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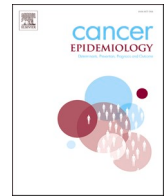
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Maternal obesity and the intergenerational risk of cancer: Epidemiologic evidence and mechanistic insights

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ABSTRACT

Over recent decades, the prevalence of obesity has markedly surged. While excess maternal weight is a well-established risk factor for adverse pregnancy outcomes, growing evidence suggests that maternal obesity may also increase the long-term risk of cancer in offspring. This comprehensive review synthesizes epidemiological and experimental data linking maternal obesity to heightened cancer susceptibility in the next generation. Observational studies demonstrate increased risks of childhood leukemia and colorectal cancer in offspring of obese mothers, whereas preclinical models support associations with breast, liver, colon, and pancreatic cancers. Mechanistically, maternal obesity induces epigenetic reprogramming, immune dysregulation, and vertical transmission of a dysbiotic gut microbiota, which may lead to persistent alterations in metabolic and inflammatory signaling pathways in offspring, thereby promoting a pro-tumorigenic environment and potentially increasing cancer susceptibility. Given the global burden of obesity, this intergenerational risk has critical public health implications. Lifestyle modifications, weight-loss interventions, and targeted approaches such as probiotic supplementation may offer promising strategies to mitigate cancer risk in offspring, but require scientific confirmation in further studies. Future research should prioritize mechanistic dissection of exposure windows, identification of predictive biomarkers, and the development of effective, scalable preventive therapies.

1. Introduction

Obesity has become a public health challenge in Western societies, with the global prevalence having more than doubled since 1990. Projections indicate that by 2050, over half of the world's adult population will be living with overweight or obesity [1]. Particularly worrying is the situation for women of reproductive age, with over two thirds of adult women below 40 years old being overweight or obese in certain world regions [1,2]. In 1960, researchers identified only 10% of young women as obese [3]. Between 1980 and 2018, the obesity rate among women of reproductive age doubled, soaring from 17% to 40% [3,4].

Historically, overweight and obesity have been defined using body mass index (BMI), with a BMI ≥ 25 kg/m² indicating overweight and a BMI ≥ 30 kg/m² indicating obesity, due to its simplicity and broad correlation with health risks at the population level [5,6]. However, this

approach has been criticized for not directly measuring adiposity and misclassifying muscular individuals or those with harmful fat distribution despite lower BMI. The 2025 Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology Commission introduces a paradigm shift by redefining obesity diagnostic criteria. According to the Commission, obesity is clinically confirmed by demonstrating excess or abnormal adiposity through direct body fat measurement (e.g., DEXA), the presence of one anthropometric criterion (e.g., waist circumference) in addition to BMI, or at least two anthropometric criteria regardless of BMI [7]. Clinical obesity is further defined by the above, accompanied by impaired organ function or limitations in daily activities, thereby identifying an even larger affected population [7,8].

The influence of obesity on women's health extends to their children. Obese women are at increased risk of pregnancy complications, such as gestational diabetes mellitus and preeclampsia, and are more likely to

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require a cesarean section or experience preterm delivery [9,10]. The risk of fetal complications, fetal death, and stillbirth is also increased, while Apgar scores are lower compared with those of neonates born to normal-weight women [11,12]. Long-term effects of maternal obesity on offspring include an increased risk of overweight and metabolic syndrome [13,14], impaired cognitive development [15], and even a higher rate of certain types of cancer [16,17]. However, most patients affected by malignancies are older than 50 years of age [18]. Hence, the whole effects of the current obesity upsurge on cancer incidence will not be observable for another 20–30 years. This epidemiological reality further adds to the complexity of the research hypothesis of how maternal obesity, as a multifactorial condition, influences cancer risk in children.

In this review, we summarize the literature on the link between offspring cancer risk and obesity of the mother and investigate potential mechanisms underlying this association. We aim to examine the implications of the obesity epidemic for offspring cancer risk in future generations as the outcome of interest, and thereby support the establishment of efficient preventive interventions.

2. Epidemiological evidence and clinical studies

A structured literature search was conducted in PubMed using predefined search terms to identify studies published up to December 2025, with selection based primarily on relevance and conceptual contribution (Supplementary Data 1). Studies were included in Table 1 and Table 2 if they explicitly reported associations between maternal obesity or overweight and offspring cancer outcomes, regardless of whether maternal obesity was the primary exposure. The methodological quality

of included cohort and case-control studies was assessed independently by two reviewers using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (Supplementary Data).

To date, we have identified seven cohort studies addressing this question, including more than eight million live births in their analysis (Table 1). Four of these studies assessed cancers occurring during childhood [16,19–21], other studies the risk of colorectal cancer [17], breast cancer [22], and the overall risk of cancer [23]. Four studies found a significant connection between BMI and cancer incidence in the offspring [16,17,19,20,23], and two did not [21,22].

