Exploring the relationships between pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain, and nutritional intake: a real-world investigation in Shandong, China

Juan Zhang [1] , **Xue Wang** [1] , **Ping Zhu** [1] , **Xiaoge Huang** [1] , **Xingru Cao** [Corresp., 1] , **Junmin Li** [Corresp. 1]

[1] Jinan Maternity and Child Care Hospital, Jinan, china

Corresponding Authors: Xingru Cao, Junmin Li
Email address: 1399556277@qq.com, jnfyljm@163.com

This study investigated the associations between gestational weight gain (GWG), pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI), and prenatal diet quality in pregnant women from Shandong, China. We analyzed a sample of 532 early-stage pregnant women registered at an outpatient clinic. Diet quality was evaluated using the Chinese Healthy Dietary Index for Pregnancy (CHDI-P), encompassing three dimensions: diversity, adequacy, and limitation, with an overall score out of 100. Dietary intake was documented via 24-hour dietary recalls spanning three consecutive days and subsequently translated to a CHDI-P score. At the time of enrollment, BMI was measured on-site and classified as underweight (<18.5), normal weight (18.5–24.9), overweight (25.0–29.9), and obese (≥30.0). Pregnant women were also categorized into inadequate, adequate, and excessive weight gain groups based on their GWG. We employed a Tukey-adjusted generalized linear model to compare the CHDI-P scores between the pre-pregnancy BMI groups and GWG groups. The results revealed that the underweight group had significantly higher total scores and limitation total scores on the CHDI-P (P<0.001). Conversely, the overweight and obese groups were more susceptible to suboptimal dietary quality. Notably, the inadequate weight gain group displayed significantly elevated food adequacy scores compared to the other two groups (p<0.05). This indicates that greater GWGs do not necessarily align with principles of adequate nutrition.

1   Exploring the Relationships Between Pre-Pregnancy BMI, Gestational

2   Weight Gain, and Nutritional Intake: A Real-World Investigation in

3   Shandong, China

4   Juan Zhang[1], Xue Wang[1], Ping Zhu[1], Xiaoge Huang[1], Xingru Cao[1,*], Junmin Li[1,*]

5   1 Department of gynaecology and obstetrics, Jinan Maternity and Child Care Hospital Affiliated

6   to Shandong First Medical University, Jinan, Shandong, China

8   * co-corresponding author

9   corresponding author:

10   Xingru Cao

11   NO.2 Jianguo Xiaojingsan Road, Jinan, Shandong, 250000, China

12   Email address: 1399556277@qq.com

13   Junmin Li

14   NO.2 Jianguo Xiaojingsan Road, Jinan, Shandong, 250000, China

15   Email address: jnfyljm@163.com

17   **Abstract:**

18   This study investigated the associations between gestational weight gain (GWG), pre-pregnancy

19   body mass index (BMI), and prenatal diet quality in pregnant women from Shandong, China. We

20   analyzed a sample of 532 early-stage pregnant women registered at an outpatient clinic. Diet

21   quality was evaluated using the Chinese Healthy Dietary Index for Pregnancy (CHDI-P),

22   encompassing three dimensions: diversity, adequacy, and limitation, with an overall score out of

23   100. Dietary intake was documented via 24-hour dietary recalls spanning three consecutive days

24   and subsequently translated to a CHDI-P score. At the time of enrollment, BMI was measured on-

25   site and classified as underweight (<18.5), normal weight (18.5–24.9), overweight (25.0–29.9),

26   and obese (≥30.0). Pregnant women were also categorized into inadequate, adequate, and

27   excessive weight gain groups based on their GWG. We employed a Tukey-adjusted generalized

28   linear model to compare the CHDI-P scores between the pre-pregnancy BMI groups and GWG

29   groups. The results revealed that the underweight group had significantly higher total scores and

30   limitation total scores on the CHDI-P (P<0.001). Conversely, the overweight and obese groups

31   were more susceptible to suboptimal dietary quality. Notably, the inadequate weight gain group

32   displayed significantly elevated food adequacy scores compared to the other two groups (p<0.05).

