

Methodological Approaches to Imputing Early-Pregnancy Weight Based on Weight Measures Collected During Pregnancy

Jiaxi Yang

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health

Dongqing Wang

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health

Anne Marie Darling

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health

Enju Liu

Boston Children's Hospital

Nandita Perumal

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health

Wafaie W. Fawzi

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health

Molin Wang (✉ stmow@channing.harvard.edu)

Harvard University T H Chan School of Public Health <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1951-8961>

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1 **Title:** Methodological approaches to imputing early-pregnancy weight based on weight measures
2 collected during pregnancy

3 **Authors:** Jiayi Yang¹, Dongqing Wang², Anne Marie Darling², Enju Liu³, Nandita Perumal²,
4 Wafaie W. Fawzi^{1,2,4}, Molin Wang^{1,5}

5 **Affiliations**

6 ¹ Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston,
7 Massachusetts, United States

8 ² Department of Global Health and Population, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health,
9 Boston, Massachusetts, United States

10 ³ Institutional Centers for Clinical and Translational Research, Boston Children's Hospital,
11 Boston, Massachusetts, United States

12 ⁴ Department of Nutrition, Harvard T. H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts,
13 United States

14 ⁵ Department of Biostatistics, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston,
15 Massachusetts, United States

16

17 **Correspondence**

18 Molin Wang, PhD

19 Departments of Biostatistics and Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health

20 677 Huntington Ave

21 Boston Massachusetts, United States 02215

22 Email: stmow@channing.harvard.edu

23 **Abstract**

24 **Background:** Early pregnancy weights are needed to quantify gestational weight gain
25 accurately. Different methods have been used in previous studies to impute early-pregnancy
26 weights. However, no studies have systematically compared imputed weight accuracy across
27 different imputation techniques. This study aimed to compare four methodological approaches to
28 imputing early-pregnancy weight, using repeated measures of pregnancy weights collected from
29 two pregnancy cohorts in Tanzania.

30 **Methods:** The mean gestational ages at enrollment were 17.8 weeks for Study I and 10.0 weeks
31 for Study II. Given the gestational age distributions at enrollment, early-pregnancy weights were
32 extrapolated for Study I and interpolated for Study II. The four imputation approaches included:
33 (i) simple imputation based on the nearest measure, (ii) simple arithmetic imputation based on
34 the nearest two measures, (iii) mixed-effects models, and (iv) generalized estimating equations.
35 For the mixed-effects model and the generalized estimating equation model methods, imputation
36 accuracy was further compared across varying degrees of model flexibility by fitting splines and
37 polynomial terms. Additional analyses included dropping third-trimester weights, adding
38 covariate to the models, and log-transforming weight before imputation. Mean absolute error was
39 used to quantify imputation accuracy.

40 **Results:** Study I included 1,472 women with 6,272 weight measures; Study II included 2,131
41 individuals with 11,775 weight measures. Among the four imputation approaches, mixed-effects
42 models had the highest accuracy (smallest mean absolute error: 1.99 kg and 1.60 kg for Studies I
43 and II, respectively), while the other three approaches showed similar degrees of accuracy.
44 Depending on the underlying data structure, allowing appropriate degree of model flexibility and
45 dropping remote pregnancy weight measures may further improve the imputation performance.

46 **Conclusions:** Mixed-effects models had superior performance in imputing early-pregnancy
47 weight compared to other commonly used strategies.

48

49 **Keywords:** Africa, Tanzania, pregnancy, gestational weight, epidemiologic methods, statistical
50 model

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69 **Background**

70 The role of gestational weight gain (GWG) on pregnancy-related outcomes and future life events
71 for both maternal and child health has been extensively examined [1-9]. In addition, GWG has
72 also been evaluated as an outcome itself with respect to dietary and lifestyle factors [10-12].
73 GWG is commonly characterized as a single summary measure, such as absolute weight gain
74 during pregnancy or rate of weight gain over a specific time window. Recommendations for
75 GWG have correspondingly been developed using these metrics [13-16].

76
77 The use of total weight gain or rate of weight gain to quantify GWG requires the availability of
78 pre-pregnancy weight or at least first-trimester weight (assuming minimal weight gain during the
79 first trimester) [13]. However, this is often challenging, especially in low- and middle-income
80 countries, where few pregnancy cohorts begin maternal weight collection before pregnancy or
81 during the first trimester, as most pregnant women in resource-limited settings do not initiate
82 antenatal care until the second or third trimesters [17]. Consequently, pre-pregnancy or early-
83 pregnancy weights are often unavailable in such studies. Furthermore, even when weights are
84 available during early pregnancy, they are often collected at different gestational weeks, making
85 comparisons of results across different studies difficult.

86
87 Various methods have been used in previous studies to impute early-pregnancy weights based on
88 weights collected later during pregnancy [18-20]. To our knowledge, however, no studies have
89 systematically compared the imputation accuracy across different techniques. To fill in this gap
90 with important implication in research implementations, we examined four methodological
91 approaches to impute early-pregnancy weight, including (i) simple imputation based on the

92 nearest one weight measure, (ii) simple arithmetic imputation based on the nearest two weight
93 measures, (iii) mixed-effects models, and (iv) generalized estimating equations (GEEs) [21-23].
94 We used data from two pregnancy cohorts from Tanzania. Because the two studies had different
95 distributions of gestational age at enrollment, they effectively represented two different scenarios
96 where first-trimester weights are either generally available (interpolation) or generally
97 unavailable (extrapolation). We hypothesized that the mixed-effects and GEE models would
98 outperform the two simple imputation approaches. We also hypothesized that weight
99 interpolation would have higher accuracy than weight extrapolation.

