

## **Preconception health in adolescence and adulthood across generations in the UK: findings from three British birth cohort studies**

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**NOTE: This preprint reports new research that has not been certified by peer review and should not be used to guide clinical practice.**

## 1 **Abstract**

2 Optimising preconception health in women and men holds significant potential for improving  
3 pregnancy and offspring health outcomes. To create a picture of the state of preconception  
4 health in the UK, this study aimed to describe the prevalence of and changes in preconception  
5 health indicators reported in three British birth cohort studies: the 1970 British Birth Cohort  
6 Study (BCS70; born in 1970; N=17,198), Next Steps (1989-1990; N=15,770), and Millennium  
7 Cohort Study (MCS; 2000-2002; N=19,517). The analysis focused on data obtained during  
8 participants' adolescence (16-17 years) and subsequent follow-ups at 25-26 years for BCS70  
9 and Next Steps. Self-reported preconception indicators were defined in line with a previously  
10 published review and reported as proportions.

11 Across cohorts, data were available for 14 preconception indicators across four domains:  
12 health behaviours and weight, reproductive health and family planning, physical health  
13 conditions, and wider determinants of health. Findings revealed persistent suboptimal health  
14 behaviours in both genders and across generations, including low intakes of fruit. While  
15 alcohol, tobacco, and soft drink intake decreased across generations, obesity prevalence  
16 surged. This study underscores the need for public health interventions targeting the root  
17 causes of adverse health behaviours towards improvement of fruit consumption, further  
18 reduction in alcohol, tobacco, and soft drink consumption, and addressing the escalating  
19 obesity rates among individuals of reproductive age. Ongoing monitoring is needed to  
20 continue tracking these existing indicators over time, while improved data quality and  
21 availability of a wider range of preconception indicators are crucial to comprehensively  
22 understanding the complexities of preconception health, enabling the development of more  
23 targeted and effective interventions.

## 24 Introduction

25 A life-course approach to improving maternal, paternal, and child health outcomes by  
26 optimising parental health before conception, known as preconception health, has attracted  
27 interest on a global scale (1). Such an approach is supported by evidence from developmental  
28 biology and epidemiological studies that improving preconception health in women and men  
29 represents an opportunity to improve pregnancy outcomes, prevent non-communicable  
30 diseases in both parents and their offspring, and thus improve the overall health of two  
31 generations at a minimum (2–5).

32 Recent evidence from national population-based studies suggests most women in the UK  
33 enter pregnancy with risk factors for pregnancy and birth complications (6,7). For example,  
34 among women with an antenatal booking appointment in 2018-19, 73% did not take a folic  
35 acid supplement before pregnancy, 22% were living with obesity, and 24% had at least one  
36 mental or physical health condition (6). These risk factors are common even among women  
37 actively planning pregnancy (7) and disproportionately affect women from disadvantaged  
38 backgrounds (6).

39 Current initiatives to optimise and reduce inequalities in preconception health in the UK exist  
40 at both the individual and population levels (8). At the individual level, primary healthcare  
41 professionals are, for example, encouraged to assess and manage risk factors in women and  
42 couples who are planning a pregnancy (9). Population-level public health strategies can lead  
43 to community-level benefits that include improving preconception health by contributing to  
44 reducing health inequalities (10). Examples include mandatory flour fortification with folic acid  
45 (11), the Soft Drinks Industry Levy (12) and calorie labelling legislation (13).

46 To monitor progress made towards improving preconception health and to inform and evaluate  
47 existing and new initiatives, the UK Preconception Partnership has laid out a framework and  
48 made recommendations for the annual reporting of preconception health indicators in England  
49 (6,8,14). To date, women's preconception health in England has been described in a first

50 report card using antenatal booking (first) appointment data from the National Maternity  
51 Services Dataset 2018-19 (6). Further work is underway to develop a Preconception Health  
52 Profile within the UK government Office for Health Improvement and Disparities' existing  
53 surveillance platform to support the annual reporting of preconception indicators (6). Antenatal  
54 booking appointment data from the Maternity Services Dataset provides an initial picture of  
55 preconception health among women who are pregnant. However, there is currently no national  
56 picture of preconception health among men and women of reproductive age across  
57 adolescence and adulthood, irrespective of their pregnancy intention and pregnancy status.  
58 Such data would inform, develop, and evaluate health initiatives at key stages prior to  
59 pregnancy and track progress made towards improving the health of people who may become  
60 pregnant in the future. The present study therefore aimed to identify and describe  
61 preconception indicators reported among women and men during adolescence and adulthood  
62 in three British birth cohort studies (across generations) while also exploring how these  
63 indicators changed for cohort members over time.