Stacy et al. investigated the connection between maternal BMI and childhood cancer risk in a cohort study including close to 2 million children born from 2003 to 2016 [16]. Extracting data directly from medical records, the authors examined the Pennsylvania birth and cancer registry. The prospective cohort design reduced the recall bias characteristic of retrospective case-control studies. The authors discovered that children born to mothers with a BMI ≥ 40 kg/m² had a higher risk for any cancer (HR 1.32, 95% CI 1.08–1.62) and leukemia (HR 1.57, 95% CI 1.12–2.20). Moreover, Stacy et al. found a linear dose-response association between maternal BMI > 30 kg/m² and offspring cancer risk. Interestingly, pregnancy weight gain did not significantly increase the risk of cancer, suggesting that preconception maternal nutritional and environmental factors play a larger role in transmitting risk from mother to child.

Murphy et al. published the first study examining the relationship between maternal BMI and malignancy risk of their children in adulthood. The study included more than 18,000 births in the 1960s registered by a single healthcare provider in California, the California Cancer

Table 1
Cohort studies on cancer risk in offspring of obese mothers.

| Author | Year | Cancer | Findings | Cohort | Study design | Birth Years | Number of live births | Number of mothers | Person-years at risk | Adjusted HR (95% CI) |
|----------------------|------|------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Liu et al. [19] | 2025 | Acute lymphoblastic Leukemia | Maternal BMI ≥ 25 during pregnancy associated with ALL | Population-based cohort in Sweden | Prospective cohort study | 1983–2018 | 2961,435 | NA | NA | 1.2 (1.1–1.3) |
| Murphy et al. [17] | 2022 | Colorectal cancer | Maternal preconception obesity associated with higher risk for CRC | Prospective cohort, Californian child health development study | Prospective cohort study | 1959–1966 | 18,751 | 14,507 | 738,048 | 2.51 (1.05–6.02) |
| Kessous et al. [20] | 2020 | Childhood cancers | Maternal preconception obesity associated with higher risk for childhood malignancies < 18 years of age | Birth cohort from one Israeli tertiary center | Prospective cohort study | 1991–2014 | 241,273 | NA | NA | 1.81 (1.02–3.22) |
| Schmid et al. [22] | 2020 | Breast cancer | Maternal preconception BMI not associated with higher risk of breast cancer | Nurses' Health Study (NHS) II and Nurses' Mothers' Cohort Study | Prospective cohort study | NA | 35,133 | 35,133 | 403,786 | 0.98 (0.74–1.30) |
| Stacy et al. [16] | 2019 | Childhood cancers | Maternal preconception BMI > 40 on birth certificate associated with higher risk for childhood cancers | Pennsylvania birth registry linked to Cancer Registry | Prospective cohort study | 2003–2016 | 1803,199 | 1826,403 | 13,785,309 | 1.57 (1.12–2.12) |
| Petridou et al. [21] | 2015 | Childhood cancers | Maternal preconception BMI not associated with higher childhood cancers | Population-based Swedish Medical Birth Registry | Prospective cohort study | 1973–2007 | 3'444'136 | NA | NA | 1.09 (0.76–1.57) |
| Eriksson et al. [23] | 2014 | Overall cancer incidence | Increased cancer incidence in offspring of mothers with a BMI > 28 | Helsinki birth cohort study | Prospective cohort study | 1934–1944 | 13,345 | NA | NA | 1.17 (1.03–1.31) |

Abbreviations: Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL); Body Mass Index (BMI); Colorectal cancer (CRC); Hazard ratio (HR);

Table 2
Case-control studies on cancer risk in offspring of obese mothers.

| Author | Year | Cancer | Findings | Cohort | Birth Years | Number of cases | Number of controls | adjusted OR (95% CI) |
|-----------------------------|------|--------------------------|---|--|-------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| Bailey et al. [26] | 2017 | Childhood brain tumors | Preconception obesity not associated with childhood brain tumors | Children diagnosed with childhood brain tumors < 15 in ESTELLE cohort (French national cohort) | 1995–2011 | 301 | 1421 | 0.6 (0.3–1.3) |
| Peckham-Gregory et al. [27] | 2017 | Childhood lymphoma | Preconception overweight not associated with Non-Burkitt NHL lymphoma | Children and adolescents < 16 years diagnosed with Non-Burkitt NHL lymphoma in the Texas Cancer Registry | 1995–2011 | 374 | 3740 | 1.44 (0.51–4.11) |
| Contreras et al. [28] | 2016 | Childhood cancers | Preconception BMI of 25–30 associated with leukemia in offspring | Children diagnosed with childhood malignancies < 6 years; California Cancer Registry matched with randomly sampled birth records | 1988–2011 | 11,149 | 270,147 | 1.27 (1.01–1.59) |
| Heck et al. [29] | 2015 | Childhood retinoblastoma | Preconception obesity not significantly associated with Retinoblastoma < 14 years | Children diagnosed with sporadic retinoblastoma < 14 years in multiple institutions of the Children's Oncology Group | 2006–2011 | 165 | 136 | 1.1 (0.5–2.5) |
| Greenop et al. [30] | 2014 | Childhood brain tumors | Preconception obesity not significantly associated with childhood brain tumors | Children < 14 years diagnosed with brain tumors in Australian pediatric oncology centers | 2005–2010 | 319 | 1079 | 0.9 (0.6–1.5) |
| Musselman et al. [31] | 2013 | Childhood cancer | Preconception BMI not associated with hepatoblastoma in offspring | Children diagnosed with hepatoblastoma < 6 years in multiple institutions of the Children's Oncology Group | 1994–2008 | 383 | 387 | 1.0 (0.98–1.04) |
| Wilson et al. [34] | 2011 | Breast cancer | Preconception BMI and weight gain during pregnancy not associated with breast cancer in daughters | Female nurses includes in Nurses's Health Studies I and II cohorts diagnosed with breast cancer | 1921–1965 | 814 | 1807 | 0.72 (0.32–1.64) |
| Spector et al. [32] | 2007 | Childhood leukemia | Trend towards higher risk for leukemia in children of mothers with BMI > 25 | Infants diagnosed with leukemia before the age of 1 in multiple institutions of the Children's Oncology Group | 1996–2002 | 240 | 250 | 1.34 (0.92–1.94) |
| McLaughlin et al. [33] | 2006 | Childhood leukemia | Preconception overweight associated with higher risk of ALL diagnosed < 5 years | Patients born in New York state diagnosed with leukemia < 10 years | 1978–2001 | 1060 | 9686 | 1.44 (1.03–2.01) |
| Sanderson et al. [35] | 1998 | Breast cancer | Preconception BMI of > 22.6 of the mother not associated with breast cancer in daughters | Women diagnosed with breast cancer < 45 years from Washington State matched with randomly selected controls | 1944–1962 | 510 | 436 | 1.1 (0.8–1.6) |

