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**Trends in adult body-mass index in 200 countries from 1975 to 2014: a pooled analysis of 1698 population-based measurement studies with 19.2 million participants**

<http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/id/eprint/3661/>

## Article

**Citation** (please note it is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from this work)

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**The weight of the world – trends in adult body mass index in 200 countries since 1975: pooled analysis of 1,698 population-based measurement studies with 19.2 million participants**

NCD Risk Factor Collaboration (NCD-RisC)

Final published version: *Lancet* 2016; 387: 1377–96

## Summary

**Background:** Trends in mean body mass index (BMI) characterise shifts in the population distribution of BMI, and prevalences of underweight, and severe and morbid obesity (BMI  $\geq 35$  and  $40 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , respectively) show what proportion of the population are at high risks of adverse health outcomes. Our aim was to estimate trends in mean BMI and in prevalences of various BMI categories for adults in all countries.

**Methods:** We reanalysed population-based studies with measured height and weight data in adults aged 18 years and older using a consistent protocol. We applied a Bayesian hierarchical model to these data to estimate trends from 1975 to 2014 in mean BMI and in the prevalences of BMI  $< 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (underweight),  $18.5$  to  $<20 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $20$  to  $<25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $25$  to  $<30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $30$  to  $<35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $35$  to  $<40 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $\geq 40 \text{ kg/m}^2$  by sex in 200 countries and territories, organised in 21 regions. We calculated the posterior probability of meeting the target of halting by 2025 the rise in obesity compared to its 2010 levels, if post-2000 trends continue.

**Findings:** Global age-standardised mean BMI increased from  $21.7 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (95% credible interval 21.3-22.1) in 1975 to  $24.2 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (24.0-24.4) in 2014 in men, and from  $22.1$  (21.7-22.5)  $\text{kg/m}^2$  in 1975 to  $24.4$  (24.2-24.6)  $\text{kg/m}^2$  in 2014 in women. Regional mean BMIs in 2014 for men ranged from  $21.4 \text{ kg/m}^2$  in Central Africa and South Asia to  $29.2$  (28.6-29.8)  $\text{kg/m}^2$  in Polynesia and Micronesia; for women the range was from  $21.8$  (21.4-22.3)  $\text{kg/m}^2$  in South Asia to  $32.2$  (31.5-32.8)  $\text{kg/m}^2$  in Polynesia and Micronesia. Over these four decades, global prevalence of underweight (BMI  $<18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) declined from 13.8% (10.5-17.4) to 8.8% (7.4-10.3) in men and from 14.6% (11.6-17.9) to 9.7% (8.3-11.1) in women. South Asia had the highest prevalence of underweight in 2014, 23.4% (17.8-29.2) in men and 24.0% (18.9-29.3) in women. Prevalence of obesity increased from 3.2% (2.4-4.1) in 1975 to 10.8% (9.7-12.0) in 2014 in men, and from 6.4% (5.1-7.8) to 14.9% (13.6-16.1) in women. 2.3% (2.0-2.7) of the world's adult men and 5.0% (4.4-5.6) of adult women are severely obese. Morbid obesity is 0.64% (0.46-0.86) among men and 1.6% (1.3-1.9) among women. If post-2000 trends continue, the probability of meeting the global obesity target is virtually zero. Rather, if these trends continue, by 2025, global obesity prevalence will surpass 17% in men and 21% in women; severe obesity will surpass 6% in men and 9% in women.

**Interpretation:** If current trends continue, the world will not meet the global obesity target, and will face an epidemic of severe obesity. Underweight nonetheless remains prevalent in the world's poorest regions, especially in South Asia.

**Funding:** Wellcome Trust; Grand Challenges Canada

## **Introduction**

High body mass index (BMI) is an important risk factor for cardiovascular and kidney diseases, diabetes, some cancers and musculoskeletal conditions.<sup>1-7</sup> Concerns about the health and economic burden of increasing BMI have led to adiposity being included among the global non-communicable diseases (NCD) targets, with a target of halting, by 2025, the rise in the prevalence of obesity compared to 2010 (i.e., age-standardised prevalence in 2025 is no more than its 2010 level).<sup>8,9</sup> Information on whether countries are on track to achieve this target is needed to support accountability towards the global NCD commitments.<sup>10</sup>