100

101 **Methods**

102 Study population

103 We used data from two randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trials conducted in Dar es
104 Salaam, Tanzania. The details of these two studies have been described elsewhere [24, 25].

105 Briefly, Studies I and II were conducted between 2010 to 2012 and 2010 to 2013, respectively.

106 For both studies, participants were screened and enrolled at antenatal care clinics. Study I
107 enrolled 1,500 pregnant women who were randomized to receive a daily oral dose of either 60
108 mg of iron or placebo from the time of enrollment until delivery [24]. Study II enrolled 2,500
109 pregnant women who were randomized in a two-by-two factorial design to daily oral vitamin A
110 and zinc supplements [25].

111

112 At baseline, participants in both studies completed a sociodemographic and reproductive health
113 questionnaire as well as a full clinical examination. They were subsequently followed when the
114 participants were provided with standard prenatal care, and trained research nurses administered

115 health questionnaires and performed an obstetric examination. For our analysis, we excluded
116 participants with missing gestational age at enrollment or multiple fetuses (n = 28 for Study I; n
117 = 369 for Study II), leaving us with a final sample of 1,472 participants for Study I and 2,131
118 participants for Study II.

119

120 Gestational weight assessment

121 For both studies, weights (kg) at enrollment and monthly follow-up visits were measured by
122 trained study nurses using calibrated scales. Due to the different eligibility criteria, the
123 distributions of gestational age at enrollment differed between the two studies (mean gestational
124 age at enrollment: 17.8 weeks and 10.0 weeks for Study I and Study II, respectively). As a result,
125 the majority of participants in Study I did not have available weight measures collected during
126 the first trimester or early second trimester. In contrast, all of the participants in Study II had at
127 least one weight measure during the first trimester. For each study, implausible weight measures
128 (weight < 30 kg or > 120 kg) were excluded from analysis, leaving us with a total of 6,272 and
129 11,775 available weight measures for analysis from Study I and Study II, respectively.

130

131 Statistical analysis

132 We evaluated four methodological approaches to imputing early-pregnancy weight in Study I
133 and Study II, separately. Given the timings of available weight measures collected during the
134 follow-up period for each study, we imputed gestational weight at the end of the first trimester,
135 defined as the window between 13 and 15 weeks of gestation. Due to the different distributions
136 of gestational age at enrollment between the two studies, the imputation represented

137 extrapolation (i.e., imputing values farther away from the center of the data range) for Study I
138 and interpolation (i.e., imputing values closer to the center of the data range) for Study II.

139

140 To perform weight imputation and evaluate the imputation performance, we divided each study
141 into a testing set and a training set. For the testing set of each study, we randomly selected a
142 single sample of 200 participants who had at least one weight measure between 13 and 15 weeks
143 of gestation and at least two weight measures during the entire follow-up period. We chose a
144 sample size of 200 for the testing set based on the small number of participants with available
145 weight measures near the end of the first trimester in Study I ($n = 231$). For women in the testing
146 set with multiple weight measures between 13 and 15 weeks, the measurement closest to 14
147 weeks and 0 days (i.e., the end of the first trimester) was used as the target time point for
148 imputation. Therefore, the testing set for each study included the weights of the 200 random
149 participants taken at the target time points. These weights were later used as the observed early-
150 pregnancy weights when compared with the imputed weights. On the other hand, the training
151 dataset included all participants and their corresponding weight measurements except the target
152 weight measurements set aside in the testing dataset.

153

154 We evaluated the performances of four imputation methods: (i) simple imputation by assigning
155 the nearest weight, (ii) simple arithmetic imputation based on the nearest two weight measures,
156 (iii) mixed-effects models, and (iv) generalized estimating equation (GEE) models. The
157 imputation method assigning the nearest weight measure (method i) was performed by directly
158 taking the weight measure closest to the target time point from the training set as the imputed
159 weight. The arithmetic imputation based on the nearest two weight measures (method ii) was

160 performed by identifying the two weight measures closest to the target time point in the training
161 set, calculating the rate of weight gain between the two time points assuming linearity, and then
162 applying the rate to impute the weight at the target time point.

163

164 The mixed-effects model method (method iii) was performed by fitting the following mixed-
165 effects regression model for gestational weight in the training dataset:

$$166 \quad W_{ij} = b_i + \boldsymbol{\beta}_i^T g(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{ij},$$

167 where W_{ij} represents the j th measured weight for the i th subject which was measured at

168 gestational week t_{ij} , $g(t_{ij})$ represents a linear or linear plus nonlinear terms of gestational week

169 t_{ij} , b_i and $\boldsymbol{\beta}_i$ are the subject-specific random intercept and slopes following normal distributions

170 which do not necessarily have zero means, and ε_{ij} is an error term following a mean-zero normal

171 distribution [18, 26]. The imputed gestational weight for subject i at a target gestational week t is

172 then $\hat{b}_i + \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^T g(t)$. Therefore, the between-person variation in gestational weight trajectories

173 was accounted for by including the subject-specific random effects.