## 64 **Materials and Methods**

### 65 **Study design and population**

66 This study used data from three ongoing longitudinal birth cohort studies, including the 1970  
67 British Birth Cohort Study (BCS70), Next Steps, and the Millennium Cohort Study (MCS) (15–  
68 17). Each of these studies follows large, nationally representative groups of people born in the  
69 UK and collects information on health and wellbeing, education, employment, and economic  
70 circumstances, among other factors. Data are collected through a combination of phone  
71 interviews, face-to-face interviews, self-completion questionnaires, interviewer-administered  
72 questionnaires, and parental interviews. The most recent data collection time points (sweeps)  
73 for each of these birth cohort studies were among individuals of reproductive age (15 – 49  
74 years) and, therefore, relevant to contemporary preconception health (**Table 1**).

75

76 **Table 1. Overview of data collection sweeps for British birth cohort studies included in**  
 77 **the current analysis<sup>a</sup>**

1970 British Cohort Study		Next Steps		Millennium Cohort Study	
Year	Participant age (years)	Year	Participant age (years)	Year	Participant age (years)
1970	Birth	2004	14	2001	9 months
1975	5	2005	15	2004	3
1980	10	2006	16 <sup>a</sup>	2006	5
1986	16 <sup>a</sup>	2007	17	2008	7
1996	26 <sup>a</sup>	2008	18	2012	11
2000	30	2009	19	2015	14
2004	34	2010	20	2018	17 <sup>a</sup>
2008	38	2015	25 <sup>a</sup>	2023	23
2012	42	2022	32		
2016	46				
2021	51				

78 <sup>a</sup> Sweeps used in the current study based on the alignment of age at the time of data collected during  
 79 the reproductive years

80

81 The BCS70 follows a sample of all people (around 17,000) born in England, Scotland, and  
 82 Wales during one week in 1970 when data were initially collected from mothers and medical  
 83 records (15). BCS70 has conducted 11 survey sweeps to date, with the latest sweep  
 84 conducted in 2021 at age 51 (**Table 1**). Next Steps, previously known as the Longitudinal  
 85 Study of Young People in England (LSYPE), follows a sample of around 16,000 people born  
 86 in England between 1<sup>st</sup> September 1989 and 31<sup>st</sup> August 1990 (16). The study began in 2004  
 87 when cohort members were 14 years old. The study was sampled using schools and  
 88 additionally stratified by deprivation levels of those schools, oversampling more deprived  
 89 schools and oversampling pupils from minority ethnic groups. Design weights were used to  
 90 return the cohort to representative proportions of individuals from each ethnic group and  
 91 deprivation stratum. Cohort members were surveyed yearly until 2010, then in 2015 at age  
 92 25, and the latest sweep was conducted in 2022 at age 32. The MCS follows a sample of  
 93 around 19,000 people born across England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland from 2000-  
 94 2002 (17). Children from ethnic minorities and disadvantaged backgrounds were oversampled  
 95 at recruitment, which was accounted for by weighting. There have been seven MCS sweeps,  
 96 the most recent of which was conducted in 2023 when cohort members were 23 years of age.

97 For the present study, to allow for comparison of preconception indicators between cohorts,  
98 sweeps were selected for analysis based on the cohort members' age at the time of data  
99 collection (i.e., aged 15-49 and comparable age across all three cohorts) (**Table 1**). All three  
100 studies conducted a sweep when cohort members were aged 16 or 17 and 25 or 26 years,  
101 except MCS, which conducted the latest sweep at age 23 in 2023.

102

### 103 **Preconception indicators**

104 Preconception indicators for analysis were based on a previous scoping review by  
105 Schoenaker et al (14). Briefly, this scoping review identified indicators relevant to  
106 preconception health based on national and international clinical guidelines and policy  
107 documents. Preconception indicators were defined as social, behavioural, or medical risk  
108 factors or exposures, as well as their wider determinants, that may impact future pregnancies  
109 among all individuals of reproductive age. A total of 66 indicators were identified and grouped  
110 into 12 domains, spanning wider determinants of health, healthcare, emotional and social  
111 health and support, reproductive health and family planning, health behaviours and weight,  
112 immunisations and infections, mental and physical health conditions, medication, and genetic  
113 risk.

114 Data dictionaries for each relevant sweep in the BCS70, Next Steps and MCS were searched  
115 to identify which of the 66 preconception indicators were assessed. The process of searching  
116 the individual data dictionaries was conducted independently by two researchers (OR and DS)  
117 to minimise the risk of error. Relevant variables were selected for inclusion if data could be  
118 used to define preconception indicators in line with those proposed in Schoenaker et al (14)  
119 and indicators were reported in at least two sweeps across all included cohorts.

120 Education and employment data were available at age 16/17 for all three cohorts. However,  
121 the age 16/17 sweeps were not included in the analysis due to the school leaving age in the  
122 UK being around or after this age and varying between cohorts.