33   This indicates that greater GWGs do not necessarily align with principles of adequate nutrition.

34   Key words: pregnant woman; pre-pregnancy BMI; gestational weight gain; nutritional assessment

35

1.Introduction

The profound association between maternal and newborn health has been acknowledged for an extended period, and endeavors to enhance health outcomes persist (Moller et al., 2019). The nutritional status of expectant mothers throughout gestation has consistently been a subject of interest, exerting significant influence on maternal health and pregnancy outcomes (de Freitas et al., 2022; Henriksen, 2006; Teede et al., 2022). Excessive nutrition or gestational overweight during gestation elevates the risk of fetal anomalies and augments the probability of diabetes in both mother and neonate(Henriksen, 2006). Frequent consumption of meat, sugared beverages, and sugary snacks heightens the risk of pre-eclampsia (Brantsæter et al., 2009), while a diet rich in fats and sugars correlates with an increased likelihood of preterm labor (Grieger et al., 2014). In economically underdeveloped regions, a prevalent issue is maternal underweight, primarily attributed to the insufficient caloric intake of expectant mothers. This deficiency heightens the risk of stillbirths, neonatal fatalities, and low birth weight (LBW) in neonates (Archana Patel et al., 2018).

Prior research has examined the prenatal dietary quality of expectant mothers. In the United States, the Healthy Eating Index-2010 score for these women stands at a mere 50.7 out of 100 (Shin et al., 2016). Notably, a majority of them fall short in consuming adequate fiber, grains, fruits, and vegetables, yet their sodium and fat consumption surpassed recommended levels (Laraia et al., 2007; Rifas-Shiman et al., 2009). This dietary imbalance correlates with the 22% obesity rate observed among pregnant women (Kim et al., 2007). A study examining a cohort of expectant mothers in Canada revealed analogous findings. Furthermore, it identified that women with lower educational backgrounds residing in urban areas exhibited an elevated risk of suboptimal dietary quality (Savard et al., 2019). In China, the predominant dietary concerns among expectant mothers across various regions include imbalances and insufficient intake of numerous micronutrients (Dong & Yin, 2018). Additionally, the prevalence of overweight and obesity has surpassed 20% of this demographic (Teede et al., 2022), presenting a significant challenge. Consequently, examining the prenatal nutritional and dietary patterns of expectant mothers and devising a well-balanced dietary plan promptly is crucial. Regrettably, the majority of research data in this domain originates from developed Western nations, with limited studies focusing on the Chinese population and primarily restricted to major cities such as Beijing (Sun et al., 2020). China's regional developmental disparities warrant attention. Empirical research from mid-sized cities and rural regions can offer a holistic insight into the dietary challenges confronting expectant mothers in the country.

A widely acknowledged measure of an expectant mother's nutritional status is the pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) (Laraia et al., 2007; Uno et al., 2016). Empirical research has established that both elevated and reduced BMI values influence pregnancy outcomes (Aji et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2021; Vats et al., 2021). Nonetheless, this metric has limitations, particularly its presumption of consistent dietary habits throughout gestation—a premise that is challenging to uphold (Forbes et al., 2018). Consequently, some scholars suggest that gestational weight gain (GWG) can more

75   dynamically reflect shifts in dietary quality, either as an alternative or in tandem with prenatal
76   BMI, to assess the nutritional health of pregnant individuals (Cano-Ibáñez et al., 2020; Guelinckx
77   et al., 2008). The objective of this research was to investigate the associations between both pre-
78   pregnancy BMI and GWG with prenatal dietary quality within a mid-sized urban cohort. This
79   exploration sought to identify a subgroup particularly susceptible to compromised dietary quality.
80   We posited that expectant mothers with both pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG within standard
81   parameters would exhibit superior prenatal dietary quality.

82   ## 2.Methods

83   ### 2.1 Participants

84   The participants in this study were expectant mothers who visited the obstetrics outpatient clinic
85   at Jinan Maternal and Child Health Hospital in Shandong Province between January 2021 and
86   December 2022. Participants had to meet the following criteria: (1) Chinese citizenship; (2)
87   pregnancy≤12 gestational weeks; (3) have a maternity record established at the institution and have
88   undergone routine obstetric check-ups; (4) face-to-face completion of the survey; (5) plan to give
89   birth at the hospital; and (6) provide signed informed consent. Exclusion criteria included: (1) non-
90   local migrant populations unable to attend routine check-ups; (2) individuals with metabolic
91   disorders or chronic conditions such as tumors or tuberculosis.
92   The study protocol received approval from the Jinan Maternal and Child Ethics CommitteeHealth
93   Hospital (No.2023-1-029). All participating individuals furnished their signed, written informed
94   consent.