174

175 The GEE method (method iv) was performed by fitting the following fixed-effects regression
176 model in the training dataset:

$$177 \quad W_{ij} = \gamma + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T g(t_{ij}) + e_{ij},$$

178 where γ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ are the fixed-effects intercept and slopes, and e_{ij} is a mean-zero error term which

179 is not required to be normally distributed. The imputed gestational weight for subject i at a target

180 gestational week t is then $\hat{\gamma} + \hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^T g(t) + \hat{e}_i$, where \hat{e}_i is the average of the residuals, \hat{e}_{ij} , for the

181 weights at all the gestational weeks available in the training set. Therefore, for the GEE method,

182 the between-person variation in gestational weight trajectories was accounted for by including

183 the subject-specific residuals. We used unstructured variance-covariance matrix for both the
184 mixed-effects model and the GEE model methods. Importantly, for both the mixed effects and
185 the GEE methods, the observed weights at the target gestational weeks for which the gestational
186 weights were imputed were not included in the training set in which the regression models were
187 fit.

188
189 We evaluated potential non-linear gestational week trajectories by adding quadratic and cubic
190 terms to the model. We also modeled gestational age using restricted cubic splines with three,
191 four, and five knots placed at equally spaced percentiles of the observed gestational weeks in the
192 training set [26, 27]. We additionally explored alternative knot placements with three knots at the
193 5th, 50th, and 95th percentiles, four knots at the 5th, 35th, 65th, and 95th percentiles, and five knots
194 at the 5th, 27.5th, 50th, 72.5th, and 95th percentiles [18, 26]. For the GEE method, in addition to the
195 mean residual approach described above, we also implemented a nearest residual approach; that
196 is, the imputed gestational weight for subject i at the target gestational week t was $\hat{\gamma} + \hat{\alpha}^T g(t) +$
197 $\hat{e}_{ij'}$, where $\hat{e}_{ij'}$ is the residual corresponding to subject i 's measurement in the training set that is
198 closest to the target time t .

199
200 Using the modeling methods described above, we imputed a subject-specific weight at the target
201 gestational week for each subject in the testing set, who had available weight measurement
202 between 13 and 15 weeks of gestation. Model performance was evaluated based on the mean
203 absolute error (MAE, kg), which was calculated by taking the average of the absolute differences
204 between the imputed weight and the observed weight at the same time point during the
205 pregnancy over the subjects in the testing set. Mean square error (MSE), spearman correlation

206 coefficient (r), and proportion of subjects in the testing set with difference in imputed weight and
207 observed weight within 2 kg were also evaluated.

208

209 Sensitivity analyses included 1) examining the influences of distant weight measures by
210 dropping the third-trimester weights from analysis; 2) including gravidity as a predictor in the
211 models; and 3) natural log-transforming weight before fitting the models. All analyses were
212 conducted using SAS statistical software (version 9.4; SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC, USA).

213 Sample SAS programs are available upon request.

214

215 **Results**

216 Study I had 1,472 subjects with 6,272 observed weight measures; Study II had 2,131 subjects
217 with 11,775 observed weight measures. The population characteristics of the studies are
218 summarized in Table 1. The mean baseline gestational age was 17.8 weeks (SD = 4.4 weeks) for
219 Study I and 10.0 weeks (SD = 2.4 weeks) for Study II. The median for the total numbers of
220 weight measurements was 5 (range: 1 - 9) for Study I and 6 for Study II (range: 1 - 10). The
221 characteristics of the subjects included in the testing sets were similar to those in the entire
222 datasets for both studies. To visualize the data, we randomly selected 20 subjects from each
223 study and plotted the observed weight measures (Supplement figures 1, 2). Subjects from both
224 studies showed increased gestational weight over the course of pregnancy.

225

226 Weight extrapolation in Study I

227 In Study I, which had fewer weight measures collected during the first trimester compared to
228 Study II, we extrapolated early-pregnancy weight based on weights collected later in the

229 pregnancy. Across the four methods evaluated, the mixed-effects model had the highest
230 imputation accuracy (restricted cubic splines model with three knots at quartiles: MAE = 1.99 kg
231 (SD = 1.70 kg, interquartile range: 0.70 - 2.65 kg)) (Table 2). Results from the MSE, the
232 correlation coefficient, and the proportion of subjects with difference in imputed weight and
233 observed weight within 2 kg were consistent with the MAE results (the mixed-effects model with
234 the lowest MAE: MSE = 6.86 kg, correlation coefficient = 0.96, proportion of subjects in the
235 testing set with the weight difference within 2 kg = 62%). Varying model flexibility in the
236 mixed-effects model by adding additional polynomial terms or spline terms did not considerably
237 improve the accuracy. Among the other three imputation methods in imputing early-pregnancy
238 weight (assigning the nearest measure, arithmetic calculation using nearest two measures, and
239 GEE model), assigning to the nearest weight measure gave the smallest MAE (nearest weight
240 method: MAE = 2.46 kg; arithmetic calculation using nearest two measures: MAE = 2.91 kg;
241 GEE model with cubic polynomials: MAE = 2.93 kg) (Table 2).

242

243 In the sensitivity analyses, dropping third-trimester pregnancy weights from the mixed-effects
244 models slightly improved the accuracy (Table 2). For the GEE approach, GEE models with the
245 mean weight residual produced consistently lower MAEs, compared to GEE models with the
246 nearest weight residual (Table 2). Log-transforming weight or including gravidity as a predictor
247 did not improve the accuracy (results not shown).