Two previous studies estimated global trends in the prevalences of overweight and obesity.<sup>11-13</sup> The largest health benefits of weight management are achieved by shifting the population distribution of BMI. The only global report on mean BMI, which characterises distributional shifts, estimated trends to 2008,<sup>11</sup> before the global target was agreed upon. Epidemiological studies have also demonstrated substantial risks among people with very high BMI, e.g.,  $\geq 35$  or  $\geq 40 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (referred to as severe and morbid obesity, respectively).<sup>14</sup> Being underweight is also associated with increased risk of morbidity and mortality (i.e., a so-called J-shaped association) and with adverse pregnancy outcomes.<sup>4, 6, 15, 16</sup> There are no consistent global estimates of trends in underweight, especially for men,<sup>17</sup> and in severe and morbid obesity. Finally, there is no information on how likely it is for countries to achieve the global obesity target.

We pooled population-based data to estimate trends from 1975 to 2014 in both mean BMI and in prevalences of BMI categories, ranging from underweight to morbid obesity. We also estimated the probability of achieving the global obesity target.

## **Methods**

### *Overview*

We estimated trends in mean BMI and prevalences of BMI categories  $<18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (underweight),  $18.5 \text{ to } <20 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $20 \text{ to } <25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $25 \text{ to } <30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $30 \text{ to } <35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $35 \text{ to } <40 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ,  $\geq 40 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (morbid obesity) from 1975 to 2014 in 200 countries and territories. We report results for these categories, as well as for total obesity ( $\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) and severe obesity ( $\text{BMI} \geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ). Countries and territories were organised into 21 regions, mostly based on geography and national income (Appendix Table 1). The exception was a region consisting of high-income English-speaking countries because BMI and other cardiometabolic risk factors have similar trends in these countries, which can be distinct from other countries in their geographical region. Our analysis covered men and women 18 years of age and older, consistent with the Global Monitoring Framework for NCDs.<sup>8</sup>

Our study had two steps, described below. First, we identified, accessed, and reanalysed population-based measurement studies of human anthropometry. We then used a statistical model to estimate trends for all countries and years.

### *Data sources*

We used data sources that were representative of a national, subnational, or community population and had measured height and weight. We did not use self-reported height and weight because they are subject to biases that vary by geography, time, age, sex, and socioeconomic characteristics.<sup>18-</sup>

<sup>20</sup> Due to these variations, current approaches to correcting self-reported data leave residual bias



and error. Our data inclusion and exclusion criteria, listed in Appendix, were designed to ensure population representativeness. Our methods for identifying and accessing data are described in Appendix.

### *Statistical methods*

We performed all analyses by sex, because there are differences in BMI levels and trends in relation to sex. The statistical method is described in a statistical paper, and in the Appendix of a previous empirical paper.<sup>21, 22</sup> In summary, the model had a hierarchical structure in which estimates for each country and year were informed by its own data, if available, and by data from other years in the same country and in other countries, especially those in the same region with data for similar time periods. The hierarchical structure shares information to a greater degree when data are non-existent or weakly informative (e.g., have a small sample size or, as described below, are not national), and to a lesser extent in data-rich countries and regions.

The model incorporated non-linear time trends and age patterns; national versus subnational and community representativeness; and whether data covered both rural and urban areas versus only one of them. The model included covariates that help predict BMI, including national income (natural logarithm of per-person GDP adjusted for inflation and purchasing power), proportion of population living in urban areas, and a summary measure of availability of different food types for human consumption.<sup>23, 24</sup> We also conducted an analysis without the use of covariates and compared the estimates with and without covariates. Estimates with and without covariates were virtually identical in most countries (Appendix Figure 4) with the exception of a few countries that had no data and whose covariates (e.g., national income) differed from those of their region, e.g.,

Brunei Darussalam, Bermuda, and North Korea. We report estimates for the model with covariates because it had significantly better fit to data, as measured by deviance information criterion.

We analysed mean BMI and each of the above prevalences separately. We re-scaled the estimated prevalences of different categories so that their sum was 1.0 in each age, sex, country, and year. The average scaling factor across draws was 1.05 for men and 1.07 for women, i.e., the sum of the separately estimated prevalences was close to 1.0. Estimates for regions and the world were calculated as population-weighted averages of the constituent country estimates by age group and sex. For presentation, we age-standardised the estimated means and prevalences to the WHO reference population,<sup>25</sup> by taking weighted averages of age-sex-specific estimates with use of age weights from the reference population. We tested how well our statistical model predicts missing data as described in the Appendix, which showed that it performed extremely well in estimating mean BMI as well as prevalences of BMI categories when data were missing.

