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Gestational Weight Gain as a Mediator of the Relationship between Pre-Pregnancy Body Mass Index and the Risk of Preterm Birth: A Four-way Decomposition Analysis

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1 **Title: Gestational Weight Gain as a Mediator of the Relationship between Pre-Pregnancy Body Mass Index**  
2 **and the Risk of Preterm Birth: A Four-way Decomposition Analysis**  
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5 **Short title:** Gestational Weight Gain, Pre-Pregnancy BMI and Risk of Preterm Birth  
6

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22

23 **Synopsis**

24 The risk of preterm birth is lowest for underweight mothers with adequate gestational weight gain and highest for  
25 obese mothers with excessive GWG

26 **Abstract**

27 **Objectives:** We aimed to examine and quantify whether the association between preterm birth (PTB) and pre-  
28 pregnancy Body Mass Index (BMI) is mediated by Gestational Weight Gain (GWG).

29 **Methods:** This is a secondary-analysis of a large randomized-community non-inferiority trial using a cohort-design.

30 The data of 26,101 pregnant women in their first-trimester who sought prenatal-care and met eligibility-criteria were  
31 included. The 4-way decomposition method was applied to screen for all types of association effects of pre-pregnancy  
32 BMI on the risk of PTB. These effects include the total effect, direct effect, and various indirect effects including pure  
33 mediation via GWG, interactive effects with GWG, and mediated interaction with GWG, all adjusted for potential  
34 confounders.

35 **Results:** Among the study participants, 24,461(93.7%) had term deliveries, while 1,640(6.3%) experienced PTB. The  
36 results of the study showed that there was a positive association between pre-pregnancy BMI among those with BMI  
37 more than 25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and the risk of PTB and this association was negatively mediated and interacted by GWG, which  
38 differed quantitatively between those who had inadequate, adequate, or excessive GWG. The total association effect  
39 showed that the risk was lowest for those who had underweight pre-pregnancy BMI and adequate GWG (Excess

40 relative risk (RR): 0.06,95%CI: 0.01-0.11,P-value:0.022) and was highest for those who had obese pre-pregnancy  
41 BMI and excessive GWG (Excess RR:0.67,95%CI:0.35-1.00,P-value<0.001).

42 **Conclusions:** The findings of the present prospective population-based study demonstrated that pre-pregnancy BMI  
43 >25kg/m<sup>2</sup> is directly and positively associated with the risk of preterm birth. The highest risk of preterm birth was  
44 observed among individuals with an obese pre-pregnancy BMI who also experienced excessive GWG.

45 **Keywords:**

46 Four-way decomposition Analysis, Gestational weight gain, Pre-pregnancy BMI, Preterm birth, Mediation analysis,  
47 indirect association

48  
49 **Name of the registry:** Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials, as Primary Registry in the WHO Registry Network.

50 **Registration number:** IRCT138707081281N1

51 **URL of registration:** <https://www.irct.ir/trial/518>

52

53

54 **Synopsis**

55 The risk of preterm birth is lowest for underweight mothers with adequate gestational weight gain and highest for  
56 obese mothers with excessive GWG

57

58 **1. INTRODUCTION**

59 Preterm birth (PTB), defined as a livebirth before 37 completed weeks of gestation, is an increasingly important issue,  
60 with a global incidence rate of about 11% and rising [1]. Prematurity results in long-term disability and imposing a  
61 significant economic burden on healthcare systems and society [2]. Despite being studied for decades, the causal  
62 pathways underlying preterm birth remain largely unknown, and the risk factors have been, for the most part,  
63 controversial [3].

64 It is now well-established from a variety of studies that maternal pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index (BMI) is an  
65 important determinant of pregnancy outcomes [4, 5]. Both extremes of maternal BMI contribute to an increased risk  
66 of PTB [6]. However, obesity mainly leads to medically-initiated PTB due to associated medical complications,  
67 including hypertensive disorders and gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) [7]. These complications are correlated with  
68 another factor influenced by pre-pregnancy BMI, known as gestational weight gain (GWG) [5, 8]. While fewer studies  
69 have explored the effect of GWG on the incidence of PTB, most of those studies have been conducted in high-income  
70 countries [9, 10].

71 Similar to maternal BMI, GWG outside the normal range increases the risk of PTB, although through different  
72 mechanisms [11, 12]. However, due to the established association between BMI and GWG, the impact of GWG on  
73 PTB might be extend beyond a direct influence, an issue that remains under debate [13, 14].

74 Mediation analysis is a method employed to understand a known relationship by exploring the underlying mechanism  
75 or process through which one variable influences another variable via a mediator variable [15]. Therefore, using the  
76 dataset of a large population-based study, this study tried to develop a better understanding of how pre-pregnancy  
77 BMI and GWG are correlated in impose their influence on PTB. The aim of this study was to examine and quantify  
78 whether the association between PTB and pre-pregnancy BMI is mediated by GWG.

## 79 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 80 **2.1. Study design and participants**

81 This is a secondary analysis of a large, randomized community non-inferiority trial among pregnant women with a  
82 cohort approach started from 19.02.2017 to 23.08.2018. Detailed methods of the study have been reported previously  
83 [16, 17]. Briefly, the primary objective of the main study was to assess the non-inferiority of less stringent (GDM  
84 screening criteria compared with the stringent and rigorous International Association of Diabetes in Pregnancy Study  
85 Group (IADPSG) criteria concerning both maternal and neonatal outcomes. A total number of 35,430 pregnant women  
86 in their first trimester, aged  $\geq 18$  years from five different geographic regions of Iran participated in the study. The  
87 exclusion criteria were uncertainty regarding the date of the last menstrual period and lack of ultrasound estimation  
88 from 6 to 14 weeks of gestation, previous diagnosis of type II diabetes, or other chronic disorders. For the current  
89 analysis, we further excluded those with twin pregnancies, pregnancies that terminated before 20 weeks of gestation,  
90 and lacking complete data. Finally, a total of 26,101 pregnant women was included in the current analysis.

91 As part of their regular prenatal care, all participants underwent two phases of screening for GDM during their first  
92 and second trimesters of pregnancy. This screening process adhered to a predetermined protocols and involved using  
93 fasting plasma glucose (FPG) for the first-trimester screening and either a one-step or a two-step method for the  
94 second-trimester screening. All study participants were followed until delivery, and all adverse maternal and neonatal  
95 outcomes were recorded in detail.