248

249 Weight interpolation in Study II

250 In Study II, because all women had at least one weight measure collected during the first
251 trimester, we interpolated early-pregnancy weight based on weights collected throughout the

252 pregnancy. Mixed-effects model showed the highest imputation accuracy (restricted cubic
253 splines model with five knots placed at the 5th, 27.5th, 50th, 72.5th, 95th percentiles: MAE = 1.60
254 kg (SD = 1.72 kg, interquartile range: 0.60 - 1.20 kg), MSE = 5.49 kg, correlation coefficient =
255 0.96, proportion of subjects in the testing set with the weight difference within 2 kg = 77%; the
256 sextiles methods had similar results). A slight improvement in accuracy was seen with varying
257 model flexibility in the mixed-effects models. The other three imputation approaches showed
258 similar degrees of accuracy, which were all lower than that from the mixed-effects models
259 (nearest weight method: MAE = 2.14 kg; arithmetic calculation using nearest two measures:
260 MAE = 2.00 kg; GEE model with five knots: MAE = 1.95 kg) (Table 2).

261

262 In the sensitivity analyses, we did not observe a consistent pattern of improvement in the weight
263 interpolation analyses when dropping the third-trimester weights (Table 2). GEE models with the
264 mean residual and the nearest weight residual performed similarly. Finally, log-transforming or
265 including a third covariate did not improve accuracy (results not shown).

266

267 For data visualization, we randomly selected eight individuals from the testing dataset of each
268 study and plotted their observed weights and imputed weights based on the four methods
269 (Figures 1, 2). For the mixed-effects model with the lowest MAE in each study, we further
270 plotted the observed weight against the difference between the observed weight and the imputed
271 weight at the target pregnancy time for the individuals included in the testing set (Supplement
272 figures 3, 4).

273

274 **Discussion**

275 We compared four approaches to imputing early-pregnancy weight based on weights collected
276 during pregnancy. We report that the mixed-effects models have the highest overall imputation
277 accuracy compared to the other three methods. We also find that mixed-effects models were
278 robust for both the scenarios of extrapolation and interpolation based on the underlying
279 distributions of available weights. The imputation error from the mixed-effects models can be as
280 low as 1.6 to 2.0 kg, corresponding to approximately 3 to 4% of the average weight in early
281 pregnancy. Comparing the results between the two studies, Study II with more participants and
282 weight measurements, and earlier gestational age for the weight measurements, has more
283 accurate imputation results. Specifically, comparing the MAEs between the interpolation on
284 Study II and the extrapolation on Study I, we observed an approximate 20% lower in MAE for
285 the mixed-effects model method, 30% lower for the GEE model method, 30% lower for the
286 simple arithmetic calculation, and 15% lower for the nearest weight measure assignment.
287

288 Overall, our results support the preferable use of mixed-effect models over GEE or more
289 traditional approaches. When comparing the imputation errors between the two simple
290 imputation approaches (i.e. assigning nearest weight and arithmetic imputation using nearest two
291 weight measures) and the mixed-effects model approach, we saw a difference in MAEs up to 0.9
292 kg and 0.5 kg in weight extrapolation on Study I and weight interpolation on Study II,
293 respectively. The relatively small differences in the imputation errors across the four methods
294 may suggest that, compared to the simple arithmetic approaches, the use of mixed-effect models
295 may not considerably impact the estimates in the epidemiological studies on gestational weight
296 or GWG. However, modeling-based imputation, such as the mixed-effects model method, allows
297 one to anchor the weight estimate at a specific time point of a pregnancy without making

298 additional assumptions on the underlying gestational age distribution or the GWG trajectory for a
299 given study. This is particularly important when there is heterogeneity in the gestational age at
300 study baseline, the length of intervals between pregnancy measurements, or the trajectory of
301 GWG across the study subjects. Since our study only evaluated the magnitude of differences
302 across different imputation methods in imputing early-pregnancy weight, future studies are
303 needed to further compare and quantify the differences in performance across different
304 imputation methods at different time points of pregnancy.

305

306 In our study, we observed different patterns of imputation errors across the mixed-effects models
307 with varying degree of model flexibility between weight extrapolation on Study I and weight
308 interpolation on Study II. When extrapolating early-pregnancy weights with limited data
309 available, our findings suggest that overfitting should be a concern when selecting the optimal
310 mixed-effects model. When early-pregnancy weight data was not generally available (as in Study
311 I), fewer knots or polynomial terms in mixed-effects models might outperform more complex
312 models with additional model flexibility; dropping weights collected in later pregnancy might
313 further improve accuracy. However, when interpolating early-pregnancy weight with earlier
314 weights available in a study with a large sample size, allowing for model flexibility by adding
315 additional splines or polynomial terms might slightly improve the model performance.

316 Therefore, mixed-effects models with appropriate degrees of model flexibility based on the
317 underlying study data structure should be considered when choosing the approach to impute
318 early-pregnancy weight.