Abbreviations: Odds ratio (OR); Non Hodgkin Lymphoma (NHL); Body Mass Index (BMI); Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL)

Registry dataset [17]. The researchers matched mothers and descendants, and found an association between maternal obesity and the incidence of colorectal adenocarcinoma in the offspring with a 2.5 times greater risk. Furthermore, Murphy et al. examined the significance of weight gain in early pregnancy, reflecting an increase in availability of nutrients to the fetus, compared to late weight gain which can be attributed to fluid expansion and size growth [24,25]. The authors found that offspring from mothers with an early weight gain rate disproportional to the total pregnancy weight gain were at greatest risk of colorectal adenocarcinoma. Future studies should include the trajectories of pregnancy weight gain.

Using a nationwide Swedish cohort of nearly 3 million children born from 1983 to 2018, Liu et al. examined the relationship between maternal weight during pregnancy and childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) [19]. Maternal overweight and obesity were associated with a 40% increased risk of ALL in female offspring only, while no association was observed in males. Gestational weight gain was not linked to ALL risk in either sex. These findings indicate a sex-specific relationship and suggest that intrauterine metabolic or hormonal factors related to maternal adiposity may influence ALL development.

Additionally, we identified ten case-control studies that studied the influence of maternal BMI on cancer incidence in the next generation (Table 2). All [26–33] but two studies focused on childhood malignancies [34,35]. While the two largest studies with more than 1000 cases found a significant connection linking maternal pre-pregnancy weight and the risk of malignancy in offspring [28,33], the studies with < 1000 cases did not. This could be an indication that some of the

smaller studies are underpowered or too heterogeneous for this type of hypothesis. Studies with fewer than 1000 cases may lack sufficient statistical power to detect modest associations (e.g., odds ratios in the range of 1.2–1.5), thereby increasing the risk of false-negative findings. Despite the potential of case-control studies to examine the association between maternal obesity and cancer incidence in the next generation for rare malignancies, such as liver or pancreatic cancer, these study designs are limited by the risk of confounding and recall bias, as well as selection bias arising from the identification and recruitment of cases and controls. They also still require the inclusion of a large number of cancer cases to draw robust conclusions.

Epidemiological research on the influence of preconception BMI on the risk of cancer in offspring is incomplete, but intriguing and supports an association with certain types of childhood malignancies, leukemia, and colorectal cancer (Fig. 1, Table 1) [16,17,19,20,33]. Further investigations should focus on obesity-related cancers, such as liver, esophageal, pancreas, colorectal, and breast cancer, occurring during adulthood decades later [36,37]. Future studies should be adequately powered to differentiate between underlying etiologies and cancer sub-types, for instance by ensuring sufficient sample sizes to detect small-to-moderate associations and conducting formal power calculations. Cancer registries and national cohorts are instrumental to answer these critical questions.

