



PHARMACOLOGICAL AND NUTRITIONAL MANAGEMENT OF EARLY-ONSET CHILDHOOD OBESITY: THE EMERGING ROLE OF INCRETIN-BASED THERAPIES

María José Romero Benítez

MD. Universidad del Sinú

ABSTRACT

Early-onset childhood obesity has reached epidemic proportions, posing severe long-term cardiometabolic risks. Traditional lifestyle interventions often fail due to biological compensatory mechanisms. This narrative review synthesizes current evidence on the management of pediatric obesity, emphasizing the shift toward a multidisciplinary approach. While nutritional strategies remain the foundation, incretin-based therapies, particularly GLP-1 receptor agonists like semaglutide, have emerged as transformative tools by targeting the neuroendocrine regulation of appetite. The integration of pharmacological and nutritional approaches offers a potent synergy to lower body weight set points and mitigate comorbidities, marking a new era in precision pediatric metabolic medicine.

KEYWORDS : Childhood Obesity; Incretins; GLP-1 Receptor Agonists; Metabolic Programming; Pediatric Pharmacotherapy

INTRODUCTION

Early-onset childhood obesity has solidified as one of the most critical and complex public health challenges of the 21st century. Historically viewed as a temporary growth phase or a result of poor parental discipline, it is now recognized as a chronic, relapsing, and progressive disease. Globally, the magnitude of the problem is alarming: the World Health Organization estimates that over 39 million children under the age of five live with overweight or obesity, with projections suggesting that these numbers will continue to rise in low- and middle-income countries (1).

The consequences of early-onset obesity are not merely aesthetic; they are deeply biological. Children with obesity carry a significantly higher risk of developing "adult" diseases during their first or second decade of life. These include type 2 diabetes (T2D), hypertension, dyslipidemia, and metabolic dysfunction-associated steatotic liver disease (MASLD) (2,3). Furthermore, the persistence of childhood obesity into adulthood is high, creating a cycle of metabolic dysfunction that spans generations.

Methods

To develop this narrative review, an exhaustive search of scientific literature was conducted across four primary databases: PubMed/MEDLINE, Embase, Cochrane Library, and Google Scholar. Health Sciences Descriptors (MeSH) such as "Childhood Obesity," "Incretins," "GLP-1 Receptor Agonists," "Pediatrics," and "Nutritional Management" were utilized. Inclusion criteria focused on meta-analyses, randomized clinical trials (RCTs), and systematic reviews published within the last ten years to ensure contemporary relevance. After a screening process for relevance, methodological rigor, and impact, 15 studies were ultimately selected and included to form the basis of the evidence synthesis presented in this article. These references provide the clinical and physiological scaffolding for the discussion of emerging pharmacological agents.

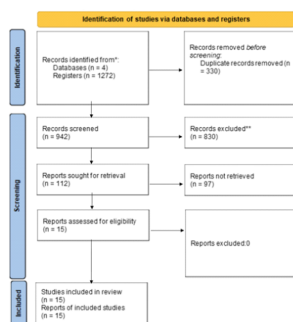


Figure 1. PRISMA.

Definition and Epidemiology of Early-Onset Childhood Obesity

Childhood obesity is defined through the Body Mass Index (BMI) adjusted for age and sex, using growth charts to account for the physiological changes in body composition during development. In children aged 2 to 19 years, obesity is defined as a BMI at or above the 95th percentile of the CDC or WHO reference growth charts (4). "Early-onset" obesity is a specific phenotype referring to those manifesting significant adiposity before the age of 5 to 8 years.

Epidemiologically, the shift has been dramatic. What was once a disease of affluence is now prevalent in all socioeconomic strata. In the United States and parts of Europe, nearly 1 in 5 children are affected by obesity. Early risk factors are multifactorial, rooted in the "first 1,000 days" of life. These include pre-gestational maternal obesity, excessive gestational weight gain, gestational diabetes, maternal smoking, and the absence of exclusive breastfeeding (5). These factors configure an intrauterine and postnatal environment that "programs" the child's metabolism toward fat storage rather than utilization.

Pathophysiology of Early-Onset Obesity Genetic and Epigenetic Factors

While genetic predisposition plays a role through polygenism (the cumulative effect of hundreds of small genetic variations), monogenic forms of obesity are rare but critical in early-onset cases. Deficiencies in the leptin-melanocortin pathway, such as mutations in the MC4R gene, cause extreme hyperphagia and rapid weight gain in infancy. More widespread, however, is epigenetics. Environmental stressors can alter the methylation of DNA, changing how metabolic genes are expressed without altering the sequence itself (6).