319

320 Previous studies have attempted to impute missing pregnancy weight using different methods [7,
321 18-20, 26, 28, 29]. Most of the studies applied a simple arithmetic approach without using all the
322 available weight measurements [7, 19, 20, 28, 29]. Our results suggest that having more weight
323 data closer to the gestational week of interest and fitting models which allow between-person
324 variation would produce better imputation accuracy. Using weight data from a hospital-based
325 study in the United States, Darling et al. evaluated performances between mixed-effects models
326 and simple arithmetic methods for imputing week 28 and week 40 of gestation weight and
327 reported similar findings (MAEs of 1.21 - 2.62 kg from their mixed-effects models) [26]. In this
328 study, we imputed pregnancy weight at a different time of gestation, and the mixed-effects model
329 still outperformed arithmetic imputation approaches, suggesting its potential application in
330 imputing pregnancy weight at different time points. Similar to Darling et al., we found that
331 adding covariates or variable transformation did not improve accuracy. Overall, the current
332 literature suggests that the mixed-effects model can be a useful and robust approach to imputing
333 pregnancy weight at different time points during pregnancy using repeated weight measures.

334

335 To our knowledge, this is the first study evaluating the GEE method in imputing pregnancy
336 weight. Compared to the mixed-effects model method with random intercepts and slopes, the
337 GEE method does not require any normality assumption and accounts for individual differences
338 in GWG by adding a subject-specific residual to the group-level mean. This subject-specific
339 residual is analogous to the random intercept in the mixed-effects model method. However, the
340 GEE method does not take into account the between-subject variation in the slope of the time
341 term in the regression model, while this is taken into account through random slopes in the
342 mixed-effects model. In both studies, the GEE method performed poorly compared to the mixed-

343 effects models, suggesting that including a subject-specific slope of the time term was necessary
344 to capture the heterogeneity of GWG patterns among participants and that the robustness to
345 normality in the GEE method did not compensate for the disadvantage of ignoring this subject-
346 specific slope of the time term. Furthermore, the GEE method using the mean residual performed
347 similarly to the nearest weight residual method for weight interpolation in Study II but
348 outperformed the nearest weight residual method for weight extrapolation in Study I, indicating
349 that different residual approaches should be considered when using the GEE method on datasets
350 with different pregnancy weight distributions. Since the GEE method has rarely been used in
351 previous studies, future studies should further evaluate its performance under different residual
352 methods.

353

354 Our study had several strengths. First, we undertook imputation analyses on two separate data
355 cohorts with repeated weight measurements, allowing us to evaluate the imputation performance
356 under different availabilities of early-pregnancy weights. Second, we compared multiple
357 traditional and novel imputation techniques, including the GEE method, with varying degrees of
358 model flexibility. Given the importance of GWG on optimal pregnancy outcomes and the long-
359 term health of mother and the offspring [3, 4, 6-9], our findings will benefit studies examining
360 GWG with respect to pregnancy-related or future disease outcomes with limited weight
361 measures, when the knowledge of early-pregnancy weight is critical to characterize GWG.

362

363 Our study had some limitations. First, there was no pre-pregnancy weight or body mass index
364 available in either study, and only 15.7% of participants in Study I had first-trimester weights
365 available. Given the availability of the data, we chose 14 weeks of gestation as the target point

366 for weight imputation to avoid over-extrapolation. Consequently, we were unable to evaluate the
367 imputation methods in imputing pre-pregnancy weight or pregnancy weight earlier than the
368 target time point of 14 weeks of gestation. Nevertheless, the two studies that we used had
369 different distributions of pregnancy weights, which represented imputing early-pregnancy weight
370 under different scenarios. The consistent results between our two studies and the similar
371 conclusions from the study by Darling et al. [26] suggested the robustness of the mixed-effects
372 model approach in imputing pregnancy weight at different time points of pregnancy. Second, due
373 to the limited number of women with early-pregnancy weights from Study I (n = 231), the size of
374 the testing set was small. As a result, our results might have been influenced by a few extreme
375 weight values. Furthermore, we did not have sufficient power to evaluate the imputation
376 performance by creating multiple random testing sets to validate our findings. Last but not least,
377 it is unclear whether our findings can be generalized to women outside of Tanzania or sub-
378 Saharan Africa. However, the results on imputing pregnancy weights at week 14 and week 28 of
379 gestation, based on a study of the predominantly Caucasian population in the United States had
380 similar findings [26], supporting our conclusion on the robustness of the mixed-effects model
381 approach.

382

383 **Conclusions**

384 Our study suggests that mixed-effects models are useful in research settings to impute early-
385 pregnancy weights when such measures were not available. Future studies are warranted to
386 further validate the mixed-effects model approach in other studies and in imputing pregnancy
387 weights at different time points of pregnancy. The utility of alternative approaches, such as
388 multiple imputation, should also be examined in future work.

389

390 **Abbreviations**

391 GWG: gestational weight gain; GEE: generalized estimating equation; MAE: mean absolute
392 error; MSE: mean square error

393

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396 coordinators, doctors, nurses, midwives, supervisors, and the laboratory, administrative, and data
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399

400 **Authors' contributions**

401 All the authors contributed to the study design and analysis concept. JY and DW conducted the
402 statistical analysis. MW supervised the analysis. JY drafted the manuscript. All the authors
403 revised the manuscript and approved the final version.

404

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409

410 **Availability of data and materials**

411 The datasets analyzed during the current study are not publicly available due to regulatory
412 obligations of the collaborating institutions but are available from the corresponding author on
413 reasonable request.

414

415 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

416 Both Study I and Study II were approved by the Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health
417 Human Subjects Committee, the Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences Senate
418 Research and Publications Committee, and Tanzania’s National Institute for Medical Research.
419 All women enrolled in the parent studies provided written, informed consent to participate. The
420 ClinicalTrials.gov registration numbers are NCT01119612 and NCT0111478 for Study I and
421 Study II, respectively.