## 123 **Statistical analysis**

124 Variables were re-coded in line with preconception indicator definitions proposed in  
125 Schoenaker et al (14) (**S1 Table**). Number of participants and percentages were calculated  
126 for each preconception indicator, stratified by sex (female and male). Most indicators were  
127 relevant to females only based on reviewing clinical guidelines and policies, but some were  
128 also relevant to males, such as smoking, obesity, and diabetes (14). Chi-squared tests were  
129 used to compare the prevalence of indicators between; 1) sweeps at age 16/17 and age 25/26  
130 within a cohort (change across age), and 2) sweeps that included participants of a similar age  
131 across cohorts (change across generations), where relevant data were available. All statistical  
132 analyses were conducted using *Stata* version 17.0.

## 133 **Ethical approval**

134 Ethical approval was secured by the Centre for Longitudinal Studies from the National Health  
135 Service (NHS) Research Ethics Committee, and all participants have given informed consent  
136 (15–17). The BCS70, Next Steps and MCS datasets were accessed via the UK Data Service  
137 (18). Access requires registration with the UK Data Service and acceptance of their End User  
138 Licence (EUL). All applicable conditions were complied with in this study.

## 139 **Results**

140 Data were available on 14 preconception indicators (25 indicator measures e.g., underweight,  
141 overweight, and obesity as measures within the ‘weight’ indicator) across four domains: wider  
142 determinants of health, reproductive health and family planning, health behaviours and weight,  
143 and physical health conditions (**Table 2**). Data on other preconception indicators, were not  
144 reported in any of the cohorts (e.g., folic acid supplementation or cervical screening) or were  
145 not consistently assessed in at least two sweeps across all included cohorts (e.g., mental  
146 health condition or contraception) (**S2 Table**). The maximum sample size was 11,615 and  
147 9,003 for BCS70 at ages 16 and 26, respectively. Next Steps included 12,439 and 7,707

148 participants at ages 16 and 25, respectively, while 10,757 participants completed the MCS-  
149 17y sweep. Each sweep included approximately 50% female and male participants.

## 150 **Wider determinants of health**

### 151 *Ethnicity*

152 The ethnicity indicator, defined as the “percentage of women from a minority ethnic group”,  
153 was assessed in BCS70-16y, BCS70-26y, Next Steps-16y, and Next Steps-25y. In BCS70-  
154 16y, 6.5% of participants were from an ethnic minority group, which was slightly lower at 4.8%  
155 in BCS70-26y. In Next Steps-16y and Next Steps-26y, 33.6% and 31.4% of participants were  
156 from an ethnic minority group (**Table 2**).

### 157 *Education*

158 The education indicator, defined as the “percentage of women who had not completed high  
159 school education” (i.e., before completing A Levels or equivalent in the UK system), was  
160 reported in BCS70-26y and Next Steps-25y. In BCS70-26y, 58.9% of participants had not  
161 completed high school, compared to a significantly lower 55.2% in Next Steps-26y ( $p<0.0001$ )  
162 (**Table 2**).

### 163 *Employment*

164 The employment indicator, defined as the “percentage of women unemployed and seeking  
165 work”, was reported in BCS70-26y and Next Steps-25y. In BCS70-26y, 5.2% of participants  
166 were unemployed and seeking work, compared to 6.2% in Next Steps-26y ( $p=0.15$ ) (**Table 2**).



167 **Table 2. Prevalence of preconception indicators and changes across three British birth cohorts**

Preconception indicator	BCS70		Next Steps		MCS	p value comparing cohorts at age 16/17	p value comparing cohorts at age 26/27
	Age 16 n (%)	Age 26 n (%)	Age 16/17 n (%)	Age 25 n (%)	Age 17 n (%)		
<b>Wider determinants of health</b>							
Ethnic minority <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,068 198 (6.5)	N = 2,328 111 (4.8)	N = 5,753 1,930 (33.6)	N = 5,598 1,757 (31.4)		<0.0001	<0.0001
Not completed high school education <sup>a</sup>		N = 4,831 2,843 (58.9)		N = 4,281 2,382 (55.2)			<0.0001
Unemployed and seeking work <sup>a</sup>		N = 1,578 82 (5.2)		N = 4,266 265 (6.2)			0.15
Homeless <sup>a</sup>				N = 4,269 59 (1.4)	N = 3,913 (<1%)		
Language other than English usually spoken at home <sup>a</sup>	N = 4,775 220 (4.6)				N = 2,623 29 (1.1)	<0.0001	
<b>Reproductive health and family planning</b>							
Previous pregnancy loss <sup>a</sup>				N = 3,099 697 (22.5)	N = 79 55 (69.6)		
<b>Health behaviours and weight</b>							
Fruit not consumed daily <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,004 2,089 (69.5)				N = 2,638 1,950 (73.9)	<0.0001	
Fruit not consumed daily <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,204 1,683 (76.4)				N = 2,312 1,730 (74.8)	0.23	
Soft drink consumption >1 serve/day <sup>a</sup>	N = 2,981 709 (23.8)			N = 4,170 893 (21.4)	N = 2,629 478 (18.2)	<0.0001	
Soft drink consumption >1 serve/day <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,184 673 (30.8)			N = 3,333 914 (27.4)	N = 2,308 429 (18.6)	<0.0001	
Underweight (BMI <18.5 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,015 327 (10.9)			N = 4,281 180 (4.2)	N = 3,682 248 (6.7)	<0.0001	
Overweight (BMI 25.0-29.9 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,015 387 (13.2)			N = 4,281 861 (20.1)	N = 3,682 751 (20.4)	<0.0001	
Overweight (BMI 25.0-29.9 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,848 297 (10.4)			N = 3,426 1,004 (29.3)	N = 3,251 729 (22.4)	<0.0001	