3. Preclinical studies and mechanistic evidence

The intergenerational increase in cancer risk from mother to her

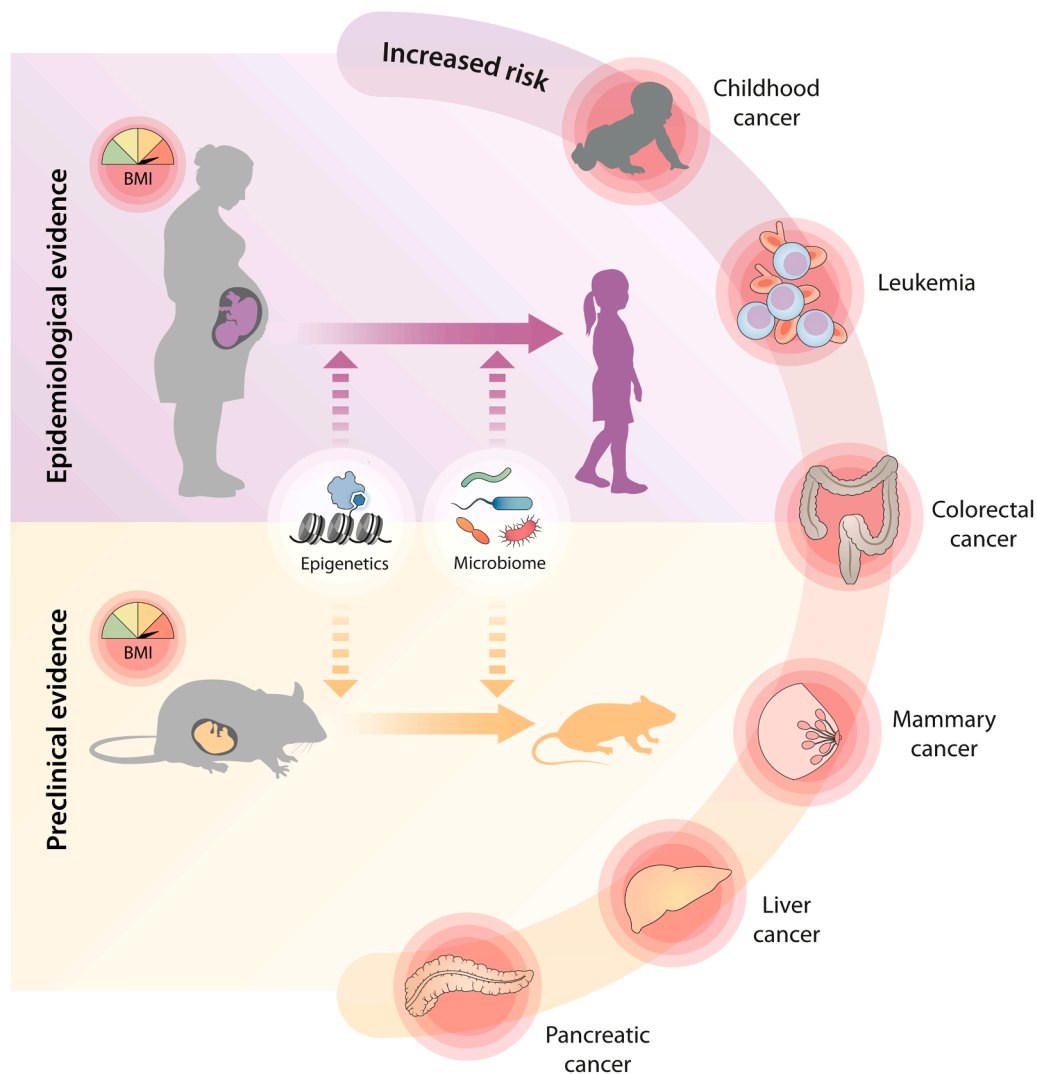


Fig. 1. Maternal obesity increases cancer risk in offspring. Epidemiological studies demonstrate an elevated risk for leukemia, childhood cancer, and colorectal cancer (top part of the figure in purple), while animal studies suggest an increased risk for mammary, pancreatic, colorectal, and liver cancer (bottom part of the figure in orange). The underlying mechanisms driving this increased risk may involve the transmission of a dysbiotic gut microbiota and epigenetic reprogramming.

children is a complex, long, and multifactorial process, making it challenging to identify the exact mechanisms involved through epidemiological studies. In the same way, animal studies in this field often rely on either genetically predisposed or chemically induced tumor models, which only partially reflect the pathophysiological processes of clinical reality. Nevertheless, animal studies provide valuable insights into the underlying biology that explains clinical observations. This section provides an overview of the available literature and discusses potential mechanisms.

3.1. Epigenetic changes

The role of the early-life environment in shaping the risk for chronic diseases later in adulthood is well-established within the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) framework [38]. Epidemiological studies since the 1990s reported that an adverse prenatal environment can influence circulating levels of coagulation factors in adulthood [39], illustrating the lasting effects of an early exposure. Animal studies have demonstrated that temporary exposure to stressful environments during gestation can induce lasting epigenetic reprogramming of the genome, including alterations in DNA methylation, histone modification, and noncoding RNA expression [40–42].

3.1.1. DNA methylation

Environmental stimuli can lead to specific methylation of the cytosine base of the DNA to become 5-methylcytosine. Through hyper- or hypomethylation of promoter regions, gene expression can be regulated to adapt to a certain environment. These methylation changes can influence gene expression and phenotype over many decades. An example for such long-lasting methylation changes is the Dutch famine, which occurred during World War II. Several studies showed that individuals who experienced the famine *in utero* faced increased rates of obesity, impaired glucose tolerance, and altered lipid levels compared to their siblings conceived before or after the famine [43–46]. An effect that persists over several generations [43]. Du et al. recently examined the umbilical cord hematopoietic stem cells from 72 neonates and found that maternal prepregnancy obesity was associated with global hypermethylation in offspring affecting DNA repair pathways, which could contribute to increased cancer risk [47]. DNA methylation changes also play a role in cancer susceptibility, with tumor cells exhibiting hypermethylation of tumor suppressor regions alongside genome-wide hypomethylation [48].