Neuroendocrine Regulation of Energy Balance

Energy balance is orchestrated by the hypothalamus, which acts as a "thermostat" for body weight. It integrates peripheral signals like leptin (from fat) and ghrelin (from the stomach). In children with obesity, this system often becomes "set" at a higher point. Leptin resistance is a hallmark of this state; despite having high levels of leptin, the brain perceives a state of starvation, driving the child to consume more calories (7).

Gut-Brain Axis and Metabolic Programming

The gut-brain axis serves as a real-time communication highway. The gut releases hormones upon the arrival of nutrients, signaling the brain to stop eating. In early childhood, this axis is highly plastic. Exposure to ultra-

processed foods can alter the gut microbiota and the sensitivity of enteric nerves, leading to "metabolic programming" that favors weight gain throughout life.

Role of Incretin Hormones in Appetite and Metabolism

Incretins, primarily glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and glucose-dependent insulintropic polypeptide (GIP), are secreted by the intestines. Their primary function is to stimulate insulin secretion in a glucose-dependent manner and, crucially, to cross the blood-brain barrier to promote satiety. In children with obesity, the postprandial incretin response is often blunted or delayed, meaning they do not feel "full" as quickly or for as long as their lean peers (8).

Clinical Consequences of Early-Onset Obesity Cardiometabolic Complications

We are now seeing children as young as 10 with arterial stiffness and carotid intima-media thickening, markers usually reserved for middle-aged adults. Dyslipidemia (high triglycerides, low HDL) is present in nearly 40% of pediatric patients with obesity, creating a "perfect storm" for early cardiovascular events.

Endocrine and Pubertal Effects

Adipose tissue is an active endocrine organ. It converts androgens to estrogens, which can trigger precocious puberty in girls. In contrast, in boys, obesity is often associated with delayed puberty or "pseudo-gynecomastia." Furthermore, the constant demand for insulin leads to beta-cell exhaustion, explaining the rapid progression from prediabetes to T2D in the pediatric population (9).

Psychosocial and Neurocognitive Impact

The psychological burden is often the most immediate for the child. Social isolation, bullying, and systemic weight stigma contribute to high rates of depression and anxiety. From a neurocognitive perspective, chronic low-grade inflammation (neuroinflammation) has been linked to deficits in executive function, making it harder for children with obesity to make healthy decisions—a cruel biological paradox (10).

Nutritional Management Strategies

Early-Life Nutritional Interventions

Nutritional management must begin as early as possible. Supporting breastfeeding for at least the first six months and delaying the introduction of sugar-sweetened beverages are foundational steps. These interventions aim to prevent the "flavor programming" that occurs when infants are overexposed to hyper-palatable foods.

Dietary Patterns for Pediatric Weight Management

The focus has shifted from calorie counting to dietary quality. The "Traffic Light Diet" remains a gold standard in pediatrics, categorizing foods by nutrient density. Increasing fiber intake and focusing on low-glycemic index foods help stabilize blood glucose and improve the endogenous incretin response.

Family-Based and Behavioral Nutritional Approaches

Children do not shop for or cook their own food. Therefore, "family-based behavioral treatment" (FBBT) is the most effective approach. It involves training parents as agents of change, modifying the home food environment, and reducing sedentary "screen time" (11).

Limitations of Lifestyle Interventions Alone

Despite their importance, lifestyle interventions typically yield a 5-10% reduction in BMI, which is often insufficient for those with severe obesity. Furthermore, the high rate of weight regain highlights the need for adjunct therapies that address the underlying biological drivers of hunger.

Pharmacological Treatment of Pediatric Obesity Indications for Pharmacotherapy

Pharmacotherapy is indicated when BMI reaches the 95th percentile with comorbidities or the 120th percentile of the 95th (severe obesity), and after an intensive lifestyle program has been attempted. The goal is to lower the "defended" body weight set point (11).

Currently Approved Anti-Obesity Medications

- **Orlistat:** A lipase inhibitor that prevents fat absorption. While effective, its side effects (steatorrhea, urgency) are poorly tolerated by most adolescents.
- **Metformin:** Although primarily a T2D medication, it is used off-label for weight. Its weight-loss effects are generally modest (BMI reduction of ~3%) but it offers significant metabolic benefits for those with insulin resistance (12).
- **Phentermine/Topiramate:** Recently approved for adolescents over 12, this combination targets appetite via neurotransmitter modulation.