We estimated average change in mean and prevalence (absolute change for mean and relative change for prevalence) over the 40 years of analysis and report as change per decade. We also report the posterior probability (PP) that an estimated increase or decrease represents a truly increasing or decreasing trend. In addition, we made separate trend estimates for pre-2000 and post-2000 years to assess whether the increasing recognition of adiposity as an “epidemic” in the 1990s,<sup>26</sup> and subsequent public health attention and response,<sup>27,28</sup> may have slowed down its rise. We calculated the PP of meeting the global obesity target if post-2000 trends continue.

*Role of funding source*

The funder of the study had no role in study design, data collection, analysis, interpretation, or writing of the report. Country and Regional Data Group members, MDC and JB had full access to the data in the study and the corresponding author had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

## **Results**

### *Data availability*

We used 1,698 population-based data sources, with ~19.2 million participants (9.9 million men; 9.3 million women) aged  $\geq 18$  years whose height and weight had been measured, in 186 of 200 countries for which estimates were made (Appendix Figure 2); these 186 countries covered 99% of the world's population. 159 countries had at least two data sources, which allowed more reliable trend estimates. 827 sources (48.7%) were national, 236 (13.9%) were subnational, and the remaining 635 (37.4%) were community-based (Appendix Figure 3). Across regions, there were between an average of 2.8 data sources per country in Polynesia and Micronesia to 35 per country in high-income Asia Pacific. 525 data sources (30.9%) were from years before 1995 and another 1173 (69.1%) for 1995 and later. 1314 sources had data on men as well as women, 144 only on men, and 240 only on women.

### *Mean BMI (global and regional)*

Global age-standardised mean BMI in men increased from 21.7 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (95% CrI 21.3-22.1) in 1975 to 24.2 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (24.0-24.4) in 2014, and in women from 22.1 (21.7-22.5) kg/m<sup>2</sup> in 1975 to 24.4 (24.2-24.6) kg/m<sup>2</sup> in 2014 (Figure 1) (PP of being a true rise >0.9999 for both sexes). The average rises of 0.63 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade (0.53-0.73) for men and 0.59 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade (0.49-0.70)

for women are equivalent to the world's population having become on average >1.5 kg heavier each decade.

Regional mean BMI in 2014 for men ranged from 21.4 kg/m<sup>2</sup> in Central Africa and South Asia to 29.2 (28.6-29.8) kg/m<sup>2</sup> in Polynesia and Micronesia (Figure 1). For women the range was from 21.8 (21.4-22.3) kg/m<sup>2</sup> in South Asia to 32.2 (31.5-32.8) kg/m<sup>2</sup> in Polynesia and Micronesia. Mean BMI was also high among men and women in the region comprising of high-income English-speaking countries, and in women in Southern Africa and in Middle East and North Africa.

The largest rise in men's BMI occurred in high-income English-speaking countries (1.00 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade; PP >0.9999) and for women in Central Latin America (1.27 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade; PP >0.9999). The increase in female BMI was also >1.00 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade in Melanesia, Polynesia and Micronesia, high-income English-speaking countries, South East Asia, Andean Latin America and the Caribbean. Due to these trends, in 2014 men and women in high-income English-speaking countries had substantially higher BMIs than those in continental Europe, whereas in 1975 their BMI had been similar or lower, especially for women (Figure 1). In contrast to these large increases, the rise in women's BMI was <0.2 kg/m<sup>2</sup> per decade in Central and South Western Europe and high-income Asia-Pacific.