### 96 **2.2. Outcome definitions and measurements**

97 The primary outcome was preterm birth, defined as babies born alive before 37 weeks of pregnancy are completed.

98 Gestational age was determined using the certain date of last menstrual period, or ultrasound estimation between 6 to  
99 14 weeks of gestational age. Participants' weight was recorded using digital scales with an accuracy to the nearest 100  
100 grams. This measurement was taken while participants were wearing minimal clothing and without shoes. Height was  
101 measured while participants stood without shoes, using a tape measure with precision to the nearest 0.5 centimeters.  
102 Body mass index (BMI) was computed by dividing the weight in kilograms by the square of the height in meters.  
103 Further, BMI were categorized into underweight ( $< 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ), normal weight ( $18.5\text{-}24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ), and overweight  
104 ( $25.0\text{-}29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) or obese ( $\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ).

105 Gestational weight gain was calculated as the difference between the maternal weight at the first and last prenatal visit  
106 just prior to delivery, measured in kilograms. It should be noted that the mean timing for prenatal visits during  
107 pregnancy was 8 weeks of gestation [16, 17]. We further classified the adequacy of GWG as inadequate, adequate,  
108 and excessive. Inadequate GWG was defined as GWG  $< 12.5 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with underweight,  $< 11.5 \text{ kg}$  in mothers  
109 with normal-weight, GWG  $< 7 \text{ kg}$  in mothers who were overweight, and  $< 5 \text{ kg}$  in in mothers with obesity.

110 Adequate GWG was defined as GWG between  $12.5\text{-}18.5 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with underweight,  $11.5\text{-}16 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with  
111 normal weight,  $7\text{-}11.5 \text{ kg}$  in mothers who were overweight, and  $5\text{-}9 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with obesity. Excessive GWG was  
112 defined as GWG  $> 18 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with underweight,  $> 16 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with normal-weight,  $> 11.5 \text{ kg}$  in mother  
113 with overweight, and  $> 9 \text{ kg}$  in mothers with obesity [18].

114 GDM was screened and diagnosed using one-step 75-gram two-hour oral glucose tolerance test (75g 2h-OGTT) or  
115 two step (100g 3h-OGTT) screening approaches.

116 In one step approach, any values exceeding the cut-off, which included fasting plasma glucose levels of  $\geq 92 \text{ mg/dL}$   
117 but  $< 126 \text{ mg/dL}$  and/or two-hour OGTT levels of  $\geq 153 \text{ mg/dL}$ , resulted in a diagnosis of GDM. Individuals who  
118 underwent screening through a two-step (100g 3h-OGTT) were diagnosed with GDM if their glucose levels exceeded  
119 certain thresholds. These thresholds included FPG  $> 95 \text{ mg/dL}$ , 1-h glucose level  $> 180 \text{ mg/dL}$ , 2-h glucose level  $>$   
120  $155 \text{ mg/dL}$ , and 3-h glucose level  $> 140 \text{ mg/dL}$  [19]. The definition of preterm birth in this study was when live birth  
121 occurs between 20 and 37 weeks of pregnancy. Preeclampsia was defined as a systolic blood pressure  $\geq 140 \text{ mmHg}$   
122 or a diastolic blood pressure  $\geq 90 \text{ mmHg}$  on two occasions at least four hours apart, after 20 weeks of gestation in  
123 women with previously normal blood pressure, plus proteinuria  $\geq 300 \text{ mg}$  per 24 h urine collection, or  
124 protein/creatinine ratio  $\geq 0.3$ , or dipstick reading of 1+ and more if other quantitative methods were not available. In

125 the absence of proteinuria, preeclampsia was defined as new-onset hypertension plus the new onset of  
126 thrombocytopenia, renal insufficiency, impaired liver function, pulmonary edema, and cerebral or visual symptoms.

### 127 2.3. Ethics approval

128 This study was approved by the national ethics committee of the National Institute for Medical Research Development  
129 (Approval number: IR.NIMAD.REC.1394.013). In addition, the Iranian Ministry of Health and Medical Education  
130 (MoHME) approved the study protocol and prespecified GDM modalities were made available to all those provinces  
131 as mandatory guidelines. As a result, this was considered a part of routine prenatal care, and specific individual  
132 informed consent was not obtained from pregnant women. For further analysis, all participants personal information  
133 were deanonymized.

### 134 2.4. Statistical analysis

135 Continuous variables were checked for normality using the Shapiro–Wilk test; those with normal distribution are  
136 expressed as mean (standard deviation) and were compared between two groups using a t-test of independent samples.  
137 Non-normal distributed variables are expressed as median (interquartile range) and were compared between two  
138 groups using an independent sample Mann–Whitney U test. Categorical variables are presented as frequencies  
139 (percentages) and were compared using the chi-square test. Locally weighted regression (LOWESS) of GWG on BMI  
140 was used to assess nonlinear associations of the variables. LOWESS plots with logit transformation for the dependent  
141 variable were applied in the case of nonlinear associations of weight gain or BMI with preterm birth. A generalized  
142 linear regression model (GLM) via log and linear link functions were applied for binary (preterm birth) and continuous  
143 (GWG) outcomes, respectively. The risk ratio (RR) for binary outcomes and mean difference for continuous outcomes  
144 were estimated with 95% confidence intervals.

145 The approach of four-way decomposition was used to analyze the interaction and mediation effects and their  
146 combination. Using this approach, the overall effect of pre-pregnancy BMI on preterm birth, in the presence of GWG,  
147 which may interact with BMI, can be decomposed into four components that correspond to the portion of the effect  
148 that is due: (i) to neither mediation nor interaction; (ii) to just interaction (but not mediation); (iii) to just mediation  
149 (but not interaction); and (iv) to both mediation and interaction. First, two regression models were fitted: a log-  
150 binomial model for the preterm birth outcome (as a function of the pre-pregnancy BMI, GWG, the interaction between  
151 pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG, and confounders) and a linear regression model for GWG as a mediator (as a function  
152 of the pre-pregnancy BMI and confounders). The variance-covariance matrix of the estimated components was