422

423 **Consent for publication**

424 Not applicable.

425

426 **Competing interests**

427 All authors declare they have no competing interests.

428

429 **Author details**

430 ¹Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston,
431 Massachusetts, United States. ²Department of Global Health and Population, Harvard T.H. Chan
432 School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts, United States. ³Institutional Centers for
433 Clinical and Translational Research, Boston Children’s Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts, United

434 States. ⁴ Department of Nutrition, Harvard T. H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston,
435 Massachusetts, United States. ⁵ Department of Biostatistics, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public
436 Health, Boston, Massachusetts, United States.

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543 **Figure legends**

544 Figure 1. Imputed weights vs. observed weights (kg) of eight randomly selected subjects from
545 Study I testing set based on the four different imputation methods (assigning the nearest weight
546 measure, arithmetic imputation using the nearest two weight measures, mixed-effects model with
547 the lowest mean absolute error, generalized estimating equation (GEE) model with the lowest
548 mean absolute error), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2012.

549

550 Figure 2. Imputed weights vs. observed weights (kg) of eight randomly selected subjects from
551 Study II testing set based on the four different imputation methods (assigning the nearest weight
552 measure, arithmetic imputation using the nearest two weight measures, mixed-effects model with
553 the lowest mean absolute error, generalized estimating equation (GEE) model with the lowest
554 mean absolute error), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2013.

555

556 Supplement figure 1. Observed pregnancy weights (kg) of 20 randomly selected subjects from
557 Study I, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2012.

558

559 Supplement figure 2. Observed pregnancy weights (kg) of 20 randomly selected subjects from
560 Study II, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2013.

561

562 Supplement figure 3. Observed weight versus the difference between the observed and imputed
563 weights, for 200 subjects included in Study I testing set based on the mixed-effects model with
564 the lowest mean absolute error (kg), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2012. The upper 95% limit
565 was calculated by adding two standard deviations of the differences to the mean difference; the

566 lower 95% limit was calculated by subtracting two standard deviations of the differences from
567 the mean difference. The majority of the plotted subjects fall within the lower and upper limits,
568 suggesting a good agreement between the observed and imputed weights.

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570 Supplement figure 4. Observed weight versus the difference between the observed and imputed
571 weights, for 200 subjects included in Study II testing set based on the mixed effects model with
572 the lowest mean absolute error (kg), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2013. The upper 95% limit
573 was calculated by adding two standard deviations of the differences to the mean difference; the
574 lower 95% limit was calculated by subtracting two standard deviations of the differences from
575 the mean difference. The majority of the plotted subjects fall within the lower and upper limits,
576 suggesting a good agreement between the observed and imputed weights.

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588 **Table 1.** Population Characteristics of Study I (2010 - 2012) and Study II (2010 – 2013), Dar es
 589 Salaam, Tanzania

Characteristic	Study I	Study I	Study II	Study II
	Entire set (N=1472)	Testing set (N=200)	Entire set (N=2131)	Testing set (N=200)
Age at baseline (years), mean (SD)	23.9 (4.1)	23.7 (4.0)	22.6 (3.9)	22.7 (3.8)
Weight at baseline (kg), mean (SD)	59.7 (11.7)	58.6 (11.7)	55.6 (11.0)	55.1 (10.1)
Height at baseline (cm), mean (SD)	156.1 (6.1)	156.1 (6.1)	154.7 (6.1)	154.8 (6.1)
Gestational week at baseline (weeks), mean (SD)	17.8 (4.4)	12.7 (2.1)	10.0 (2.4)	9.8 (2.4)
Total number of antenatal visits, range (median)	1-9 (5)	2-9 (6)	1-10 (6)	3-10 (7)
Weight at the end of 1st trimester (kg), mean (SD) ¹		58.7 (11.6)		55.3 (9.9)
Last available weight measure at the end of 2 nd trimester (kg), mean (SD)	62.2 (11.7)	62.7 (11.5)	59.8 (10.7)	59.6 (9.6)
BMI based on last available weight at the end of 2 nd trimester (kg/m ²), mean (SD)	25.5 (4.6)	25.4 (4.7)	25.0 (4.2)	24.9 (3.8)
Gestational age at delivery (weeks), mean (SD)	39.5 (3.5)	39.0 (3.2)	38.8 (2.7)	39.1 (2.4)

			550 (25.8),	63 (31.5),
Treatment, n (%) ²	734 (49.9)	98 (49.0)	529 (24.8),	50 (25.0),
			519 (24.4),	46 (23.0),
			533 (25.0)	41 (20.5)
Primigravida, n (%)	613 (41.6)	91 (45.5)	1024 (48.1)	104 (52.0)
Marital Status, n (%)				
Married or co-habiting	1172 (79.6)	164 (82.0)	1908 (89.5)	185 (92.5)
Other/missing	300 (20.4) ³	36 (18.0)	223 (10.5)	15 (7.5)
BMI at baseline (kg/m ²), n (%)	24.5 (4.6)	23.8 (4.8)	23.2 (4.4)	23.0 (4.1)
Underweight (<18.5)	68 (4.6)	16 (8.0)	244 (11.5)	19 (9.5)
Normal (18.5-25)	840 (57.1)	119 (59.5)	1297 (60.9)	128 (64.0)
Overweight (25-30)	396 (26.9)	41 (20.5)	420 (19.7)	37 (18.5)
Obese (≥30)	168 (11.4)	24 (12.0)	169 (7.9)	16 (8.0)
Education status, n (%)				
0-4 years	32 (2.2)	5 (2.5)	177 (8.3)	12 (6.0)
5-7 years	781 (53.1)	104 (52)	1346 (63.2)	133 (66.5)
8-11 years	406 (27.6)	57 (28.5)	498 (23.4)	42 (21.0)
≥12 years	214 (14.5)	32 (16.0)	110 (5.2)	13 (6.5)
Unknown	39 (2.7)	2 (1.0)	1 (0.05)	0 (0.0)
Occupation status, n (%)				
Unemployed	700 (47.6)	98 (49.0)	1174 (55.1)	110 (55.0)
Unskilled or informal	445 (30.2)	63 (31.5)	514 (24.1)	51 (25.5)
Skilled	280 (19.0)	34 (17.0)	113 (5.3)	4 (2.0)