While the preceding findings are based on human epidemiological data, additional mechanistic insights have been gained from animal models. Yuan and colleagues investigated how early-life methylation affects the expression of fibroblast growth factor 2, a liver-derived

peptide responsible for regulating metabolism and energy homeostasis [49]. This study underscores the enduring influence of the gestational environment on the expression of powerful regulators implicated in energy homeostasis and potentially even tumorigenesis [50,51]. Several other studies have also shown that maternal obesity leads to lasting methylation changes in adulthood [52–54]. No research has yet directly linked changes in methylation status induced by maternal obesity to increased cancer risk in the offspring.

3.1.2. Histone modification

Histones are highly basic proteins rich in arginine and lysine. They are essential components of the chromosomal architecture and act as spools around which the DNA is wound, thus forming chromatin. The modification of histones through acetylation, phosphorylation, or methylation can change the accessibility of DNA and, therefore, the level of expression of certain genes or genomic regions [55].

The maternal diet does influence the chromatin structure in the offspring. Aagaard-Tillery et al. demonstrated that a Western-style diet in the mother induces site-specific alterations of histone acetylation in the fetal liver of primates [56]. In a murine study, Panchenko et al. investigated the impact of a diet rich in fat on the epigenetic machinery and found that maternal obesity significantly alters the acetylation pathway [57]. In addition, naturally derived histone deacetylase inhibitors can activate histone alterations. An example of such an inhibitor is sulforaphane present in broccoli sprouts. A recent study found that broccoli sprout supplementation during gestation and lactation protects against breast cancer later in adult offspring, with longer tumor latency and lower tumor mass [58]. The authors were able to connect this specific diet to altered histone methylation in oncogene promoter regions.

3.1.3. MicroRNAs

MicroRNAs are defined as noncoding RNA molecules playing a role in the post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression. MicroRNAs can silence gene expression by binding to target mRNAs which leads to their degradation by the cellular machinery [59]. Besides methylation changes and histone modifications, microRNAs are another epigenetic mechanism in maternal obesity that affect offspring health.

In a study using a toxin-induced liver cancer model, Sun et al. studied the impact of maternal HFD feeding on liver cancer risk [60]. The study group found that offspring of mothers fed an HFD grew larger and more numerous liver tumors than those of non-obese mothers, with a more pronounced effect in subsequent generations. Gene expression analysis revealed that *Acs1* and *Aldh2*, two metabolic genes downregulated in offspring of HFD mothers, appeared to be suppressed by the microRNA miR-27a-3p. The injection of miR-27a-3p into pregnant dams demonstrated a significant increase in tumor burden in the offspring, indicating the potential implication of microRNA regulation in the transgenerational transmission of liver cancer risk. However, our recent integrative genomic analysis of 11 previously published datasets showed no downregulation of *Acs1* or *Aldh2* in any of the studies [61,62]. While microRNA may play a part in the maternal transmission of chronic liver disease to offspring, this evidence suggests it is not likely to be the sole cause of the observed effect. These findings emphasize the importance of elucidating the mechanisms by which maternal obesity increases hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) risk in offspring.

Maternal obesity triggers epigenetic adaptations during *in utero* development. Emerging evidence suggests that epigenetic alterations induced by maternal obesity are associated with increased cancer risk in offspring, both directly and indirectly through their impact on metabolic disorders. Establishing causality between exposure in early life, specific epigenetic alterations, and heightened cancer rate will require preclinical functional studies and epidemiological designs that include epigenetic data [63].

3.2. Gut microbiome

The gut microbiome, lives symbiotically with the human host. Until the past two decades, researchers have largely overlooked the role of the gut microbiome in disease development [64]. Since then, tremendous progress has been made and several landmark studies have established the key role of gut microbiota in immunity, digestion, obesity, and cancer development [65–68]. This section will discuss its contribution to oncogenesis and the mechanisms of microbiome transmission between generations.

3.2.1. Cancer risk and the gut microbiome

The gut microbiota has numerous impacts on cancer risk. First, through host colonization by pathogens, it directly contributes to the establishment of a pro-inflammatory setting and impairment of the immune system. Secondly, the gut microbiome impacts cancer risk through alterations in the breakdown of nutritional constituents or endogenous substances like steroid hormones or bile acids [69]. Researchers have long established the association between bacterial pathogens and certain cancers. *Helicobacter pylori* infection is strongly associated with MALT lymphoma and gastric cancer, and *Salmonella typhi* colonization with gallbladder cancer [70,71]. Additionally, scientists have connected several bacterial genera colonizing the gut to a greater risk for colorectal cancer [72–74].

Furthermore, research groups have established the gut microbiome's impact on antitumor immunity through various mechanisms. For example, Greten et al. conducted a mouse study in which Gram-positive bacteria were eliminated from the gut microbiome through administration of Vancomycin. They discovered that this led to a decrease in hepatic tumor load, but did not affect the tumor burden outside the liver in multiple mouse models [75]. The authors attributed this to an increase in the hepatic natural killer T (NKT) cell population, which inhibited cancer growth. The elimination of Gram-positive species from the gut microbiota activated liver sinusoidal endothelial cells to express *CXCL16*, resulting in altered bile acid metabolism and promoting the attraction of NKT cells. This heterogeneous T-cell subpopulation plays a vital role in antitumor immunity and immunoregulation, specifically in controlling hepatic tumor load [76].