153 obtained using the multivariate delta method, and excess relative risks were plotted according to the GWG categories.  
154 If the 95% confidence interval (95% CI) of the excess relative risk in the four-way decomposition does not include  
155 zero, it was considered statistically significant [20]. We could further obtain the proportions of the effects attributable  
156 to each component by dividing the estimate of a component by the total excess relative risk. Adjusted variables were  
157 maternal age, GDM status, preeclampsia status, infant sex, and assigned protocols. Figure 1 is a conceptual framework  
158 that illustrates four decompositions of the relationship between BMI, GWG, and risk of preterm birth. We refined the  
159 analysis of how gestational weight gain (GWG) affects the relationship between pre-pregnancy BMI and the risk of  
160 preterm birth by decomposing it into four distinct components: the controlled direct effect (CDE), reference interaction  
161 (INTref), pure indirect effect (PIE), and mediated interaction (INTmed). The CDE represents the direct influence of  
162 BMI on preterm birth risk independent of GWG, illustrated by arrow 1 without arrow 3. The INTref highlights the  
163 interaction between BMI and GWG on preterm birth risk, controlling for the effect of BMI on GWG, and is depicted  
164 by arrows 3+1, excluding arrow 2. This interaction represents effects solely from the interaction, not mediation. The  
165 PIE captures the effect of BMI on preterm birth solely through its impact on GWG, shown by arrows 2+4, indicating  
166 an effect purely from mediation without interaction. Lastly, the INTmed occurs only if BMI affects GWG, showcasing  
167 a combined effect due to both mediation and interaction, as shown by arrows 2+3+1. This comprehensive approach  
168 accounts for potential confounders, including maternal age, GDM status, preeclampsia status, infant sex, and assigned  
169 protocols, between the exposure, mediator, and outcome, ensuring a nuanced understanding of these relationships.  
170 Statistical analysis was performed using the software package Stata (version 17; STATA Inc., College Station, TX,  
171 USA); All statistical tests were two-sided with a statistical significance of  $p < 0.05$ . The study was approved by the  
172 National Institute for Medical Research Development, the national ethics committee of the National Institute of Health  
173 Research, and the Iranian Ministry of Health and Medical Education.

### 174 3. RESULTS

#### 175 3.1. Baseline characteristics

176 A total of 26,101 pregnant women were included in the present study (supplementary Figure 1). Among them, 24,461  
177 (93.7%) had term deliveries, while 1,640 (6.3%) experienced preterm birth. The baseline characteristics of participants  
178 in both groups are presented in Table 1. Compared to mothers with term infants, mothers with preterm infants were

179 more likely to be older, [30.5 (6.2) versus 29.3 (5.8) years ( $P < 0.001$ )], exhibited significantly higher BMI [(26.2  
180 (4.7) vs. 25.7 (4.5)  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ] and lower GWG [(9.0 (4.9) vs. 11.3 (4.5),  $P < 0.001$ ].

181 The incidence of GDM (16.5% vs. 13.7%,  $P = 0.004$ ), preeclampsia (18.5% vs. 11%,  $P < 0.001$ ), neonatal intensive  
182 care unit (NICU) admission (32.5% vs. 3.8%,  $P < 0.001$ ), hypoglycemia (2.7% vs. 0.9%,  $P < 0.001$ ), hypocalcemia  
183 (1.9% vs. 0.6%,  $P < 0.001$ ), and birth trauma (4.2% vs. 0.3%,  $P < 0.001$ ) in mothers with preterm pregnancies was  
184 significantly higher than mothers with term pregnancies. The frequency of mothers with term and preterm infants  
185 based on BMI and GWG classifications are shown in Table 2. Among those with preterm birth, who classified as  
186 normal pre-pregnancy BMI, 391 (64.7) experienced inadequate GWG, 165 (27.2) and 49 (8.1) pregnant women had  
187 normal and excessive weight gain, respectively; these values for obese pregnant women with preterm birth were 97  
188 (28.1), 133 (38.6) and, 115 (33.3), respectively (Table 2).

### 189 **3.2. Exposure, mediator, and outcome associations based on individual regressions**

190 Regarding the association between BMI and GWG, the LOWESS plot indicated a negative association between  
191 BMI and GWG (adjusted mean difference= -0.23, 95% CI: (-0.25, -0.22);  $P < 0.001$ ) (Figure 2-a).

192 In term of the association between PTB and GWG, preterm birth exhibited a U-shaped relationship with GWG, where  
193 increased GWG up to 20 kg was significantly associated with a decreasing trend in the risk of preterm birth (adjusted  
194 RR=0.88, 95% CI: (0.87,0.89);  $P < 0.001$ ), but when the GWG exceeded 20 kg, an increasing trend was observed in  
195 relation to preterm birth, although it was not statistically significant (adjusted RR=1.11, 95% CI: 0.98,1.25;  $P = 0.081$ )  
196 (Figure 2-b).

197 Regarding the association between BMI and PTB, there is no significant association between them until a BMI of 25  
198  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ . However, an increasing trend in PTB risk with increasing BMI was observed in BMI more than 25  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$   
199 (Figure 2-c).

### 200 **3.3. Decomposition Analysis**

201 The results of the four-way decomposition analysis, where the mediator (GWG) is set at various levels of adequate,  
202 inadequate, and excessive GWG, are presented in Figure 3. The CDE, considering GWG at all levels, indicates that  
203 women with either underweight, over or obese pre-pregnancy BMI are at an increased risk of preterm birth compared  
204 to women with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI ( $p < 0.05$ ). Among women who had adequate GWG, the controlled direct



205 effects of all classification of pre-pregnancy BMI on the risk of preterm birth were all significantly positive. Indirect  
206 effects were weak but significantly positive for pure indirect effect, and significantly negative for both reference  
207 interaction and mediated interaction (Figure 3-a). The results of total effect indicated that within this group of women  
208 who experienced adequate GWG showed that (i) those with underweight pre-pregnancy BMI had a statistically  
209 significant 6% higher risk of preterm birth compared to women with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI (Excess RR: 0.06,  
210 95% CI: 0.01-0.11, P value: 0.022), (ii) those with overweight pre-pregnancy BMI had a statistically significant 13%  
211 higher risk of preterm birth compared to women with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI (Excess RR: 0.13, 95% CI: 0.03-  
212 0.23, P value: 0.013) (iii) those with obese BMI had a statistically significant 22% higher risk of preterm birth  
213 compared to women with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI (Excess RR: 0.22, 95% CI: 0.06-0.38, P value: 0.011).