	Other/unknown	47 (3.2)	5 (2.5)	330 (15.5)	35 (17.5)
	Non-live birth in previous pregnancy, n (%) ⁴	126 (20.6)	27 (29.7)	219 (20.7)	15 (16.7)
	Prior history of complications, n (%) ⁵	109 (7.4)	18 (9.0)	115 (5.4)	7 (3.5)

590 Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index.

591 ¹ Among participants with available weight measures taken at end of trimester 1 during 12-14
592 weeks of gestation who were included in the testing sets.

593 ² Treatment was 60mg iron supplement for Study I; Zinc and Vitamin A (as a 2-by-2 factorial
594 design) for Study II (vitamin A only, zinc only, vitamin A and zinc, placebo).

595 ³ 1 person had missing marital status in Study I.

596 ⁴ Non-live birth included fetal death, abortion, miscarriage, ectopic pregnancy among non-
597 primigravida women.

598 ⁵ Prior history of complication included any history of the following: CVD, high blood pressure,
599 diabetes, weight loss in previous year, or ever having a low birth weight baby if non-
600 primigravida.

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4 knots (quintiles)	2.94	3.94	2.00	1.97
5 knots (sextiles)	2.94	3.94	1.96	1.96
3 knots (5 th , 50 th , 95 th)	2.94	3.94	2.02	1.97
4 knots (5 th , 35 th , 65 th , 95 th)	2.94	3.93	1.97	1.96
5 knots (5 th , 27.5 th , 50 th , 72.5 th , 95 th)	2.94	3.92	1.95	2.01
Linear	2.94	3.94	2.01	2.03
Quadratic	2.94	3.94	2.02	1.98
Cubic	2.93	3.92	1.97	1.96
Assigning the nearest weight measure		2.46		2.14
Arithmetic imputation using the nearest two weight measures		2.91		2.00

611 Abbreviations: GEE, generalized estimating equation.

612 ¹ Model failed to converge.