95   ### 2.2 Data collection

96   To guarantee the authenticity and validity of the data, the outpatient physician directly collects and
97   confirms information from each expectant mother, rather than relying on patient self-reporting. A
98   face-to-face interview was employed to gather demographic information from participants,
99   encompassing age, educational attainment, occupation, parity, and household income. The height
100 and weight of the expectant mothers were recorded during their initial antenatal visit, from which
101 the pre-pregnancy BMI was derived. They can be categorized into four groups based on their pre-
102 pregnancy BMI: underweight (<18.5), normal weight (18.5–24.9), overweight (25.0–29.9), and
103 obese (≥30.0) (WHO expert consultation, 2004). GWG was determined by calculating the
104 difference between the initial pre-pregnancy weight and the final weight before childbirth.
105 Following the Guidelines for Weight Monitoring and Evaluation in Pregnancy for Chinese Women
106 (Rasmussen, K. M. et al., 2009), expectant mothers were classified into three categories—namely,
107 inadequate weight gain, adequate weight gain, and excessive weight gain—according to their pre-

108   pregnancy BMI ranges.

109   2.3 Nutritional assessment

110   We assessed the dietary quality of expectant mothers using the Chinese Healthy Dietary Index for
111   Pregnancy (CHDI-P) (M. Yang et al., 2023). The CHDI-P scale, rooted in the 2016 edition of the
112   Dietary Guidelines for Pregnant Women in China (Y. X. Yang et al., 2018), provides a
113   comprehensive three-dimensional evaluation of dietary quality. The first dimension, termed
114   "diversity", evaluates the consumption levels of four fundamental food groups, adhering to the
115   core principle of dietary variety. These food groups include: grains, tubers and mixed beans; meat,
116   poultry, fish, and eggs; vegetables and fruits; and dairy, soybeans, and nuts. The second dimension,
117   termed "adequacy", evaluates the sufficiency of beneficial food consumption among expectant
118   mothers. Conversely, the third dimension, termed "limitation", assesses excessive consumption of
119   proven unhealthy foods. In this study, the version employed was tailored for women in early
120   pregnancy, featuring score ranges of 0–12 for the diversity dimension, 0–55 for the adequacy
121   dimension, and 0–33 for the limitation dimension, culminating in an aggregate score range of 0–
122   100. Higher scores in the diversity and adequacy dimensions correspond to increased variety and
123   quantity of beneficial foods consumed. Conversely, a higher score in the limitation dimension
124   signifies reduced consumption of unhealthy foods. Therefore, lower scores are indicative of
125   suboptimal eating habits and health.
126   Dietary intake data were gathered using a 24-hour dietary recall survey administered over three
127   consecutive days. For the initial survey, both the type and quantity of food consumed were
128   obtained through face-to-face interviews conducted by professionally trained clinicians. To
129   enhance data accuracy, participants were aided in describing their food intake through the
130   utilization of standardized containers (e.g., bowl, spoon, cup) and food imagery supplied by the
131   hospital. To prioritize the safety of the expectant mothers, the subsequent surveys were conducted
132   telephonically. To further refine data accuracy, participants were requested to furnish photographs
133   of all consumed foods for investigator validation.

134   2.4 Statistical analysis

135   Descriptive statistics for count data are expressed as numbers and percentages, while continuous
136   variables are represented by means and standard deviations. Between-group comparisons for count
137   data were conducted using the Pearson's χ^2 test. For continuous variables, between-group
138   differences were assessed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) or the Kruskal-Wallis test,
139   contingent upon data normality. Generalized linear models were employed to adjust for
140   confounding variables when comparing CHDI-P scores across groups. Covariates were selected
141   based on prior research and included age, income, educational level, smoking status, energy intake,
142   number of pregnancies and deliveries (Parker et al., 2019; Shin et al., 2016). Post hoc tests, using
143   the Tukey-adjusted method, elucidated between-group disparities. All confidence intervals were

144 computed at the 95% level, and a p-value less than 0.05 was deemed statistically significant.
145 Statistical analyses were executed using Python 3.6.0.