Several clinical studies have shown that patients receiving immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy along with broad-spectrum antibiotics had a decreased progression-free survival compared to those who were not treated with antibiotics [77–79]. These findings support the notion that an undisturbed gut microbiota with high diversity is crucial for an effective immune surveillance to detect cancer cells, possibly through improved antigen presentation and enhanced T-cell function [80]. Additionally, fecal microbial transplantation from a healthy donor has been shown to improve a patient's response to immune checkpoint inhibitor treatment. Although the precise microbiome components responsible for this positive response remain unclear, these results suggest that the microbiota composition can enhance the antitumor immune response.

3.2.2. Gut microbiome transmission at birth and early life

Mother and child establish a microbial bond at birth when the microorganisms originating from the mother's microbiota colonize the newborn's skin and mucosal surface, including the gut. Ferretti et al. studied 25 mother-infant pairs to investigate the source and transmission paths of the infants' gut microbiomes [81]. Interestingly, newborns shared most gut microbiome species with their mothers, with colonization occurring within 24 h after vaginal birth, from different maternal body sites such as the skin, vagina, breast milk, and gut [82]. In a large observational cohort including 935 mother-infant pairs, Tun et al. investigated gut microbiota as a possible mediator in the connection between maternal obesity and childhood obesity [83]. Maternal obesity resulted in a 3- to 5-fold higher obesity risk in toddlers. Although the authors did not provide substantive proof for causality, they

associated this higher risk with a higher abundance of the *Lachnospiraceae* family and a higher diversity within the *Firmicutes* phylum [83]. Furthermore, specific bacterial species that decrease in abundance under a diet low in carbohydrates accessible for fermentation are not passed on to the following generation, leading to progressive loss of microbiome diversity [84].

A recent work from our group has provided compelling experimental evidence that maternal obesity can increase the risk of hepatocellular carcinoma in offspring via vertical transmission of a dysbiotic gut microbiome [85]. In a carcinogen-induced murine model of HCC, we demonstrated that maternal high-fat diet exposure led to profound and lasting alterations in the gut microbiome of female offspring, characterized by decreased diversity and increased abundance of pro-inflammatory taxa such as the *Erysipelotrichaceae* family. These microbial changes were associated with liver steatosis, fibrosis, and elevated hepatic expression of Toll-like receptors and innate immune markers. Most notably, the transmission of this altered microbiome significantly increased tumor incidence and growth in offspring, independent of postnatal diet. Strikingly, co-housing of high-fat exposed offspring with controls normalized the gut microbiome and restored

tumor burden to baseline levels, establishing a causal role for the microbiome in mediating cancer risk [85]. These findings underscore the relevance of early-life microbial exposures in oncogenic programming and suggest that interventions targeting microbial composition may hold promise for cancer prevention in at-risk offspring of obese mothers.

3.3. Immune system

It is well established that obesity is associated with a state of chronic low-grade inflammation [86–88]. Recent evidence also links maternal infection during pregnancy, reflecting an inflammatory state, to an increased risk of childhood leukemia [89]. Offspring of obese mothers, in both primates and mice, show transcriptomic changes in innate immunity pathways [62,90]. In addition, maternal high-fat diet exposure leads to an increased inflammatory response in the colon of the offspring, with higher levels of IL-1B, IL-6, and IL-17A [91]. Offspring born to HFD dams also developed a high blood leukocyte count and a decreased response to the bacterial antigen lipopolysaccharides (LPS) with downregulation of TLR-4 and LPS binding protein mRNA,