Figures

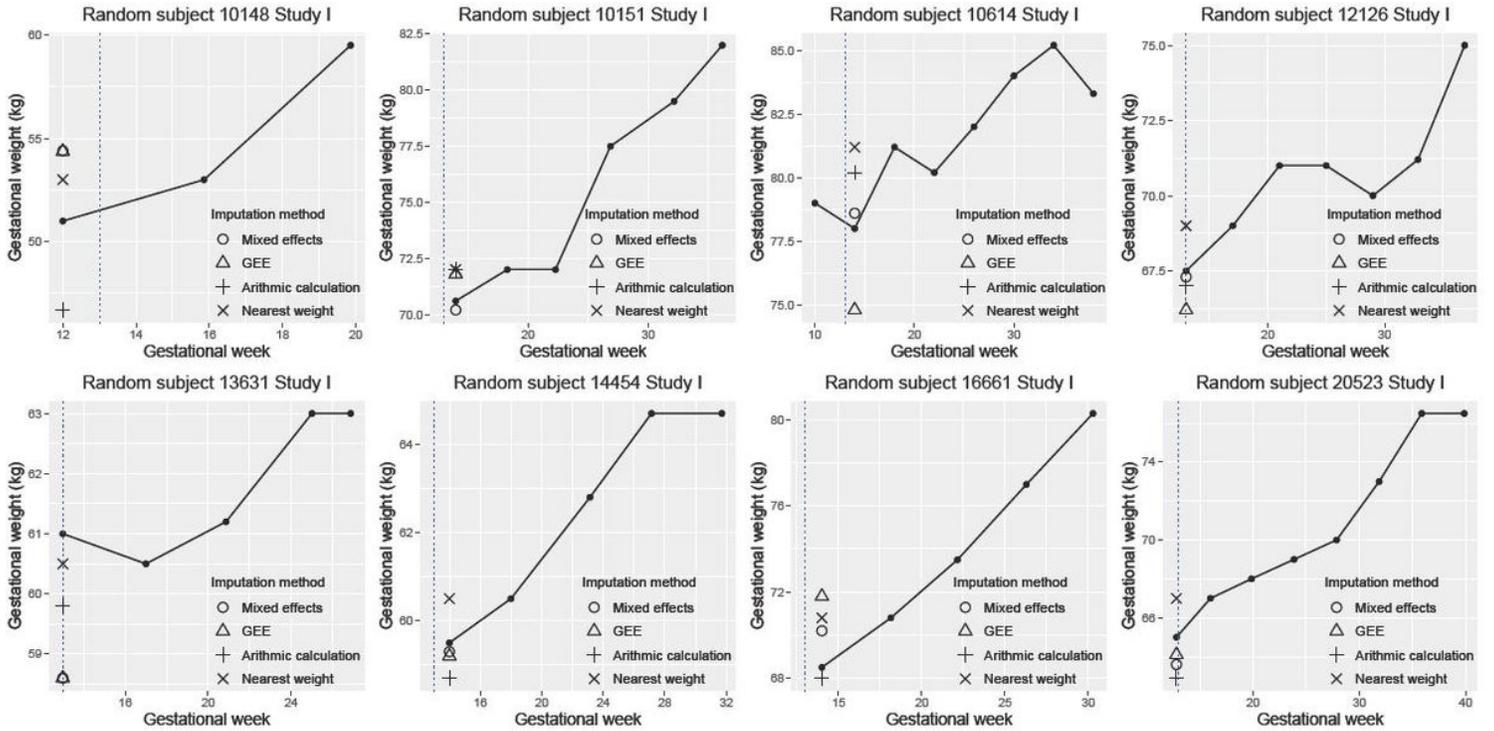


Figure 1

Imputed weights vs. observed weights (kg) of eight randomly selected subjects from Study I testing set based on the four different imputation methods (assigning the nearest weight measure, arithmetic imputation using the nearest two weight measures, mixed-effects model with the lowest mean absolute error, generalized estimating equation (GEE) model with the lowest mean absolute error), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2012.

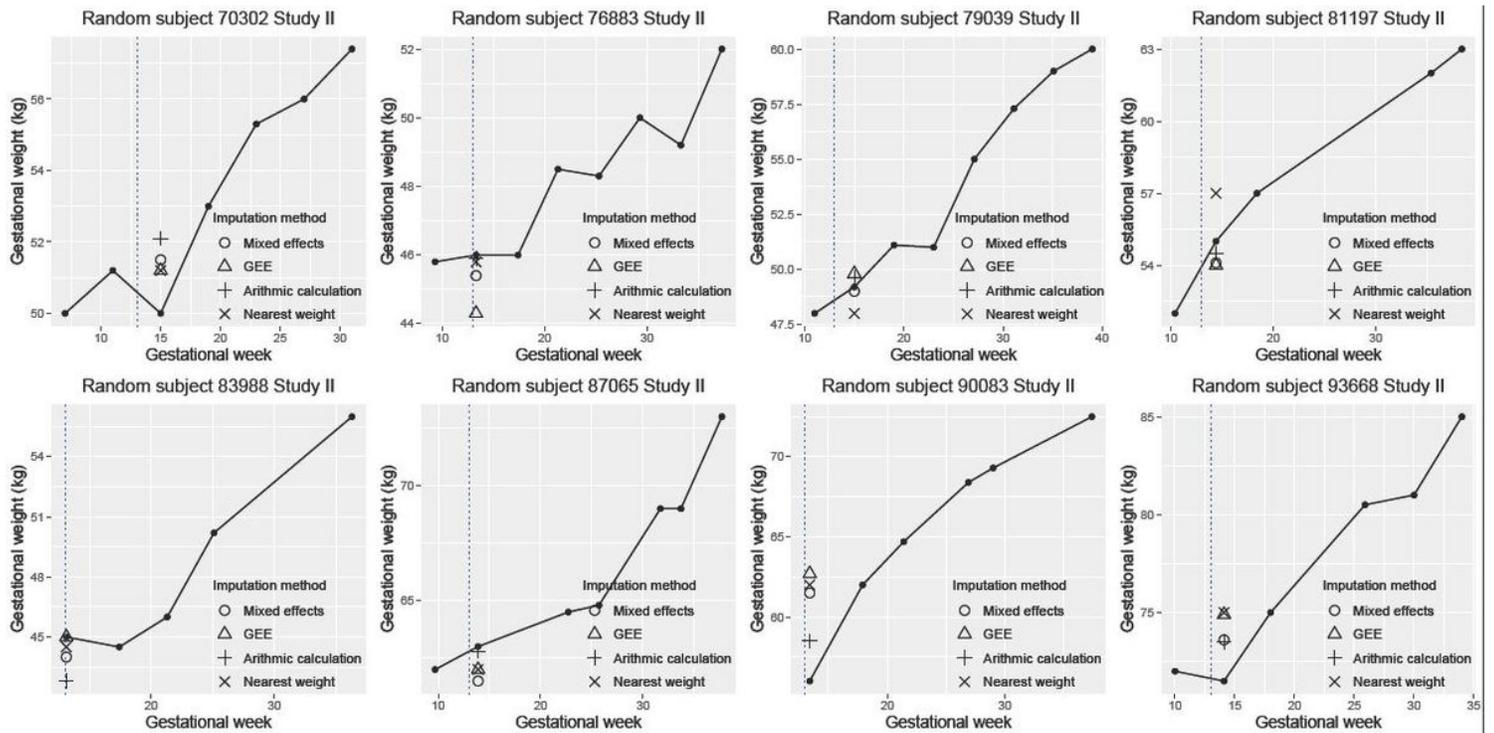


Figure 2

Imputed weights vs. observed weights (kg) of eight randomly selected subjects from Study II testing set based on the four different imputation methods (assigning the nearest weight measure, arithmetic imputation using the nearest two weight measures, mixed-effects model with the lowest mean absolute error, generalized estimating equation (GEE) model with the lowest mean absolute error), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 2010-2013.

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