SSAT and DSAT, but not with VAT in the overall sample. Interactions with child sex

233 were observed for SSAT ($p=0.004$), DSAT ($p=0.016$) and VAT ($p=0.052$): these were driven by
234 associations in boys [SSAT: 61.9 (29.9, 93.8), DSAT: 44.5 (21.8, 67.1) and VAT: 13.9 (0.8, 27.0)
235 mL] but not in girls [SSAT: -12.4 (-50.6, 25.7), DSAT: -3.3 (-33.5, 26.9) and VAT: -3.4 (-18.7, 11.8)
236 mL]. No interaction with ethnicity was observed (p for interaction >0.20) (Table 3).

237 Sensitivity analyses based on complete case data showed stronger effect sizes of associations of total
238 SVT and handheld device viewing time with SSAT, DSAT and VAT and among boys and Malay
239 children compared to results on the imputed data set (Supplementary Table 1). Further adjustment for
240 time spent in outdoor playing/exercising activities at age 2-3 years and total energy intake at age 3
241 years did not change the above results (Supplementary Table 2).

242 **Discussion**

243 In this prospective multi-ethnic cohort study, we found associations between greater total and device-
244 specific SVT at age 2-3 years and higher MRI-measured abdominal adiposity compartment volumes
245 at age 4.5 years. Total SVT, and particularly handheld device viewing time, were significantly
246 associated with all three abdominal compartmental adipose tissue volumes in boys, but not in girls,
247 and associations were stronger in Malay children than in Chinese or Indian children. Television time
248 was not associated with abdominal adiposity, either in the overall sample or among either sex.

249 To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine screen-viewing behaviour in early childhood with
250 the distribution of MRI-measured abdominal adipose tissue. A previous cross-sectional study in US
251 children and adolescents aged 5 to 18 years reported that higher television viewing time was
252 associated with greater subcutaneous and visceral abdominal adiposity (30). In contrast, another
253 cross-sectional study in adolescents aged 14 to 18 years reported no associations between
254 television/movie viewing time and VAT (31). Consistent with this latter study (31), we found that
255 television time was not associated with SSAT, DSAT and VAT. Multiple factors could explain the
256 differences between our findings and the existing literature. For instance, although television remains
257 the dominant screen device among children, a temporal shift is occurring in screen-time habits, with
258 an increase in handheld device use (17). In our study, we accounted for the time spent on handheld
259 devices while investigating the association between television viewing time and abdominal adiposity.
260 Furthermore, previous cross-sectional studies may have been affected by reverse causation, included
261 predominantly older children and adolescents (5 to 18 years), whereas our study was longitudinal, and
262 focused on younger children.

263 Our study suggests that greater total and handheld SVT is associated with higher SSAT, DSAT and
264 VAT in boys. The mechanisms of these associations are not fully understood, and current data do not
265 explain why different types of screen-viewing are differentially associated with SSAT, DSAT and
266 VAT. However, it has been suggested that concurrent eating, while watching screens and the
267 influence of food advertisements, and insufficient physical activity and sleep due to longer duration of

268 SVT might explain the observed associations (18). Handheld digital media, in particular, may prompt
269 children to watch even while eating and engaging in other leisure activities, which may increase the
270 uninterrupted sitting time. This prolonged sitting may increase abdominal adiposity in children.
271 Alternatively, bedtime screen usage may reduce the duration and quality of sleep, and that lack of
272 sleep might lead to high-energy intake and greater abdominal adiposity (18, 24, 48). Moreover,
273 literature suggests that screen-based activities requiring a significant cognitive effort, such as playing
274 video games or performing school homework, may cause neurogenic stress, which could increase
275 spontaneous energy intake without detectable changes in energy expenditure (49-52). This positive
276 energy balance mechanism may explain the stronger associations observed with handheld devices
277 compared to television. Further research is required to examine these hypotheses.