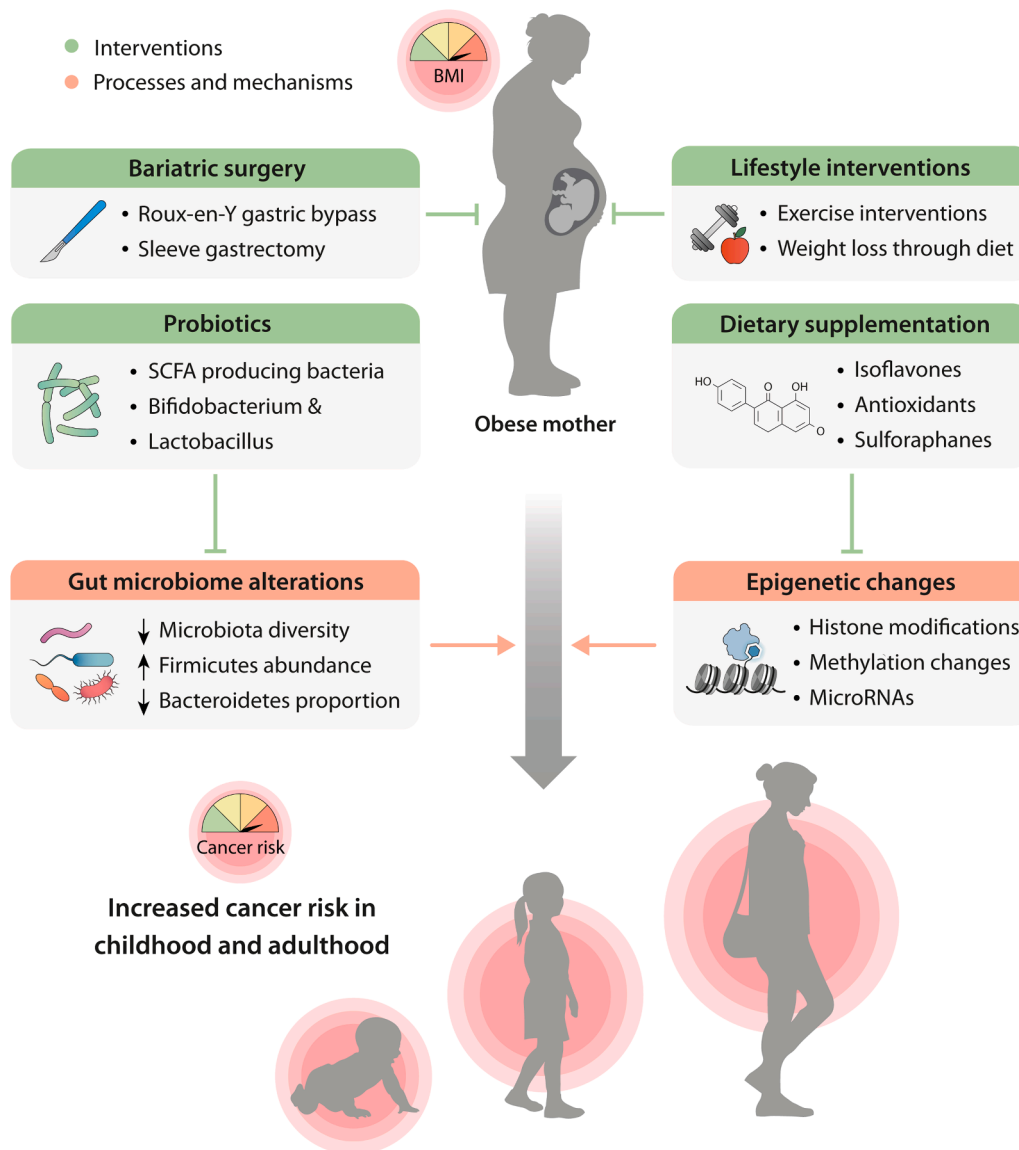


Fig. 2. Potential interventions to prevent cancer development in offspring of obese mothers. The higher cancer risk in offspring of obese mothers appears to be mediated mainly through epigenetic changes and the transmission of dysbiotic gut microbiota. Therefore, potential interventions include lifestyle modification, probiotic supplementation, dietary adaptation, and bariatric surgery.

suggesting systemic chronic inflammation and increased disease susceptibility. Another mouse model study showed that continuous LPS infusion in the mother led to increased adult weight gain comparable to a high-fat diet regimen, highlighting the lasting impact of early-life immune dysregulation [92].

Maternal obesity-induced alterations in the immune system of offspring can also impact anti-tumor immune surveillance. Zhang et al. observed a significant increase in cancer relapse in the offspring of HFD dams in a carcinogen-induced breast cancer model. This was attributed to overexpression of immunosuppressive genes and reduced recruitment of CD8 + effector T cells in recurrent cancerous lesions [93]. Together, these findings suggest that maternal obesity-induced immune alterations may impair anti-tumor surveillance and increase cancer susceptibility in offspring.

4. Preventive strategies

Understanding the impact of maternal obesity on malignancy risk in offspring is crucial for developing preventive strategies. Effective approaches to reduce intergenerational cancer risk focus on maternal weight optimization and modulation of the intrauterine and microbial environment (Fig. 2).

4.1. Lifestyle interventions

Observational and interventional evidence suggests that intentional weight loss is associated with a reduced risk of obesity-related cancers. In postmenopausal women, intentional weight loss was linked to a significantly lower cancer risk, while an intensive lifestyle intervention in overweight or obese adults with type 2 diabetes reduced obesity-related cancer incidence by 16% over long-term follow-up [94,95]. In a French cohort study, intentional weight loss in the year prior to conception resulted in a higher risk of pregnancy weight gain [96]. Furthermore, a meta-analysis of human studies demonstrated that exercise interventions initiated before and during early gestation reduced the incidence of gestational diabetes, indicating that pre-pregnancy physical activity favorably modulates the metabolic milieu during fetal development [97].

The limited availability of human research in this area contrasts with growing evidence from preclinical models showing that maternal exercise interventions can positively influence offspring health outcomes. For instance, in a murine study, exercise of pregnant dams on a treadmill protected offspring from overweight and fatty liver disease later in life, even when fed an HFD. The authors observed an upregulation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and PPAR α during early life, which are both potent metabolic regulators that activate fatty acid oxidation [98]. Another mouse study found that switching pregnant dams from an HFD to a normal diet during late gestation led to the normalization of glucose tolerance and metabolism in their offspring [99]. Regarding the intergenerational transmission of obesity predisposition, maternal exercise has been shown to enhance brown adipose tissue development in dams and promote its transmission to the offspring, thereby conferring a long-term protective effect against obesity and subsequently against malignancies [100]. These metabolic improvements observed in murine models are possibly linked to reduced susceptibility to obesity-associated cancer development. These findings should be interpreted in light of the chronic and multifactorial nature of obesity, which is influenced by biopsychosocial factors and requires long-term, person-centered management [7,101,102].