214 Among women who had inadequate GWG, the controlled direct effects of all classification of pre-pregnancy BMI on  
215 the risk of preterm birth were all significantly positive. But indirect effects were only observed significantly for pure  
216 indirect effect (Figure 3-b). The results of total effect within this group of women who experienced inadequate GWG  
217 indicated that (i) Underweight pre-pregnancy BMI was associated with a 11% higher risk of preterm birth (Excess  
218 RR: 0.11, 95% CI: 0.06-0.17, P value< 0.001). (ii) Overweight pre-pregnancy BMI was associated with a 26% higher  
219 risk of preterm birth (Excess RR: 0.26, 95% CI: 0.14-0.38, P value< 0.001). (iii) Obese pre-pregnancy BMI was  
220 associated with a 45% higher risk of preterm birth (Excess RR: 0.45, 95% CI: 0.24-0.678, P value< 0.001). These total  
221 excess RR reflect both direct and indirect associations, including mediation and interaction effects, within the  
222 decompositions.

223 Among women who had excessive GWG, the controlled direct effects of all classification of pre-pregnancy BMI on  
224 the risk of preterm birth were all significantly positive, although CDE had a predominant influence and PIE played a  
225 weaker role. But indirect effects were only observed significantly for pure indirect effect (Figure 3-c). The results of  
226 total effect within this group of women who experienced excessive GWG indicated that (i) Underweight pre-  
227 pregnancy BMI was associated with a 19% higher risk of preterm birth (Excess RR: 0.19, 95% CI: 0.11-0.27, P value<  
228 0.001). (ii) Overweight pre-pregnancy BMI was associated with a 41% higher risk of preterm birth (Excess RR: 0.41,  
229 95% CI: 0.23-0.60, P value< 0.001). (iii) Obese pre-pregnancy BMI was associated with a 67% higher risk of preterm  
230 birth (Excess RR: 0.67, 95% CI: 0.35-1.00, P value< 0.001).

#### 231 4. DISCUSSION

232 The findings of the present prospective population-based study demonstrated that pre-pregnancy BMI is directly and  
233 positively associated with the risk of preterm birth, and this association is negatively mediated and interacted by GWG,  
234 which differed quantitatively between those who had different GWG classifications. Total association effect showed  
235 that women who were classified as underweight, overweight, or obese based on their pre-pregnancy BMI exhibited a  
236 higher risk of preterm birth compared to those with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI, but the amounts of the risk varied  
237 based on GWG classifications: (i) among women who had adequate GWG, those with underweight, overweight and  
238 obese pre-pregnancy BMI were significantly associated with 6%, 13% and 22% higher risk of preterm birth compared  
239 to normal pre-pregnancy BMI; (ii) among women who had inadequate GWG, those with underweight, overweight  
240 and obese pre-pregnancy BMI was significantly associated with 11%, 26% and 45% higher risk of preterm birth  
241 compared to normal pre-pregnancy BMI; and finally (iii) among women who had excessive GWG, those with  
242 underweight, overweight and obese pre-pregnancy BMI was significantly associated with 19%, 41% and 67% higher  
243 risk of preterm birth compared to normal pre-pregnancy BMI. However, the risk was lowest for those who had  
244 underweight pre-pregnancy BMI and adequate GWG and was highest for those who had obese pre-pregnancy BMI  
245 and excessive GWG.

246 There is a wealth of literature confirming the association between abnormal maternal BMI and an elevated risk of  
247 preterm birth (PTB) [21, 22]. Similar to maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, either excessive or inadequate GWG might  
248 contribute to an increased risk of PTB.<sup>4</sup> In agreement, another study carried out in England also identified this  
249 association and emphasized the significance of accurately categorizing obese mothers to circumvent misinterpreting  
250 PTB risk [23]. Likewise, a study in China confirmed that maternal obesity is associated with all types of PTB, with  
251 extremely preterm and medically-indicated PTB exhibiting the most profound risk [24]. Conversely, a systematic  
252 review encompassing over one million deliveries reported that underweight women had an increased risk of an LBW  
253 infant [25]. Furthermore, in a retrospective cohort study, Girsén et al. (2016) revealed that increasing severity of  
254 maternal pre-pregnancy underweight BMI was associated with increasing risk-adjusted PTB at <37 weeks [26].

255 In the present study, while we have presented robust evidence supporting the positive correlation between BMI and  
256 the risk of PTB, aligning with prior research, it is noteworthy that contrary to existing literature, this association was  
257 not observed among women categorized as underweight. However, it should be noted that as the number of  
258 underweight women who participated in this study was limited, the significance of this association in this population  
259 warrants cautious interpretation. In a secondary analysis of multi-center cross-sectional studies in Brazil, authors

260 revealed that inadequate GWG was associated with a higher prevalence of spontaneous PTB. Additionally,  
261 irrespective of maternal BMI, an increased rate of GWG was linked to a heightened occurrence of all PTB subtypes.<sup>12</sup>  
262 Consistent with a wealth of prior evidence, our study findings highlighted the U-shaped association between GWG  
263 and PTB. This indicates that extremes of GWG were linked to an increased risk of PTB.  
264 Furthermore, underweight women with insufficient GWG and overweight women with excessive GWG were the  
265 categories that were more agreed upon in the literature [27]. This indicates that extremes of BMI and GWG might  
266 synergistically amplify the influence of each other on the risk of PTB. However, these associations were investigated  
267 through different definitions, settings, and study designs [28]. Differences in measurements exist all over the literature.  
268 Some studies utilized classifications outside WHO guidelines to address their different populations [29]. For GWG,  
269 most of the studies used total GWG [27, 29]; other studies used chronological categorization to address the differences  
270 between trimesters regarding the embryological processes [8, 29, 30]. However, using a linear association without  
271 accounting for the potential mediating effect of GWG might be a significant limitation of prior research in this area.  
272 In the present study, the effect of GWG categories on the association between maternal BMI and the risk of PTB was  
273 decomposed into an interaction effect and a mediation-plus-interaction effect. This approach enabled us to examine  
274 whether the addition of a mediatory role to GWG and looking beyond a simple linear association between GWG and  
275 BMI would change the results. Therefore, controlled direct effects (CDEs) were compared with total effects (TEs) in  
276 different categories of BMI and GWG, which led to the discovery that the effect of BMI on the risk of PTB is bias  
277 estimated when the mediation effect of GWG is not taken into account. For instance, overweight women with an  
278 adequate GWG had 36 percent excessive risk of PTB versus normal weight women in the same category of GWG.  
279 However, when the mediatory effect of GWG was taken into account, this excessive risk became 13 percent, which  
280 is an important difference influencing clinical decisions.  
281 The present study highlighted the importance of closely monitoring maternal weight gain throughout pregnancy, as  
282 doing so can potentially mitigate its impact on the risk of PTB, as well as the influence of pre-pregnancy BMI on the  
283 risk of PTB. As such, preconception counseling is a critical component of prenatal care, with an emphasis on achieving  
284 a healthy BMI prior to conception, particularly for women who are overweight or obese. This may involve  
285 implementing lifestyle modifications such as a well-balanced diet and regular exercise regimen, and in some cases,  
286 bariatric surgery. Healthcare providers should provide appropriate guidance and support throughout pregnancy to help  
287 women achieve healthy weight gain. This includes regularly monitoring maternal weight and providing guidance on

288 healthy nutrition and exercise habits. Ultimately, ensuring optimal maternal health prior to and during pregnancy is  
289 critical for promoting positive neonatal and maternal outcomes.