Preconception indicator	BCS70		Next Steps		MCS		p value comparing cohorts at age 16/17	p value comparing cohorts at age 26/27
	Age 16 n (%)	Age 26 n (%)	Age 16/17 n (%)	Age 25 n (%)	Age 17 n (%)			
Obesity (BMI ≥30 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,015 71 (2.4)			N = 4,281 1,044 (24.4)	N = 3,682 422 (11.5)		<0.0001	
Obesity (BMI ≥30 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,848 59 (2.1)			N = 3,426 636 (18.6)	N = 3,251 398 (12.2)		<0.0001	
Smoking <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,123 717 (23.0)	N = 4,849 1,743 (36.0)	N = 5,932 1,605 (27.1)	N = 4,130 950 (23.0)	N = 3,863 745 (19.3)		<0.0001	<0.0001
Smoking <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,327 464 (19.9)	N = 4,043 1,585 (39.2)	N = 6,054 1,245 (20.6)	N = 3,291 963 (29.3)	N = 3,383 648 (19.2)		0.26	<0.0001
Any alcohol consumption <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,512 3,201 (91.1)	N = 4,833 4,618 (95.6)	N = 5,919 3,975 (67.2)	N = 4,134 3,082 (74.6)	N = 3,876 3,010 (77.7)		<0.0001	<0.0001
Any alcohol consumption <sup>b</sup>	N = 2,569 2,340 (91.1)	N = 4,044 3,903 (96.5)	N = 6,044 4,040 (66.8)	N = 3,294 2,633 (79.9)	N = 3,396 2,623 (77.2)		<0.0001	<0.0001
<b>Physical health conditions</b>								
Epilepsy <sup>a</sup>		N = 4,901 <1%			N = 3,973 <1%			
Epilepsy <sup>b</sup>		N = 4,102 <1%			N = 3,491 <1%			
Diabetes mellitus <sup>a</sup>		N = 4,901 <1%		N = 830 <1%	N = 3,973 <1%			
Diabetes mellitus <sup>b</sup>		N = 4,102 <1%		N = 529 <1%	N = 3,491 <1%			
Asthma <sup>a</sup>	N = 3,026 110 (3.6)	N = 4,901 439 (9.0)						
History of cancer <sup>b</sup>		N = 4,901 <1%		N = 830 <1%				

168 For each preconception indicator, the total sample size (N) is reported, as well as the n (%) for participants categorised as 'yes' for each indicator.

169 <sup>a</sup> Female participants

170 <sup>b</sup> Male participants

171 *Housing*

172 The housing indicator, originally defined as the “percentage of women who do not have access  
173 to safe, comfortable, affordable housing”, was assessed in at least two sweeps across all  
174 included cohorts: Next Steps-25y and MCS-17y. Among Next Steps-25y participants, 1.4%  
175 reported: living in “sheltered housing” or “a hostel for homeless, refuge, YMCA, etc.” and  
176 <1.0% of MCS-17y participants reported being “homeless” (**Table 2**).

177 *Language*

178 The language indicator, defined as the “percentage of women speaking a language other than  
179 English in the home”, was also assessed in two sweeps: BCS70-16y and MCS-17y. In BCS70-  
180 16y, 4.6% of participants reported usually speaking a language other than English at home,  
181 compared to 1.1% in MCS-17y ( $p<0.0001$ ) (**Table 2**).

182 **Reproductive health and family planning**

183 *Obstetric history*

184 The obstetric history indicator, defined as the “percentage of women (who have previously  
185 been pregnant) with a previous miscarriage, termination, or stillbirth”, was assessed in two  
186 sweeps across all included cohorts: Next Steps-25y and in MCS-17y. In Next Steps-25y,  
187 22.5% of participants reported that they had experienced such outcomes, compared to 69.6%  
188 of MCS-17y participants (**Table 2**).