Incretin-Based Therapies in Pediatric Obesity

Physiology and Mechanisms of Action

GLP-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1 RAs) work by mimicking the natural GLP-1 hormone but are resistant to the enzyme DPP-4, which normally breaks it down. They act on the POMC/CART neurons in the hypothalamus to decrease hunger and on the reward centers to decrease the "craving" for high-fat foods. They also delay gastric emptying, providing a physical sensation of fullness.

Liraglutide and Semaglutide

- **Liraglutide (Daily):** In a landmark trial, liraglutide plus lifestyle intervention resulted in a significant reduction in BMI compared to lifestyle alone. It was the first GLP-1 RA approved for pediatric obesity (13).
- **Semaglutide (Weekly):** The STEP TEENS trial was a game-changer. Adolescents treated with once-weekly semaglutide (2.4 mg) saw a mean change in BMI of -16.1%, compared to a +0.6% increase in the placebo group. Over 73% of participants lost at least 5% of their body weight (14,15).

Tirzepatide and Dual Agonists

The newest frontier is Tirzepatide, which agonizes both GLP-1 and GIP receptors. This "twincrin" approach appears to be even more effective than GLP-1 agonists alone in adults, and pediatric trials are currently underway. These molecules provide a level of weight loss previously only achievable through surgery.

CONCLUSIONS

The management of early-onset childhood obesity has moved beyond the "lifestyle-only" era. While nutrition remains the foundation, the advent of incretin-based therapies provides a powerful, biologically-targeted tool for children who previously had few options. By treating the physiological drivers of the disease early, we can prevent the cascade of adult-onset complications and offer these children a healthier, more vibrant future.

References

1. World Health Organization. Obesity and overweight [Internet]. 2024.
2. Jeele H, Kelly AS, O'Malley G, Baur LA. Obesity in children and adolescents: epidemiology, causes, assessment, and management. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2022;10(5):351-65.
3. Lister NB, Baur LA, Felix AS, et al. Child and adolescent obesity: progress and challenges. *Lancet.* 2023;402(10404):803-20.
4. Styne DM, Arslanian SA, Connor EL, et al. Pediatric Obesity—Assessment, Treatment, and Prevention: An Endocrine Society Clinical Practice Guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2017;102(3):709-57.
5. Gurnani M, Birken C, Hamilton J. Childhood Obesity: Causes and Consequences. *Fam Pract.* 2015;32(1):1-10.
6. Van der Klaauw AA, Farooqi IS. The genetic basis of severe childhood obesity. *Genes Dev.* 2015;29(5):424-39.
7. Pamuganti B, Crosby J. Neuroendocrine Regulation of Energy Balance in Children. *Pediatric Clinics.* 2021;68(6):1150-65.
8. Müller TD, Finan B, Bloom SR, et al. Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1). *Mol Metab.* 2019;30:72-130.

9. Kumar S, Kelly AS. Review of Childhood Obesity: From Epidemiology, Etiology, and Comorbidities to Clinical Management. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2017;92(2):251-65.
10. Liang J, Matheson BE, Kaye WH, Boutelle KN. Neurocognitive correlates of obesity and overeating in children and adolescents. *Int J Obes.* 2014;38(4):494-506.
11. Hampl SE, Hassink SG, Skinner AC, et al. Clinical Practice Guideline for the Evaluation and Treatment of Children and Adolescents With Obesity. *Pediatrics.* 2023;151(2):e2022060640.
12. Kendall D, Vail A, Ahmed SF, et al. Metformin in obese children and adolescents: the MOCA trial. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2013;98(1):322-9.
13. Kelly AS, Auerbach P, Barrientos-Perez M, et al. A Randomized, Controlled Trial of Liraglutide for Adolescents with Obesity. *N Engl J Med.* 2020;382(22):2117-28.
14. Weghuber D, Barrett T, Barrientos-Pérez M, et al. Once-Weekly Semaglutide in Adolescents with Obesity. *N Engl J Med.* 2022;387(24):2245-57.
15. Tambalis KD, Panagiotakos DB. Precision medicine in childhood obesity: a review. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab.* 2023;36(1):5-14.