290 This study benefited from a prospective population-based design, a large sample size, and a novel analysis method  
291 implemented to gain new perspectives on the ongoing debate regarding the associations between pre-pregnancy BMI,  
292 GWG, and the risk of PTB. Another strength of this study is related to its setting, a resource-limited country, which  
293 benefits the literature considering the scarcity of population-based studies in this setting. The present study has several  
294 limitations that merit discussion. Firstly, the analysis did not account for the impact of nutritional factors on both  
295 GWG and PTB, which may have led to an underestimation of the association between these variables. Secondly, the  
296 study evaluated GWG as a total rather than as a dynamic process throughout pregnancy, potentially overlooking  
297 important associations between trimester specific GWG and the risk of PTB. Thirdly, due to the limited sample size  
298 of underweight women, the findings for these groups should be viewed with caution. Finally, the small number of  
299 cases of very-early PTB (before 34 weeks of gestation) limited our potential to conduct subgroup analysis according  
300 to the time of PTB occurrence. In light of these limitations, future research should aim to account for the influence of  
301 relevant nutritional factors, utilize dynamic measures of GWG, and recruit larger samples of underweight women and  
302 very-early PTB cases to better elucidate the relationship between maternal weight and the risk of PTB.

303 In our study, the 4-way decomposition method was used to investigate the relationship between pre-pregnancy BMI,  
304 GWG, and risk of preterm birth. The findings demonstrated that pre-pregnancy BMI is directly and positively  
305 associated with the risk of preterm birth, and this association is negatively mediated and interacted by GWG, which  
306 differed quantitatively between those who had different GWG classifications. Total association effect showed that the  
307 risk was lowest for those who had underweight pre-pregnancy BMI and adequate GWG and was highest for those  
308 who had obese pre-pregnancy BMI and excessive GWG.

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310  
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### 313 314 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

315 AN was involved in study design, data analysis, manuscript drafting, and critical discussion. SB-G and FF substantial  
316 contributions to conception and design, revising the manuscript, and critical debate, FRT conceptualized the study and  
317 was involved in the study design, interpretation of findings, revising the manuscript, and critical discussion. MR  
318 contributed to statistical analysis, interpreting data, and manuscript drafting. FA was involved in made substantial  
319 contributions to conception and design, and critical discussion. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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325 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

326 None.

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399 **Figure legend**

400 Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Four-Way Decomposition Analysis

- 401 • **Arrow 1 (excluding Arrow 3):** Controlled Direct Effect (CDE) - The direct effect of maternal BMI on  
402 PTB, not mediated by GWG.
- 403 • **Arrow 3 + Arrow 1 (excluding Arrow 2): Reference Interaction (INTref)** - The combined effect of  
404 BMI and GWG on PTB, considering the interaction but excluding the mediation pathway via GWG.
- 405 • **Arrow 2 + Arrow 4: Pure Indirect Effect (PIE)** - The effect of maternal BMI on PTB that is mediated  
406 solely through GWG.
- 407 • **Arrow 2 + Arrow 3 + Arrow 1: Mediated Interaction (INTmed)** - The interaction effect of BMI and  
408 GWG on PTB, which includes both the direct and indirect pathways.

409 Confounders included in the analysis were Maternal age, GDM status, preeclampsia status, infant sex, and assigned  
410 protocols.

411 **Figure 2.** Locally weighted regression (LOWESS) plots. (a) GWG to pre-pregnancy BMI; (b) GWG to logit  
412 transformed smooth of PTB outcome; (c) pre-pregnancy BMI to logit transformed smooth of PTB outcome.  
413 Abbreviations: GWG, gestational weight gain; BMI, body mass index; PTB, preterm birth.

414 Figure 3. Analysis of the four-way decomposition effects of GWG categories on the association between pre-  
415 pregnancy BMI classifications and excess relative risk of PTB. (a) adequate “normal” GWG; (b) inadequate “under”  
416 GWG; and (c) excessive “over” GWG. Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; BMI, body mass index; CDE,  
417 controlled direct effect; INTref, reference interaction; INTmed, mediated interaction; PIE, pure indirect effect.  
418 Total Effect = CDE + INTref + INTmed + PIE. Adjusted by maternal age, GDM status, preeclampsia status, infant  
419 sex, and assigned protocols.

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430 **Table 1.** Baseline characteristics of the participants.

Variables	Mothers with Preterm infants (N=1,640)	Mothers with Term infants (N=24,461)	P-value
Age (years)	30.5 (6.2)	29.7 (5.8)	<0.001
Maternal weight at first trimester (kg)	66.5 (12.6)	65.6 (12.1)	0.002
Maternal BMI at first trimester (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	26.2 (4.7)	25.7 (4.5)	<0.001
Gravida	2.4 (1.5)	2.2 (1.2)	<0.001
Parity	1.1 (1.0)	1.1 (0.9)	0.021
>1, n (%)	1244 (75.8)	18703 (93.8)	0.501
Gestational Weight gain (kg)	9.0 (4.9)	11.3 (4.5)	<0.001
Gestational age at delivery (weeks)	34.2 (3.0)	39.0 (1.1)	<0.001
Type of delivery (cesarean section), n (%)	859 (52.3)	9481 (38.7)	<0.001
Infant sex (male), n (%)	718 (45.5)	11020 (47.1)	0.212
Birth weight (gr)	2402.9 (691.4)	3243.5 (422.7)	<0.001
GDM, n (%)	268 (16.3)	3363 (13.7)	0.004
Macrosomia, n (%)	102 (6.5)	1432 (6.1)	0.607
LBW, n (%)	888 (56.3)	1439 (6.1)	<0.001
Preeclampsia, n (%)	292 (18.5)	2571 (11.0)	<0.001
NICU admission, n (%)	519 (32.9)	890 (3.8)	<0.001
Hypoglycemia, n (%)	43 (2.7)	201 (0.9)	<0.001
Hypocalcemia, n (%)	30 (1.9)	132 (0.6)	<0.001
IUFD, n (%)	104 (6.6)	67 (0.3)	<0.001
Birth trauma, n (%)	67 (4.2)	67 (0.3)	<0.001

Data are presented as mean (standard deviation) or number (%). Independent t-test, or chi-square test were used as appropriate. Statistically significant result: p < 0.05. Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; GDM, gestational diabetes mellitus; NICU, neonatal intensive care unit; IUFD, intrauterine fetal demise; LBW, low birth weight.