189 **Health behaviours and weight**

190 *Dietary intake*

191 The dietary intake indicator, originally defined as the “percentage of women/men not  
192 consuming a healthy diet in line with the national recommendations” (19), was indirectly  
193 assessed in BCS70-16y, Next Steps-25y and MCS-17y (**Table 2**). Two of these sweeps  
194 assessed fruit consumption (BCS70-16y and MCS-17y) and three assessed soft drink

195 consumption (BCS70-16y, Next Steps-25y and MCS-17y) that could be compared to the UK  
196 recommendations (20).

197 At age 16/17, 69.5% and 73.9% of female participants in BCS70-16y and MCS-17y did not  
198 consume fruit daily, respectively ( $p<0.0001$ ). Moreover, in BCS70-16y, 23.8% of female  
199 participants consumed more than one glass of soft drink per day compared to 18.2% of MCS-  
200 17y female participants ( $p<0.0001$ ). Among male participants, there was no significant  
201 difference in the proportion who did not consume fruit daily (76.4% in BCS70-16y and 74.8%  
202 in MCS-17y,  $p=0.23$ ), but similar to female participants, consuming more than one glass of  
203 soft drink per day was more common among male participants in BCS70-16y (30.8%)  
204 compared to MCS-17y (18.6%) ( $p<0.0001$ ). At age 25, excess soft drink consumption was  
205 21.4% among female participants and 27.4% among male participants in Next Steps-25y.

#### 206 *Weight*

207 The weight indicator, defined as the “percentage of women in the underweight, and  
208 women/men in the overweight and obesity BMI categories”, was assessed in three sweeps  
209 across all included cohorts: BCS70-16y, Next Steps-25y and MCS-17y.

210 At age 16/17, the proportion of female participants with underweight (10.9% and 6.7%),  
211 overweight (13.2% and 20.4%) and obesity (2.4% and 11.5%) was significantly different in  
212 BCS70-16y and MCS-17y, respectively ( $p<0.0001$ ). A similar pattern of results was observed  
213 for male participants, with the proportions increasing across subsequent cohorts for  
214 overweight (10.4% and 22.4% in BCS70-16y and MCS-17y, respectively) and obesity (2.1%  
215 and 12.2) ( $p<0.0001$ ). At age 25, the proportion of female participants with overweight was  
216 20.1%, and 24.4% had obesity. These proportions were 29.3% and 18.6% for overweight and  
217 obesity among male participants, respectively (**Table 2**).

#### 218 *Tobacco use*

219 The tobacco use indicator, defined as the “percentage of women/men who currently smoke”,  
220 was assessed in all included sweeps. Among female participants, the proportion of those aged  
221 16/17 who smoked was significantly different across sweeps: 23.0% in BCS70-16y, 27.1% in  
222 Next Steps-16y and 19.3% in MCS-17y ( $p<0.0001$ ). These differences were not observed for  
223 male participants who smoked at age 16/17: 19.9% in BCS70-16y, 20.6% in Next Steps-16y  
224 and 19.2% in MCS17y ( $p=0.26$ ). At age 25/26, the proportion of both female and male  
225 participants who smoked was significantly lower in Next Steps-25y (23.0% and 29.3%,  
226 respectively) compared with BCS70-26y (36.0% and 39.2%) ( $p<0.0001$ ).

227 These study populations were restricted to those with data at age 16/17 and age 25/26 for  
228 BCS70 and Next Steps to show that the proportions of female and male participants who  
229 smoked at age 25/26 were significantly higher (30.7% and 31.8% in BCS70 and 22.7% and  
230 29.3% in Next Steps, respectively) compared with the same participants at age 16/17 (21.8%  
231 and 18.2% in BCS70 and 24.6% and 16.7% in Next Steps) ( $p<0.0001$ ) (**Table 3**).

### 232 *Alcohol consumption*

233 The alcohol consumption indicator, defined as the “percentage of women/men who consume  
234 any alcohol”, was assessed in all included sweeps. Among female participants, the proportion  
235 of those aged 16/17 who consumed any alcohol was significantly different across sweeps:  
236 91.1% in BCS70-16y, 67.2% in Next Steps-16y and 77.7% in MCS-17y ( $p<0.0001$ ). Alcohol  
237 consumption among male participants at age 16/17 followed a similar pattern: 91.1% in  
238 BCS70-16y, 66.8% in Next Steps-16y and 77.2% in MCS17y ( $p<0.0001$ ). At age 25/26, the  
239 proportion of both female and male participants who consumed any alcohol was significantly  
240 lower in Next Steps-25y (74.6% and 79.9%, respectively) compared with BCS70-26y (95.6%  
241 and 96.5%) ( $p<0.0001$ ) (**Table 2**).