4.2. Bariatric surgery

Metabolic surgery, such as Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery or sleeve gastrectomy, are effective weight-loss therapies in morbid obesity. Compared to other interventions, bariatric surgery results in enduring weight maintenance with persistent loss of excess weight

> 50% at five years [103,104]. Furthermore, a recent study reported a reduced cancer incidence in patients who underwent bariatric surgery, with a 50% reduction in mortality due to cancer at the ten-year mark [105].

In a Swedish national register study, Johansson et al. found that women who underwent bariatric surgery were at a higher risk of complications during pregnancy, including neonatal death and small-for-gestational-age infants [106]. In contrast, a nationwide study, in which pre-surgery-weight-matched cohorts were compared, found that newborns of mothers who underwent malabsorptive surgery had fewer major congenital disabilities than those born to obese mothers [107]. Consensus recommendations and practice guidelines advise delaying pregnancy until individuals attain a stable weight and implementing systematic dietary monitoring and supplementation [108,109]. Bariatric surgery improves maternal health and reduces cancer risk in mothers, its role in preventing cancer in offspring remains uncertain.

4.3. Probiotic supplementation

Probiotics may modulate the maternal gut microbiome and influence offspring immune and metabolic development. Numerous preclinical studies have examined the effects of probiotics on colorectal cancer [110]. In a mouse model of familial adenomatous polyposis, Chen et al. demonstrated that administration of *Clostridium butyricum*, a short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) producing bacterial taxa, can attenuate the increased risk of colorectal cancer associated with a Western-style feeding [111]. In a different animal study, a group from Hong Kong examined the effects of a probiotic combination on hepatocellular carcinoma cells implanted under the skin [112]. Preemptive probiotic feeding led to a 40% reduction of tumor growth. Although the study authors did not offer a conclusive functional explanation, they observed reduced T helper 17 cell levels in the tumor microenvironment and an increased proportion of Bacteroidota taxa in the gut microbiota.

A recent meta-analysis demonstrated that maternal probiotic supplementation results in higher abundance of beneficial bacteria species in the offspring gut, a decrease in childhood obesity and decrease in childhood colic risk [113]. Thus, modulation of the maternal microbiome represents a promising but unproven strategy for cancer prevention.

5. Discussion

In recent decades, the increasing prevalence of obesity among women of reproductive age has raised concerns about its impact on the health of future generations. Maternal obesity may increase offspring risk for chronic diseases and certain cancers, highlighting the need for further research and effective preventive interventions.

The current scientific literature on maternal obesity and cancer is convincing but incomplete. Although preclinical studies established a robust link with breast cancer, research is limited for other obesity-related malignancies in offspring, including liver, pancreatic, esophageal, uterine, thyroid, and renal cancers. To achieve meaningful and translatable results, mouse models should replicate oncogenesis as closely as possible and incorporate long latency periods and sufficient sample sizes. Moreover, it is crucial to identify the specific developmental windows contributing to the heightened cancer risk in offspring, enabling the implementation of effective preventive interventions. Nevertheless, mechanistic evidence, particularly from animal models, should be interpreted with caution, as these studies provide biological plausibility but cannot establish causal relationships in humans for outcomes that may develop over several decades.

The current epidemiological literature on maternal obesity and cancer is limited and designing high-quality clinical studies presents a challenge. To overcome this, it is crucial to use maternal BMI as a direct measure of maternal obesity and avoid surrogate markers like high birth weight. The low incidence of certain cancers, long latency periods, and

modest expected effect sizes, with expected hazard ratios between 1.5 and 3, further complicate study design. Linking the medical records of mothers and children presents an additional challenge, especially for births prior to the advent of electronic medical records. To extract meaningful results, establishing large databases comprising substantial numbers of mother-infant pairs is essential. Addressing this global health challenge will require multinational collaborative research and the inclusion of national registries [114].

An improved mechanistic understanding is essential to establish a direct link between maternal obesity and malignancy risk in offspring, which is the first step toward developing effective therapeutic interventions. This risk transmission is likely multifactorial, with varying contributions to the altered risk profile for each cancer type, with early-life epigenetic modifications implicated in breast cancer [115], and the transfer of the mother's altered gut microbiome playing a greater role in colon and liver cancer given their biological functions [116]. Therefore, well-designed preclinical studies are needed to establish strong causation for the underlying mechanisms [117].

An increasing body of literature identifies maternal obesity as a new risk factor for certain cancers. Epigenetic modifications during early life and the transmission of an altered microbiota are likely involved in this process. As the prevalence of obesity continues to rise, many more children are being exposed during their development, which may lead to increased cancer incidence. This development poses a major threat to future generations. To break this cycle of maternal obesity and cancer, a deeper understanding of the mechanisms behind this increased risk is essential. Developing targeted interventions can help prevent cancer in the children of obese mothers and pave the way toward a healthier future for generations to come.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Christian Toso: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Margarida Rocha:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Charles-Henri Wassmer:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Beat Moeckli:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Sofia El Hajji:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Tinh-Hai Collet:** Writing – review & editing. **Stephanie Lacotte:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Ethics approval and consent to participate

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Declaration of Competing Interest

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other authors, they declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.canep.2026.103079.

Data availability

Not applicable

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