#### *Mean BMI (country level)*

In 1975, age-standardised mean BMI was <19 kg/m<sup>2</sup> among men in Timor-Leste, Burundi, India, Ethiopia, Viet Nam, Rwanda, Eritrea and Bangladesh, and 17-18 kg/m<sup>2</sup> among women in Bangladesh, Nepal, Timor-Leste, Burundi, Cambodia and Viet Nam (Figure 2). In the same year,

men and women in Nauru and women in American Samoa already had mean BMIs  $>30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ .<sup>29</sup>,

<sup>30</sup> By 2014, age-standardised mean BMI had reached  $>20.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$  in men and  $>20.7 \text{ kg/m}^2$  in women in every country, with Ethiopia, Eritrea and Timor-Leste having the lowest BMIs for both sexes. At the same time, men and women in American Samoa had age-standardised mean BMIs of  $32.2 (30.5\text{-}33.7)$  and  $34.8 (33.2\text{-}36.3) \text{ kg/m}^2$ , respectively, with mean BMI also  $>30 \text{ kg/m}^2$  in both sexes in some other islands in Polynesia and Micronesia, and in women in some countries in Middle East and North Africa (e.g., Egypt and Kuwait) and the Caribbean.

Trends in men's BMI over these four decades ranged from virtually flat in Nauru (albeit at a very high level), North Korea and a number of countries in sub-Saharan Africa, to an increase of  $>1.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$  per decade. Similarly, women's BMI did not change in Bahrain and Nauru (both starting at high BMIs), Singapore, Japan, North Korea and a number of European countries, but increased by  $>1.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$  per decade in some countries. BMI rose more slowly after the year 2000 than it had in the preceding 2.5 decades in Oceania and in most high-income countries for both sexes, and for women in most countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (Figure 3). In contrast, the post-2000 rise was steeper than pre-2000 among men in Central and Eastern Europe, East and Southeast Asia, and most countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. In other regions, pre- and post-2000 increases in BMI were similar or there was a mix of slow-down and acceleration. The standard deviation of BMI also increased from 1975 to 2014 (Appendix Figure 5), which contributed to increasing the prevalences of people at low and/or high BMI levels, as presented below.

BMI varied more across countries in women (e.g.,  $14.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , equivalent to  $\sim 35 \text{ kg}$  heavier in American Samoa compared to Timor-Leste) than it did among men ( $12.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ). Although male

and female BMIs were correlated across countries, women had higher BMI than men in 141 countries in 2014 (Appendix Figure 6). There was weak correlation between changes in male and female BMI across countries.

#### *Prevalences of BMI categories (global and regional)*

Over these four decades, global age-standardised prevalence of underweight declined from 13.8% (10.5-17.4) to 8.8% (7.4-10.3) in men and from 14.6% (11.6-17.9) to 9.7% (8.3-11.1) in women (Figure 4). Compared to the fall in underweight, prevalence of obesity increased by a larger amount – from 3.2% (2.4-4.1) in 1975 to 10.8% (9.7-12.0) in 2014 in men, and from 6.4% (5.1-7.8) to 14.9% (13.6-16.1) in women. Prevalence of obesity surpassed that of underweight in 2004 in women and in 2011 in men. 2.3% (2.0-2.7) of the world's adult men and 5.0% (4.4-5.6) of adult women are severely obese. Morbid obesity is 0.64% (0.46-0.86) among men and 1.6% (1.3-1.9) among women.

Age-standardised underweight prevalence in South Asia, where it is most common, declined from >35% in 1975 to ~24% in 2014 in both sexes (Figure 4). Underweight prevalence also remains >12% in women and >15% in men in Central and East Africa, despite some declines. At the other extreme, >38% of men and >50% of women in Polynesia and Micronesia are obese. Obesity prevalence also surpasses 30% among men and women in English-speaking high-income countries, and women in Southern Africa and in Middle East and North Africa.

#### *Prevalences of BMI categories (country level)*

Age-standardised prevalence of underweight in 2014 was less than 1% among men in 68 countries and among women in 11 countries (Figure 5). At the other extreme, >20% of men in India, Bangladesh, Timor-Leste, Afghanistan, Eritrea and Ethiopia, and a quarter or more of women in Bangladesh and India are still underweight. In 1975, the proportion had been as high as 37% in Indian and Bangladeshi women.

In 136 of 200 countries, more men are now obese than underweight; in 113 of these, more are severely obese than underweight. For women, obesity surpasses underweight in 165 countries and severe obesity surpasses underweight in 135. Obesity prevalence was <1% among men in Burundi and Timor-Leste and between 1% and 2% in another 15 countries in Central, East and West Africa and in South and Southeast Asia. The lowest prevalences in women were in Timor-Leste, Japan, Viet Nam, North Korea, Cambodia, Lao PDR and Bangladesh all <5%. At the other extreme, >45% of men in 6 islands in Polynesia and Micronesia, and >50% of women in 11 such island nations were obese. Women in a number of Caribbean and Middle Eastern countries had obesity prevalences of 40% to 50%. Severe obesity surpassed 20% in men and 30% in women in some Polynesian and Micronesian islands, reaching 33.4% (23.6-43.5) in American Samoa in 2014. Over 15% of women in Nauru and American Samoa were morbidly obese.