242 **Table 3. Prevalence of preconception indicators and changes across age in three British birth cohorts**

Preconception indicator	BCS70		p value	Next Steps		p value
	Age 16 n (%)	Age 26 n (%)		Age 16/17 n (%)	Age 25 n (%)	
<b>Health behaviours and weight</b>						
Smoking <sup>a</sup>	N = 2,361 515 (21.8)	N = 2,361 724 (30.7)	<0.0001	N = 3,531 870 (24.6)	N = 3,531 802 (22.7)	<0.0001
Smoking <sup>b</sup>	N = 1,487 270 (18.2)	N = 1,487 473 (31.8)		<0.0001	N = 2,833 473 (16.7)	
Any alcohol consumption <sup>a</sup>	N = 2,630 2,413 (91.8)	N = 2,630 2,525 (96.0)	<0.0001	N = 3,529 2,442 (69.2)	N = 3,529 2,661 (75.4)	<0.0001
Any alcohol consumption <sup>b</sup>	N = 1,670 1,545 (92.5)	N = 1,670 1,619 (97.0)		<0.0001	N = 2,823 1,897 (67.2)	
<b>Physical health conditions</b>						
Asthma <sup>a</sup>	N = 2,183 80 (3.7)	N = 2,183 182 (8.3)	<0.0001			

243 For each preconception indicator, the total sample size (N) is reported, as well as the n (%) for participants categorised as  
244 'yes' for each indicator.

245 For this analysis comparing the prevalence of an indicator across sweeps within a cohort, the sample size is restricted to  
246 participants with valid data at both sweeps.

247 <sup>a</sup> Female participants

248 <sup>b</sup> Male participants

249 When restricting these study populations to those with data at age 16/17 and age 25/26 for  
250 BCS70 and Next Steps, proportions of female and male participants who consumed any  
251 alcohol at age 25/26 was slightly higher (96.0% and 97.0% in BCS70 and 75.4% and 81.3%  
252 in Next Steps, respectively) compared with the same participants at age 16/17 (91.8% and  
253 92.5% in BCS70 and 69.2% and 67.2% in Next Steps, respectively) ( $p < 0.0001$ ) (**Table 3**).

## 254 **Physical health conditions**

255 In terms of physical health conditions, epilepsy, diabetes mellitus, asthma, and cancer were  
256 assessed in at least two sweeps across all included cohorts (**Table 2**). The proportion of  
257 participants with epilepsy (female and male; BCS70-26y, MCS-17y), diabetes mellitus (female  
258 and male; BCS70-26y, Next Steps-25y, MCS-17y) and cancer (female; Next Steps-25y,  
259 BCS70-26y) was  $< 1.0\%$  at each sweep. The asthma indicator, originally defined as the  
260 “percentage of women with (uncontrolled or unreviewed) asthma”, was assessed in BCS70-  
261 16y and BCS70-26y, with the proportion of female participants reporting asthma significantly  
262 increased between these time points from 3.7% to 8.3% ( $p < 0.0001$ ) (**Table 3**).

## 263 **Discussion**

264 This study aimed to identify and describe preconception indicators in men and women across  
265 adolescence and adulthood in three British birth cohort studies, examining changes over time  
266 across age and between generations. In sweeps conducted at ages 16/17 and 25/26 years,  
267 data were available on 14 preconception indicators across four domains: health behaviours  
268 and weight, reproductive health and family planning, physical health conditions, and wider  
269 determinants of health.

270 The study revealed persistent suboptimal preconception health behaviours across  
271 generations during adolescence and adulthood, affecting both females and males. The  
272 prevalence of overweight and obesity displayed an upward trajectory over time, with  
273 adolescents in the MCS-17y cohort being around five times (females) to six times (males)  
274 more likely to live with obesity when compared to their counterparts in the BCS70-16y cohort.

275 In the Next Steps-25y cohort, 24.4% of female adults were living with obesity, which is in line  
276 with the 22% obesity rate reported in a prior study involving women attending antenatal  
277 booking appointments in 2018-19 (6). Moreover, this study's findings align with existing  
278 literature indicating a rising trend in obesity among UK adolescents and young adults across  
279 generations (5) and underscores the urgent need for preconception obesity prevention and  
280 weight management to mitigate pregnancy-related complications associated with elevated  
281 BMI, such as gestational diabetes, preeclampsia, and intrauterine death (21).

282 Suboptimal dietary intakes were observed across all three cohorts in females and males. A  
283 substantial majority of both female and male adolescents in BCS70-16y (69.5% and 76.4%,  
284 respectively) and MCS-17y (73.9% and 74.8%) did not consume a portion of fruit daily. This  
285 aligns with prior studies, including the UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey (2019), which  
286 found that 76% of women and men aged 19-64 consumed fewer than five portions of fruit and  
287 vegetables each day (22). These consistent findings suggest that more attention is needed at  
288 a population level to encourage fruit consumption in those of reproductive age, for example,  
289 through increasing awareness about the nutritional value of fruit, emphasising its role in  
290 providing nutrients which are vital for overall health and are especially important to support  
291 sperm and egg quality and contribute to improved preconception health (23).