146 ## 3.Results

147 ### 3.1 Baseline characteristics

148 A total of 532 expectant mothers were incorporated into the study and were segmented into four
149 categories based on their pre-pregnancy BMI: underweight (<18.5), normal weight (18.5–24.9),
150 overweight (25.0–29.9), and obese (≥30.0). The underweight cohort had an average age of 29.29
151 years (SD 4.53), notably younger than the other categories, with their GWG values notably
152 surpassing those of the other groups. Significant differences were observed among the groups
153 regarding body weight and GWG (p<0.001). No statistically significant disparities were observed
154 among the groups concerning education, family income, smoking habits, number of pregnancies
155 or deliveries (Table 1).
156 Then, we categorized the data based on GWG into three groups: Inadequate, Adequate, and
157 Excessive. Notably, those with adequate weight gain during pregnancy exhibited lower weights
158 and pre-pregnancy BMI (p<0.001). The remaining demographic characteristics showed no
159 significant differences (Table 2).

160 ### 3.2 Associations between CHDI-P and pre-pregnancy BMI

161 In the multivariate adjustment model, we ultimately selected education level, household income,
162 and number of deliveries as covariates. According to this model, the underweight group displayed
163 the highest marginal mean of 60.28±0.99 in CHDI-P total scores, while the obese group exhibited
164 the lowest marginal mean of 57.80±1.11 (Table 3). Post hoc analyses revealed significant
165 differences in CHDI-P total scores among all groups (p<0.001). Specifically, diversity total scores
166 for both the overweight and obese groups were significantly lower than those for the normal weight
167 group (p<0.001). However, there were no significant differences in the adequacy total scores
168 among the groups. Significant differences were observed in the limitation total scores among all
169 groups (p<0.001) (Table 5).

170 ### 3.3 Associations between CHDI-P and GWG

171 In the GWG model, covariates encompassed household income and the number of deliveries. The
172 adequate and excessive group exhibited a marginal mean of 59.17 for CHDI-P total scores.
173 Meanwhile, the marginal mean for the inadequate group stood at 59.54±0.92, marginally
174 surpassing the values of the other two groups (Table 4). Post hoc analysis of inter-group differences

175 revealed no significant differences in CHDI-P total scores and diversity total scores among the
176 groups. However, the adequacy total score for the inadequate group was significantly higher than
177 that of both the adequate group (p=0.023) and the excessive group (p=0.006). Significant
178 differences were observed across all groups in the limitation total scores (p<0.01) (Table 6).

179 4.Discussion

180 This study explored the quality of prenatal diets among a convenience sample of pregnant women
181 in Shandong, China. Additionally, we explored the associations between pre-pregnancy BMI,
182 GWG, and maternal dietary quality. While the Alternative Healthy Eating Index for Pregnancy
183 (AHEI-P) has been employed in previous research to quantitatively evaluate the dietary quality of
184 pregnant women (Hsiao et al., 2019; Parker et al., 2019; Quansah et al., 2022). Our study sample
185 was drawn from Shandong, China. Consequently, we utilized the CHDI-P scale, which is better
186 tailored for Chinese pregnant women. Parker et al. determined that using the AHEI-P scale (Parker
187 et al., 2019), the overall prenatal dietary quality of pregnant women was suboptimal, achieving a
188 mean score of just 61.2 out of 130. Similarly, in our study, the average score for pregnant women
189 aligned with this finding. Even after equiproportional conversion, the score indicates that the
190 prenatal dietary quality of Chinese pregnant women remains less than ideal. Grouping by GWG
191 did not manifest any significant differences in marginal means among the groups. Conversely,
192 when categorized based on pre-pregnancy BMI, the underweight group had a score that exceeded
193 the obese group by 2.5 points. While a shift of 5% in dietary quality score is necessary to deem it
194 clinically significant(Miller et al., 2015), it is plausible to posit an association between pre-
195 pregnancy BMI and dietary quality. Specifically, pregnant women with a BMI of ≥25 may be at
196 an elevated risk for malnutrition.
197 In this study, the CHDI-P scale was employed to evaluate the nutritional quality of pregnant
198 women's diets. This scale focuses on three primary dimensions: diversity, adequacy, and
199 limitation. A diverse food intake, ensuring a broad spectrum of nutrients for both the expectant
200 mother and the developing fetus, is fundamental to a healthy diet. Previous research has indicated
201 that food diversity can mitigate the negative impacts of anemia and neonatal mortality linked to
202 insufficient intake (Lander et al., 2019). Pregnant women exhibiting insufficient weight gain often
203 have less varied diets, making their nutritional habits prime targets for intervention (Tebbani et al.,
204 2021). In our study, however, there were no significant differences between groups, whether
205 categorized by pre-pregnancy BMI or by GWG. Although the p-value for the comparison among
206 the obese, overweight, and normal weight groups is below 0.05, the proximity of the confidence
207 intervals for their differences to zero renders this distinction potentially insignificant. The average
208 scores hovered around 10 out of a possible 12. One potential explanation for this might be that this
209 portion of the scale lacks the granularity necessary to highlight nuanced differences. Alternatively,
210 it could suggest that pregnant women in Shandong, China, generally maintain a commendable
211 level of dietary diversity prior to pregnancy.
212 The adequacy of a pregnant woman's diet stands as a pivotal aspect in evaluating dietary quality.