#### *Number of underweight, obese and severely obese people*

The above prevalences translate to 266 (240-295) million obese men and 375 (344-407) million obese women in the world in 2014, compared to 34 (26-44) million and 71 (57-87) million in 1975 (Figure 6). 58 (49-68) million of these men and 126 (112-141) million of these women are severely obese. 18.4% of the world's obese adults (118 million) live in English-speaking high-income

countries, followed by 14.5% (93 million) in East Asia and 12.4% (79 million) in Middle East and North Africa. English-speaking high-income countries house an even larger share of the world's severely obese people (27.1%; 50 million), followed by 13.9% (26 million) in Middle East and North Africa.

Countries where large numbers of underweight people lived in 1975 as well as in 2014 were mostly large countries in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, with an increasing share of underweight people living in South Asia over time (Figure 7). In contrast to this stability of underweight geography, countries with the largest number of obese and severely obese people changed over these four decades, with more middle-income countries joining the USA, especially for women. More obese men and women now live in China than in the USA, and even for severe obesity China moved from 60<sup>th</sup> place for men and 41<sup>st</sup> place for women in 1975, to 2<sup>nd</sup> rank for both men and women in 2014. Nonetheless, more than one in four severely obese men and almost one in five severely obese women in the world are still from the USA.

#### *Progress towards the global target*

If post-2000 trends continue, the probability of meeting the global obesity target is less than 50% in every country, with Nauru having the highest probability of ~45% (Appendix Figure 7). With an obesity prevalence at >45% for men and >55% for women in Nauru, this is not a public health achievement. The probability of achieving the target is <10% among men in 194 countries and women in 174 countries. At the global level, the probability of meeting the target is virtually zero. Rather, if current trends continue, by 2025, global obesity prevalence will surpass 17% in men and



21% in women; and severe obesity will surpass 9% in women, and will be larger than the projected prevalence of underweight.

## **Discussion**

Over the past four decades, we have transitioned from a world in which underweight prevalence was more than double that of obesity, to one in which more people are obese than underweight – globally as well as in all regions except parts of sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. The rate of increase in BMI since 2000 has been slower than the preceding decades in high-income countries, where adiposity became an explicit public health concern around this time,<sup>27, 28</sup> and in some middle-income countries; BMI, however, rose faster in some other regions such that the global rise in BMI has not slowed. If recent trends continue, not only will the world not meet the global target for halting the rise in obesity, but also severe obesity will surpass underweight among women by 2025. Underweight nonetheless remains a public health problem in South Asia and Central and East Africa.

We estimated a slightly larger rise in mean BMI since 1980 than Finucane et al,<sup>11</sup> especially for men, because our estimates for 1980 were lower, globally and in most regions. This may be because our study included substantially more data, from a larger number of countries. Our global estimates of overweight prevalence are similar to those reported by Stevens et al<sup>13</sup> for 2008 and by Ng et al for 2013;<sup>12</sup> our estimates for obesity for the same years are slightly lower than those of Stevens et al and slightly higher than those of Ng et al. Further, we estimated a lower prevalence of obesity for 1980 than Ng et al had, which means we attribute a larger role to the rise over the past few decades for the current extent of obesity. Differences between our study and Ng et al were

greater at the regional level, e.g., for obesity among men in South Asia and Central, East and West Africa, where our estimates of obesity prevalence are less than half of those by Ng et al. None of these previous works had estimated underweight or severe and morbid obesity, which are important clinical and public health outcomes.