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433 **Table 2.** Frequency of mothers with term and preterm infants based on BMI and GWG classifications.

Variables	Preterm Birth (n = 1,640)				Term Birth (n = 24,461)			
	GWG				GWG			
BMI	Inadequate	Adequate	Excessive	Total	Inadequate	Adequate	Excessive	Total
Underweight	44 (65.7)	21 (31.3)	2 (3.0)	67 (100)	485 (47.9)	416 (41.1)	111 (11.0)	1012 (100)
Normal weight	391 (64.7)	165 (27.2)	49 (8.1)	605 (100)	4455 (43.6)	3915 (38.3)	1850 (18.1)	10222 (100)
Overweight	215 (34.5)	233 (37.5)	175 (28.0)	623 (100)	1659 (18.2)	3629 (40.0)	3798 (41.8)	9086 (100)
Obese	97 (28.1)	133 (38.6)	115 (33.3)	345 (100)	625 (15.0)	1411 (34.1)	2107 (50.9)	4143 (100)
Total	748 (45.5)	553 (33.7)	341 (20.8)	1640 (100)	7224 (29.5)	9374 (38.3)	7867 (32.2)	24,461 (100)

Data are presented as number (%).

GWG: gestational weight gain; BMI: body mass index.

Underweight was defined as BMI < 18.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, normal weight was defined as BMI: 18.5-24.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, and overweight was defined as BMI: 25.0-29.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup> and obese was defined as BMI: ≥ 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Inadequate GWG was defined as GWG < 12.5 kg in mothers with underweight, < 11.5 kg in mothers with normal-weight, GWG < 7 kg in mothers who were overweight, and < 5 kg in mothers with obesity. Adequate GWG was defined as GWG between 12.5-18.5 kg in mothers with underweight, 11.5-16 kg in mothers with normal weight, 7-11.5 kg in mothers who were overweight, and 5-9 kg in mothers with obesity. Excessive GWG was defined as GWG > 18 kg in mothers with underweight, > 16 kg in mothers with normal-weight, > 11.5 kg in mother with overweight, and > 9 kg in mothers with obesity.

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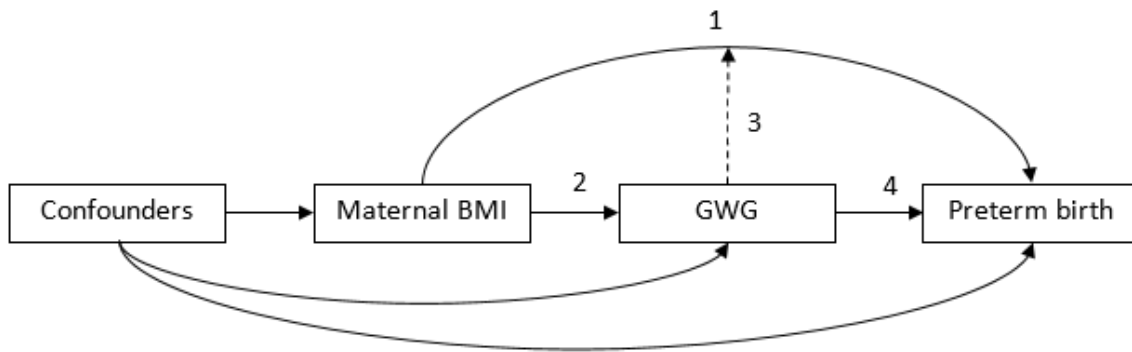
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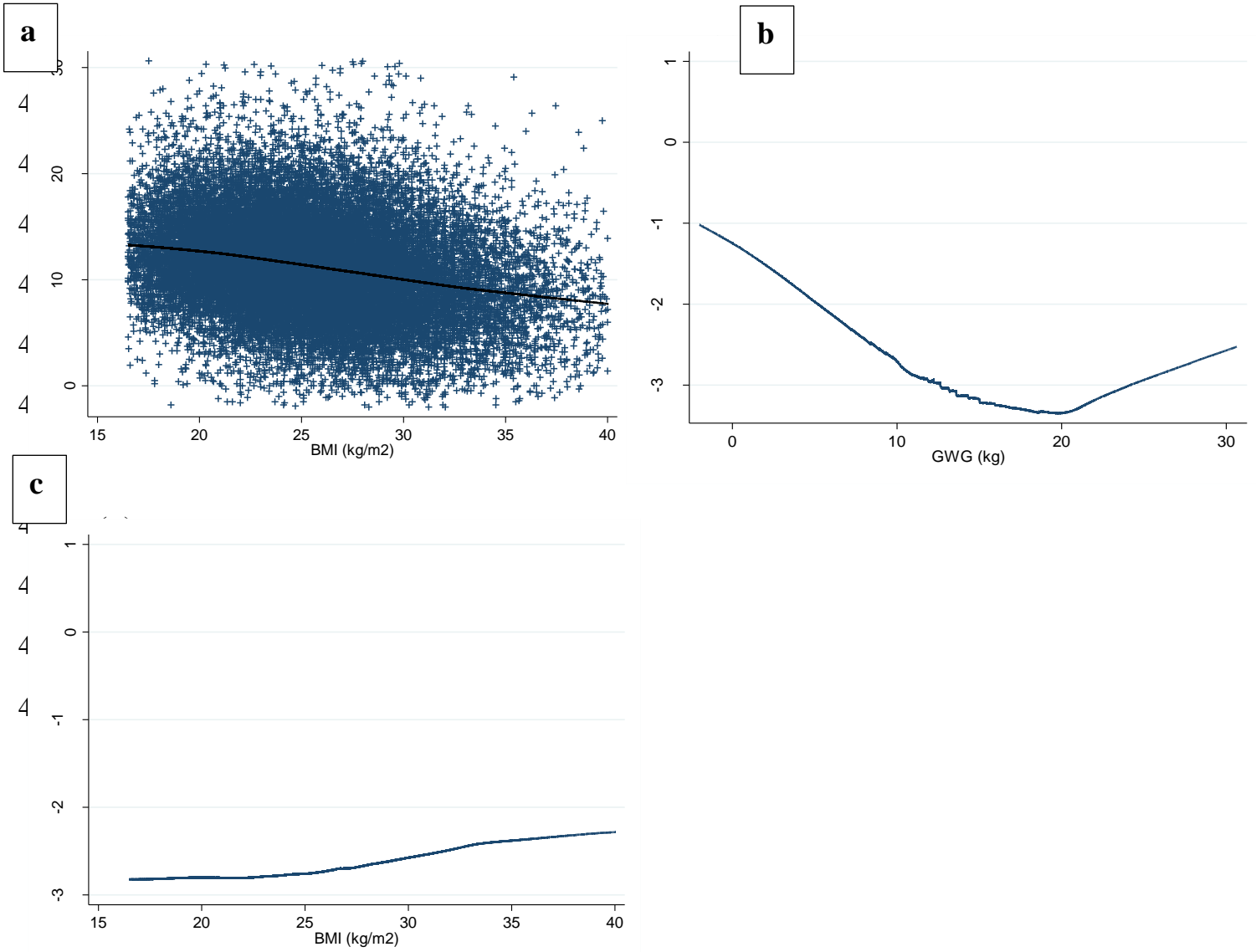
440 **Figure 1.**