292 Sugar-sweetened soft drinks are classified under "foods high in sugar and fat" in The Eatwell  
293 Guide (19), which are recommended to be consumed "less often [than daily] and in smaller  
294 amounts". Data from BCS70-16y and MCS-17y revealed high weekly intakes among  
295 adolescents in both cohorts, with between 18.2% (females, MCS017y) and 30.8% (males,  
296 BCS70-16y) of participants drinking at least one serving per day. However, a significant  
297 decline in intakes between cohorts was observed, potentially indicative of heightened public  
298 awareness following the introduction of the Soft Drinks Industry Levy in April 2018 (12) and  
299 an increased choice of alternatives in the marketplace, such as flavoured waters and sugar-  
300 free soft drinks.



301 Similarly, a decline was observed in any alcohol consumption between cohorts. However, in  
302 all five cohorts, most women and girls reported drinking some alcohol, which warrants greater  
303 attention given the association between maternal preconception exposure to alcohol and  
304 adverse perinatal outcomes independent of gestational exposure (24). Similarly, most men  
305 and boys in all five sweeps reported drinking some alcohol, albeit with a discernible decline  
306 among female and male adolescents and adults across generations. Moreover, national data  
307 indicate that the amount drinkers report consuming has fallen in the UK since 2005, particularly  
308 among younger drinkers (25).

309 Tobacco use data revealed a significant decrease in smoking prevalence among both female  
310 and male adults between BCS70-26y and Next Steps-25y. This finding aligns with existing  
311 data indicating that the proportion of those aged 16 and over smoking tobacco in Great Britain  
312 has declined since 1974, when national surveys on smoking began (26). When the study  
313 populations were restricted to those with data at age 16/17 and age 25/26 for BCS70 and Next  
314 Steps, a higher percentage of both females and males reported smoking at age 25/26 (30.7%  
315 and 31.8%, respectively) compared to when they were 16/17 (21.8% and 18.2% respectively),  
316 emphasising the importance of ongoing public health campaigns and policies to discourage  
317 tobacco consumption among those of reproductive age. Insufficient research exists on the  
318 safety of e-cigarettes during the preconception period and pregnancy (27). More data are  
319 needed to comprehensively evaluate vaping behaviours among those of reproductive age to  
320 foster a nuanced understanding of the associated health implications. Since almost half of all  
321 pregnancies are unplanned (28), many women of reproductive age will become pregnant  
322 without realising it. Thus, preconception and early prenatal exposure to smoking and vaping  
323 are likely to impact pregnancy and offspring outcomes.

324 This study found a consistently low prevalence (<1%) of physical health conditions, including  
325 epilepsy, diabetes mellitus, asthma, and cancer, across sweeps. However, existing evidence  
326 shows a rapid rise in pregestational type 2 diabetes mellitus between 1995 and 2012 in the  
327 UK (29). Moreover, increases of 33-44% of pregnancies complicated by type 1 diabetes and

328 90-111% of pregnancies complicated by type 2 diabetes have been reported in Northern  
329 Europe (30,31). These data highlight the importance of ongoing monitoring of physical health  
330 conditions due to their potential impact on pregnancy outcomes and the need for specialised  
331 care pathways (32).

332 Regarding wider determinants of health, this study revealed varying proportions of ethnic  
333 minority study participants across the cohorts, reflecting deliberate oversampling of ethnic  
334 minority groups (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black African, Black Caribbean, and Mixed)  
335 to ensure adequate sample sizes (33). UK census data show an increase in the proportion of  
336 the population who are from an ethnic minority background (from 13.8% in 2011 to 18.0% in  
337 2021) (34). While we recognise that ethnicity as a preconception indicator is not modifiable,  
338 ethnic inequalities in health have been linked to wider social, economic, and environmental  
339 factors (35). Public health interventions addressing such (intersectional) inequalities in ethnic  
340 minority communities are therefore highly relevant to improving population-level  
341 preconception health (36,37). Educational differences were also evident, with slightly fewer  
342 BCS70-16y females completing high school compared to Next Steps-26y (58.9% vs. 55.2%,  
343 respectively) in line with trends observed in UK census data (38). These findings highlight the  
344 importance of tailoring public health interventions and healthcare to changing social and  
345 cultural contexts to ensure equitable reproductive health outcomes.