The strengths of our study include its unique scope of making consistent estimates of mean BMI as well as the prevalences of all BMI categories with clinical and public health relevance – including the first-ever estimates of underweight and severe and morbid obesity. This helped reveal the details of underweight to overweight/obesity transition throughout the world. We also reported the probability that each country will meet the global obesity target. We put great emphasis on data quality and used only population-based data that had measured height and weight, to avoid the bias in self-reported data. Characteristics and quality of data sources were verified through repeated checks by Collaborating Group members. Data were analysed according to a common protocol to obtain the required mean and prevalences by age and sex, which in turn minimised reliance on models for filling such gaps, as done in previous studies.<sup>11-13</sup> Finally, we pooled data using a statistical model designed to take into account the epidemiological features of outcomes such as BMI, and one that used all available data while giving more weight to national data than subnational and community studies.

Despite our efforts in identifying and accessing country-level data, some countries had fewer data sources, especially those in Polynesia and Micronesia, the Caribbean and Central Asia. In addition, only 42% of sources included people older than 70 years. Given ageing trends throughout the world, older people should be included in health and nutrition surveys, which have traditionally

focused on childbearing ages. Even measured height and weight data can have error depending on how closely measurement protocols are followed. Although data held by Collaborating Group members were analysed to provide all needed details by age group and BMI level, individual participant data could not be accessed for 19.4% of data used in our analysis, hence conversions across categories were still needed – the conversion regressions nonetheless had high predictive accuracy (Appendix Table 3). Estimating prevalences for a complete set of BMI categories is a novel component of our work, but the uncertainty intervals for BMI  $\geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> and BMI  $\geq 35$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, which span more than one of the analysed categories, may be affected by the fact that we combined posterior distributions across Bayesian models. We did not estimate trends in measures of adiposity other than BMI, such as waist circumference and waist-to-hip ratio, as these are only measured in recent surveys. A systematic review of epidemiological studies found that, taken together, these studies do not show that any of the measures of adiposity had “superior discriminatory capability” in terms of risk of adverse cardiometabolic outcomes; any observed difference was “too small to be of any clinical relevance”.<sup>31</sup> We did not analyse children and adolescents for two reasons. First, because childhood and adolescence is a period of rapid growth, BMI cut-offs used to define under/over-weight and obesity for children and adolescents are different from those for adults, and vary by age and sex.<sup>32</sup> Second, time trends in children’s and adolescents’ obesity are different from those of adults.<sup>33</sup> Finally, the global obesity target does not penalise a situation in which high prevalence of obesity persists in a country, as is the case in Nauru for example.

There are a number of implications to our results. First, the global focus on the obesity epidemic has largely overshadowed the persistence of underweight in some countries. Our results

demonstrate the need to address the remaining underweight problem, which will reduce risks to pregnant women and their newborn infants,<sup>15</sup> mortality from tuberculosis and other respiratory diseases,<sup>34</sup> and possibly all-cause mortality for which there is a J-shaped association.<sup>2,3</sup> Achieving this requires social and food policies that enhance food security in poor households, but avoid overconsumption of processed carbohydrates and other unhealthy foods. Second, although adiposity has been consistently shown to be an independent risk factor for a number of NCDs in individual-level epidemiological studies, at the population level, the effect of rising BMI on the course of mortality decline has so far been modest in high-income countries,<sup>35,36</sup> possibly because pharmacological treatment has helped lower blood pressure and serum cholesterol and manage diabetes complications which are mediators of the effects of BMI on cardiovascular diseases. In low-income countries, where health systems might not have the capacity to identify and treat hypertension, dyslipidaemia and diabetes, adiposity might have larger impact on population health. Further, we have shown that some high-income and middle-income regions are now facing an epidemic of severe obesity. Even antihypertensive medicines, statins and glucose lowering drugs will not be able to fully address the hazards of such high BMI levels,<sup>7</sup> and bariatric surgery may be the most effective intervention for weight loss and disease prevention and remission.<sup>37</sup> However, long-term health outcomes of bariatric surgery are largely unknown and it is not accessible to most people in low- and middle-income countries due to financial and health systems barriers.