213   The research conducted by Cano-Ibáñez et al. revealed that diets patterned after the Mediterranean
214   typically exhibited greater nutrient adequacy and were associated with controlled GWG in
215   pregnant women (Cano-Ibáñez et al., 2020). Another study indicated that diets with adequate
216   nutrients significantly curtailed metabolic complications, such as gestational diabetes (Looman et
217   al., 2019). In our research, when grouping by pre-pregnancy BMI, we observed no significant
218   disparities in adequacy scores among the groups. However, the inadequate group registered a
219   significantly higher score compared to the other two groups. These findings align with prior
220   research, indicating that predicting dietary adequacy in pregnant women may be more effectively
221   gauged using GWG. In underprivileged regions, the inadequacy among pregnant women is
222   frequently linked to insufficient intake, primarily due to limited food accessibility resulting from
223   economic constraints (Darling et al., 2023). Yantai, conversely, is one of the more affluent areas
224   in China. Given the income level of the participants in our study, we postulate that the diet of the
225   inadequate group was likely self-regulated. These women might have enhanced the quality of their
226   food intake while potentially emphasizing physical activity to manage their weight (Teede et al.,
227   2022).
228   Excessive consumption of unhealthy foods adversely affects the dietary well-being of pregnant
229   women, making restriction a crucial aspect that warrants attention. In the CHDI-P, restricted foods
230   encompass fried foods, sugary beverages, processed meats, alcohol, refined grains, and cooking
231   oil. In this research, the underweight group achieved the highest scores in the limitation total,
232   whereas the obese group recorded the lowest. A significant difference was observed across all
233   groups. This pattern aligns with the overall trend observed in the CHDI-P total scores. While
234   significant differences in scores were also evident when grouped by GWG, the extent of these
235   differences was less marked compared to the pre-pregnancy BMI categorization. Previous studies
236   provide substantial evidence on the detrimental effects of high-sugar, high-fat foods, and alcohol
237   on pregnant women (Pennington et al., 2020; Sundermann et al., 2019; Witek et al., 2022). Our
238   findings indicate that pregnant women with higher BMIs tend to consume more unhealthy foods.
239   While there isn't a definitive cut-off value for CHDI-P, pregnant women in the overweight and
240   obese categories should be made aware of the potential complications from consuming unhealthy
241   foods compared to those with a normal BMI. Minimizing the consumption of harmful foods could
242   be an effective strategy to reduce complications in obese pregnant women.
243   Our study examined the association between pre-pregnancy BMI, GWG, and dietary quality.
244   However, a more holistic approach might involve integrating prenatal dietary quality instead of
245   concentrating solely on either BMI or GWG. Both pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG proved valuable
246   in distinguishing and predicting prenatal diet quality. Notably, pre-pregnancy BMI was more
247   sensitive to overall diet quality and restriction of certain foods, whereas GWG was more indicative
248   of dietary adequacy. It's important to highlight that the dietary quality we assessed pertains to the
249   early stage of a woman's pregnancy, while the GWG was determined by the difference between
250   the initial and pre-delivery weights. The dietary habits of pregnant women typically vary
251   throughout the pregnancy. For initial dietary quality assessment, GWG may not be as effective an
252   indicator as BMI, especially in the middle or later stages of pregnancy. This observation warrants
253   further investigation in subsequent research.