278 We observed sex- and ethnicity-specific associations between SVT and abdominal adiposity. These
279 results are in line with those reported in a US adult population; SVT (television) was associated with
280 VAT in White men but not in women or Black men, and associated with subcutaneous adipose tissue
281 in White women only (15). In our study, total screen-viewing and handheld device viewing times
282 were associated with SSAT, DSAT and VAT only in boys, but not in girls. The underlying
283 mechanisms driving the observed sex-specific findings are unknown. We have previously reported
284 sex and ethnic differences in abdominal adipose tissue volumes among children at early infancy and at
285 age 4.5 years (6, 7). Hence, anatomical differences and the role of sex hormones in the metabolic
286 profile and accumulation of subcutaneous and visceral tissue could explain the sex-differences in
287 these associations (53-56). An alternative hypothesis is that SVT may be a better proxy of total time
288 spent in sedentary behaviour in boys than in girls. Boys might be naturally or socially encouraged to
289 engage in physical activity when they are not watching screen devices, whereas girls might engage in
290 other sedentary activities more frequently, as reported in a study with older children (57). Ethnicity-
291 specific associations are even more challenging to explain and may reflect residual confounding by
292 genetic differences in fat metabolism or by cultural factors that affect diet and exercise patterns (17,
293 54, 58, 59). These hypotheses warrant further clinical and epidemiological studies.

294 Strengths of our study include its longitudinal study design, measurement of abdominal adiposity
295 compartment volumes using MRI in young children under 5 years of age, and the examination of
296 different types of screens including tablets and smartphones at early childhood. However, limitations
297 have to be considered. Firstly, total and device-specific SVT was reported by parents/caregivers,
298 rather than objectively measured. However, a structured interview questionnaire used and it was
299 administered by trained interviewers at two-time points, which should have mitigated the reporting
300 errors. Secondly, unmeasured residual confounding factors, such as changes in SVT and time spent in
301 outdoor playing/exercising activities between ages 3 and 4.5 years, moderate and vigorous physical
302 activity, eating while viewing screen devices and frequency of eating unhealthy snacks and sweetened
303 beverages, cannot be discounted. Further follow-up of this cohort, including measurement of the
304 above confounders, could help clarify the link between SVT and abdominal adiposity. Finally, our
305 study is limited to a subgroup of the GUSTO cohort, and children with and without MRI
306 measurements differed in ethnicity, sex and SVT, which might affect the generalizability of our
307 results. Nevertheless, our findings make a novel contribution to the literature and may influence the
308 design of future studies, including the testing of intervention strategies to reduce childhood abdominal
309 adiposity and their cardio-metabolic consequences later in life.

310 In conclusion, our study provides evidence that greater total SVT at age 2-3 years is associated with
311 higher abdominal SSAT, DSAT and VAT, at age 4.5 years in boys. Associations appeared stronger in
312 Malay than in Chinese and Indian children. The associations between SVT, particularly handheld
313 device, and abdominal adiposity lend credence to the role of early-life screen-viewing in detrimental
314 health outcomes by increasing DSAT and VAT in children. Given the increase in handheld screen
315 device usage, this study highlights the importance of limiting handheld device time to promote health.
316 Future studies with larger sample size and context-specific screen-viewing data are warranted to
317 confirm our observations. In light of increasing screen-viewing in children, our findings support the
318 need for the development of evidence-based health promotion strategies to limit childhood SVT and
319 prevent abdominal adiposity and its adverse cardiometabolic health consequences.

320

321 **Abbreviations:** GUSTO, The Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes; BMI, body
322 mass index; SSAT, superficial subcutaneous adipose tissue; DSAT, deep subcutaneous adipose tissue;
323 VAT, visceral adipose tissue.

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351 **Availability of data and materials:** The dataset supporting the conclusions of this article can be
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353

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515 **Figure 1: Study flowchart**

516 **Table 1: Comparison of children with and without magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)**

517 **abdominal adiposity data in the GUSTO cohort**

518 **Table 2: Screen-viewing time at age 2-3 years and MRI-based abdominal adiposity at age 4.5**

519 **years, according to sex and ethnicity of children in the GUSTO cohort**

520 **Table 3: Associations of SVT at age 2-3 years with abdominal adiposity at ages 4.5 years in the**

521 **GUSTO cohort**

522