Current interventions and policies have not been able to stop the rise in BMI in most countries.<sup>38-</sup>

<sup>40</sup> The global NCD target on obesity, although ambitious in the light of past trends, has engendered a new look at policies that may slow down and stop the worldwide rise in BMI.<sup>40-42</sup> To avoid an

epidemic of severe obesity, the next step must be to implement these policies, and to systematically evaluate their impact.<sup>43</sup>

## **Research in Context**

### *Evidence before this study*

We searched Medline (via PubMed) using the search terms “body size”[mh:noexp] OR “body height”[mh:noexp] OR “body weight”[mh:noexp] OR “birth weight”[mh:noexp] OR “overweight”[mh:noexp] OR “obesity”[mh] OR “thinness”[mh:noexp] OR “Waist-Hip Ratio”[mh:noexp] or “Waist Circumference”[mh:noexp] or “body mass index” [mh:noexp]) AND (“Humans”[mh]) AND (“1950”[PDAT] : “2013”[PDAT]) AND (“Health Surveys”[mh] OR “Epidemiological Monitoring”[mh] OR “Prevalence”[mh]) NOT Comment[ptyp] NOT Case Reports[ptyp]. Articles were screened according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria described in the Appendix.

The only study on trends in mean BMI,<sup>11</sup> which characterises shifts in the population distribution of BMI, reported trends to 2008 before the global target on obesity was agreed upon, and there are no recent data. Two previous studies estimated global trends in the prevalences of overweight and obesity.<sup>11-13</sup> Neither study reported trends in underweight, which is associated with increased risk of morbidity, mortality and adverse pregnancy outcomes, and in high levels of BMI, e.g.,  $\geq 35$  or  $\geq 40 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , which are associated with substantial risks of many NCDs.

### *Added value of this study*

This study provides the longest and most complete picture of trends in adult BMI including, for the first time, in underweight and severe and morbid obesity that are of enormous clinical and public health interest. We were able to robustly depict this rich picture by re-analysing and pooling hundreds of population-based sources with actual measurements of height and weight according

to a common protocol. We also systematically projected recent trends into the future, and assessed the probability of achieving the global obesity target.

*Implications of all the available evidence*

The world has transitioned from an era when underweight prevalence was more than double that of obesity, to one in which more people are obese than underweight. Underweight however remains a public health problem in the world's poorest regions, namely South Asia and Central and East Africa. If current trends continue, the world not only will not meet the global obesity target, but also severe obesity will surpass underweight among women by 2025.

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## **Acknowledgements**

We thank Christina Banks, Quentin Hennocq, Dheeya Rizmie, and Yasaman Vali for assistance with data extraction. We thank WHO country and regional offices and World Heart Federation for support in data identification and access.

## **Contributions**

ME designed the study and oversaw research. Members of the Country and Regional Data Group collected and reanalysed data, and checked pooled data for accuracy of information about their study and other studies in their country. MDC and GAS led data collection and JB led the statistical analysis and prepared results. Members of the Pooled Analysis and Writing Group collated data, checked all data sources in consultation with the Country and Regional Data Group, analysed pooled data, and prepared results. ME wrote the first draft of the report with input from other members of Pooled Analysis and Writing Group. Members of Country and Regional Data Group commented on draft report.

## **Conflict of interest**

Dr. Miranda reports funding from Medtronics Foundation, outside the submitted work.

Figure 1: Trends in age-standardised mean BMI by sex and region. See Appendix Figure 8 for trends by country.



Figure 2: Age-standardised mean BMI by sex and country in 1975 and 2014. See Appendix Table 4 for numerical results.

Figure 3: Comparison of average change in age-standardised mean BMI before and after the year 2000. Each point shows one country. A: countries in which mean BMI increased more rapidly after 2000 than it had before 2000; B: countries in which mean BMI increased more slowly after 2000 than it had before 2000; C: countries in which mean BMI increased before 2000 but decreased after 2000; D: countries in which mean BMI decreased more rapidly after 2000 than it had before 2000; E: countries in which mean BMI decreased more slowly after 2000 than it had before 2000; F: countries in which BMI decreased before 2000 but increased after 2000.

Figure 4: Trends in age-standardised prevalences of BMI categories by sex and region. See Appendix Figure 8 for results by country.

Figure 5: Age-standardised prevalence by sex and country in 2014 for underweight (BMI < 18.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>); obesity (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>); and severe obesity (BMI ≥ 35 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). See Appendix Table 5 for numerical results for all BMI ranges.

Figure 6: Trends in the number of obese ( $\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) and severely obese ( $\text{BMI} \geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) people, by region.

Figure 7: Ten countries with the largest number of underweight ( $\text{BMI} < 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ), obese ( $\text{BMI} \geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ), and severely obese ( $\text{BMI} \geq 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) people in 1975 and 2014. Colours for each country indicate its region, using the same colour scheme as in Figure 3.

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