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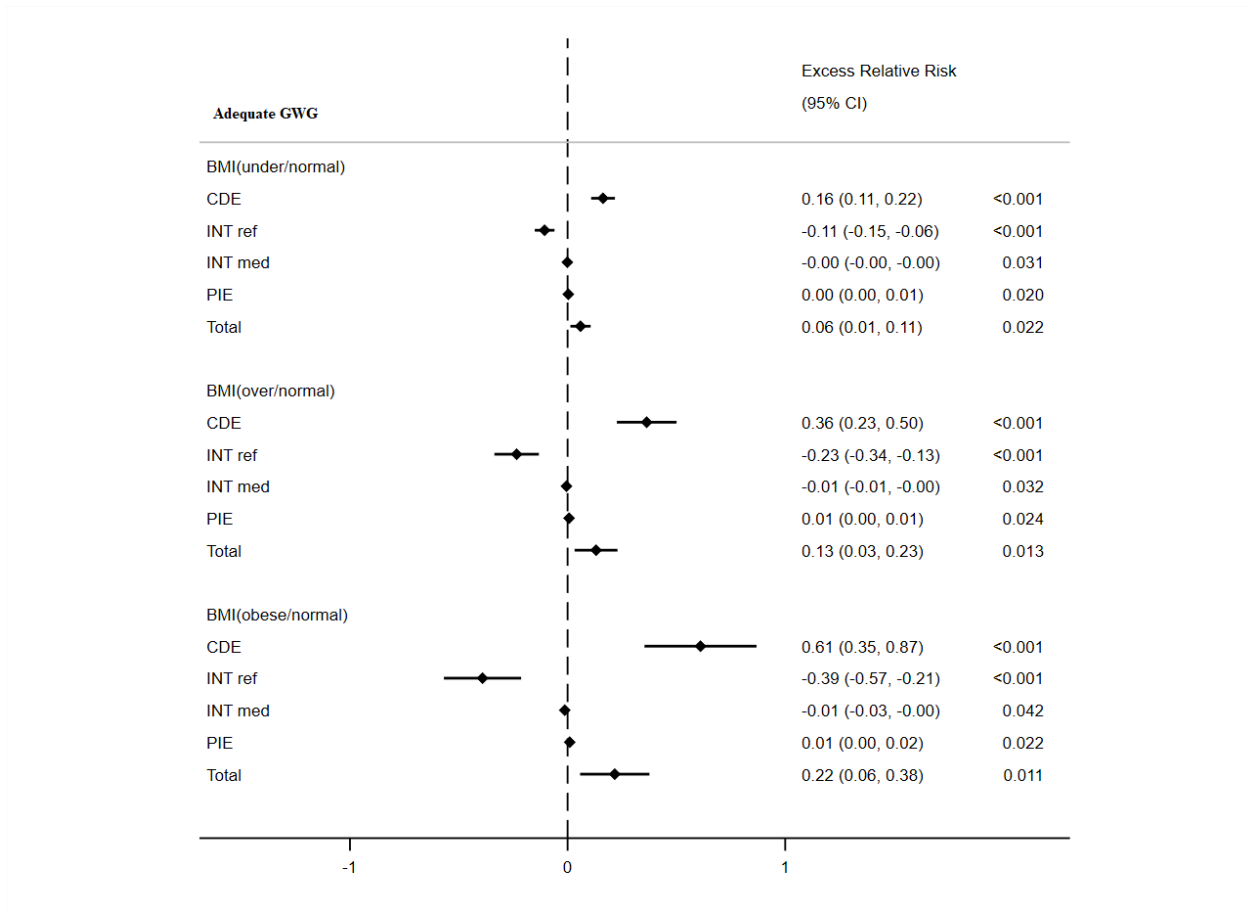
442 **Figure 2.**

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456 Figure 3.

457 (a)