346

### 347 **Strengths and limitations**

348 This study provides a picture of preconception health over three generations, strengthened by  
349 the large-scale national datasets and reflecting the changing demographics in the UK,  
350 particularly the increasing representation of ethnic minority groups in later cohorts. However,  
351 it is not without limitations. Foremost among these limitations is the substantial proportion of  
352 preconception indicators (52 out of 66) that were either inconsistently reported across cohorts  
353 due to variance in definitions or questions or not collected entirely. The unavailability of data

354 curtailed both the inter-cohort comparability and impeded the study's ability to paint a full  
355 picture of preconception health. For example, none of the datasets in this study assessed  
356 intention to conceive, which is an especially important indicator in the context of preconception  
357 health and its heightened relevance to those planning pregnancy. Moreover, even though data  
358 were available on some health behaviours such as diet, alcohol consumption and smoking,  
359 data on physical activity were not or inconsistently recorded across the sweeps. Pregnancy  
360 intention and physical activity data are also not routinely collected in healthcare datasets  
361 (6,14), highlighting a gap in national surveillance for these key preconception indicators.

362 Secondly, missing data was a limitation of this study, as not all cohort members answered all  
363 questions. For example, only 44.8% of BCS70-16y cohort members (5,208 out of 11,622)  
364 reported their fruit intake. The potential non-random nature of this missing data raises  
365 concerns about potential bias, cautioning the interpretation of findings. Furthermore, although  
366 common in longitudinal studies, the loss-to-follow-up may mean the cohort samples were not  
367 as representative of the UK population in later sweeps as in earlier sweeps, depending on  
368 which individuals dropped out, again emphasising the need for careful result interpretation.

369 Reliance on self-reported data may also have introduced bias, as participants may have  
370 provided subjective or socially desirable responses, affecting the accuracy of the findings.  
371 Finally, the study was limited by a lack of indicator detail. Limited detail in distinguishing  
372 pregnancy complications may explain the observed disparity between women from Next  
373 Steps-25y and girls from MCS-17y who reported pregnancy complications (22.5% and 69.6%,  
374 respectively). For example, more adolescents in MCS-17y may have accounted for pregnancy  
375 termination as a complication, while adult women in Next Steps-25y may not have categorised  
376 it as such, especially in cases of unintended teenage pregnancies. Moreover, dietary  
377 measures didn't align precisely with the categories in The Eatwell Guide (19). For instance,  
378 "take-aways" (Next Steps-25y) and "fast food" (MCS-17y) frequencies might not truly  
379 represent habitual consumption of "foods high in sugar and fat" which is why we couldn't

380 include this in the analysis. Additionally, cross-cohort comparisons were restricted to fresh fruit  
381 and soft drink intake, which may not adequately reflect overall diet quality.

382

### 383 **Implications**

384 Despite its limitations, this study's findings contribute to understanding the current state of  
385 preconception health among adolescent and adult women and men in the UK, and how this  
386 has changed across generations. The findings highlight the need to identify and support  
387 individuals who are planning pregnancy, for example through healthcare interactions, but also  
388 the need for public health strategies that reach everyone, irrespective of pregnancy intention,  
389 from as early as adolescence, to reduce common risk factors that are often shaped by  
390 structural social, economic and environmental determinants. The findings also call for the use  
391 of standardised questions and data collection on key public health measures across sweeps  
392 and birth cohorts, to support ongoing monitoring of preconception health indicators in British  
393 birth cohorts. This could be used alongside other data sources to track progress towards  
394 optimising preconception health across critical life stages in women and men who may  
395 become pregnant, and inform the need for and development of new strategies.

396

### 397 **Conclusion**

398 The findings of this study add to a body of research indicating that, while trends in  
399 preconception tobacco and soft drink consumption have decreased, overweight and obesity  
400 have increased, and fresh fruit consumption remains low. Since almost half of all pregnancies  
401 are unplanned, many women of reproductive age will become pregnant without realising it.  
402 Thus, the suboptimal health behaviours observed in this study are highly likely to impact  
403 pregnancy and offspring outcomes through preconception and early prenatal exposure. These  
404 findings serve as essential benchmarks for designing targeted interventions and shaping

405 public health policies to address obesity, improve dietary patterns, and reduce alcohol and  
406 tobacco consumption further, and to ensure the overall well-being of the preconception  
407 population.

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## **Author contributions**

Conceptualisation: DS

Formal analysis: OR, DS

Methodology: OR, AF, DS

Interpretation: OR, AF, NAA, DS

Writing – original draft: OR

Writing – review & editing: AF, NAA, DS

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## Supporting information captions

**S1 Table.** Overview and definitions of preconception indicators consistently recorded in at least two sweeps at age 16/17 and/or age 25/26 years in the 1970 British Birth Cohort Study (BCS70), Next Steps and Millennium Cohort Study (MCS)

**S2 Table.** List of preconception indicators not consistently recorded in at least two sweeps at age 16/17 and/or age 25/26 years in the 1970 British Birth Cohort Study (BCS70), Next Steps and Millennium Cohort Study (MCS)