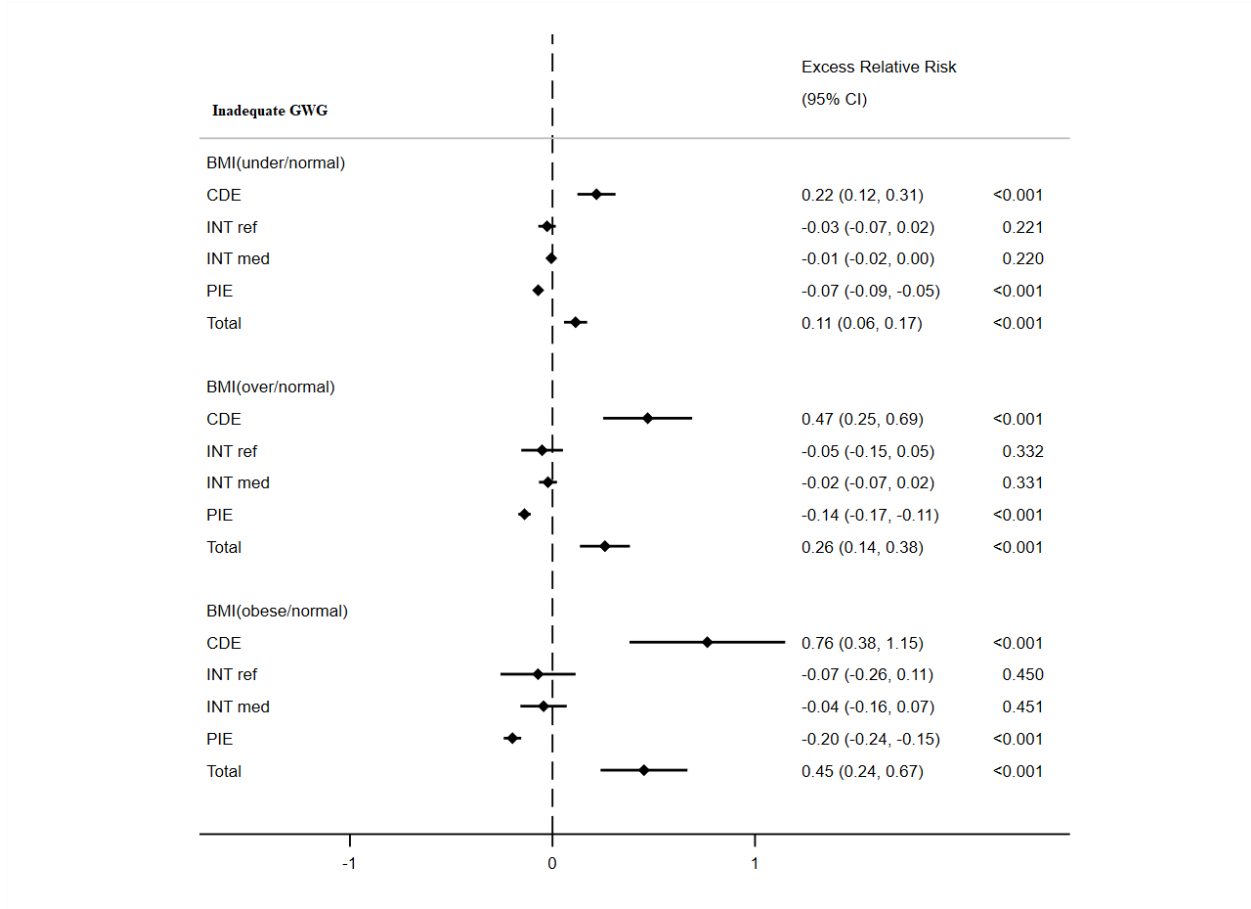


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461 (b)



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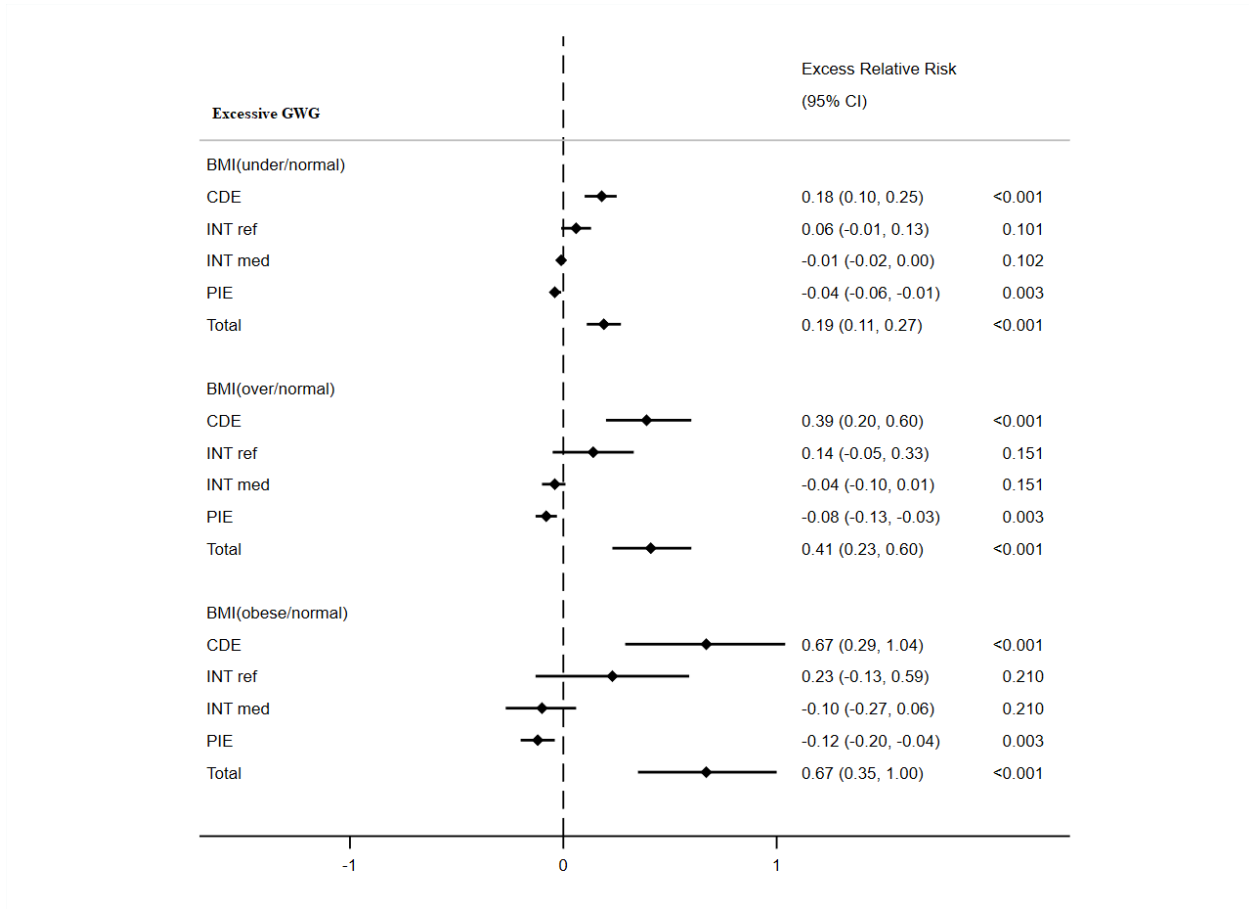
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467 (c)



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483 Supplementary Figure 1. Consort flow chart  
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