254   The distinctiveness of this study lies in its exploration of the relationship between pre-pregnancy
255   BMI, GWG, and prenatal dietary quality within a Chinese demographic. Comparing both BMI and
256   GWG concurrently enhances our comprehension of this association. This study has some
257   limitations. Firstly, the sample size was limited, primarily because participants were required to
258   deliver at our hospital. This criterion might have introduced some bias. Nonetheless, this was
259   necessary to ensure uniformity across this series of studies. Another notable observation was that
260   pregnant women accompanied by their partners were more inclined to participate and less likely
261   to drop out.

262   ## 5. Conclusion

263   Our study underscores the significance of preconception BMI and GWG as critical factors in
264   predicting prenatal diet quality. While there is a need for further research to validate the
265   relationship between preconception BMI, GWG, and prenatal diet quality, our findings pinpoint
266   pre-pregnancy overweight and obese women as a vulnerable group at heightened risk for
267   suboptimal prenatal diet quality. Future interventions tailored for this group could achieve the most
268   impact by curbing the consumption of unhealthy foods. The data from our study bolster the
269   recommendation for women to attain a normal BMI prior to conception, given its correlation with
270   superior dietary quality.

271   ## Declarations

272   ### Funding

273   The authors received no funding for this work.

274   ### Author Contributions

275   Xingru Cao and Junmin Li spearheaded the conceptualization and design of the experiments,
276   orchestrated the experimental procedures, and undertook a meticulous review and revision of the
277   final manuscript. Ping Zhu and Xiaoge Huang took charge of liaising with participants, data
278   collection, data refinement, and executing the statistical analysis. Juan Zhang and Xue Wang were
279   entrusted with manuscript composition and data analysis.
280

281   Reference

282   Aji, A. S., Lipoeto, N. I., Yusrawati, Y., Malik, S. G., Kusmayanti, N. A., Susanto, I., Majidah, N.
283   M., Nurunniyah, S., Alfiana, R. D., Wahyuningsih, W., & Vimaleswaran, K. S. (2022).
284   Association between pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain on
285   pregnancy outcomes: A cohort study in Indonesian pregnant women. *BMC Pregnancy and*
286   *Childbirth*, *22*(1), 492. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-022-04815-8
287   Archana Patel, Amber Abhijeet Prakash, Prabir Kumar Das, Swarnim Gupta, Yamini Vinod
288   Pusdekar, & Patricia L Hibberd. (2018). Maternal anemia and underweight as determinants
289   of pregnancy outcomes: Cohort study in eastern rural Maharashtra, India. *BMJ Open*, *8*(8),
290   e021623. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2018-021623
291   Brantsæter, A. L., Haugen, M., Samuelsen, S. O., Torjusen, H., Trogstad, L., Alexander, J.,
292   Magnus, P., & Meltzer, H. M. (2009). A Dietary Pattern Characterized by High Intake of
293   Vegetables, Fruits, and Vegetable Oils Is Associated with Reduced Risk of Preeclampsia
294   in Nulliparous Pregnant Norwegian Women, ,. *The Journal of Nutrition*, *139*(6), 1162–
295   1168. https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.109.104968
296   Cano-Ibáñez, N., Martínez-Galiano, J. M., Luque-Fernández, M. A., Martín-Peláez, S., Bueno-
297   Cavanillas, A., & Delgado-Rodríguez, M. (2020). Maternal Dietary Patterns during
298   Pregnancy and Their Association with Gestational Weight Gain and Nutrient Adequacy.
299   *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(21).
300   https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17217908
301   Darling, A. M., Wang, D., Perumal, N., Liu, E., Wang, M., Ahmed, T., Christian, P., Dewey, K.
302   G., Kac, G., Kennedy, S. H., Subramoney, V., Briggs, B., Fawzi, W. W., & members of
303   the GWG Pooling Project Consortium. (2023). Risk factors for inadequate and excessive
304   gestational weight gain in 25 low- and middle-income countries: An individual-level
305   participant meta-analysis. *PLOS Medicine*, *20*(7), e1004236.
306   https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1004236
307   de Freitas, N. P. A., Carvalho, T. R., Gonçalves, C. C. R. A., da Silva, P. H. A., de Melo Romão,
308   L. G., Kwak-Kim, J., & Cavalcante, M. B. (2022). The Dietary Inflammatory Index as a
309   predictor of pregnancy outcomes: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of*
310   *Reproductive Immunology*, *152*, 103651. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jri.2022.103651
311   Dong, C., & Yin, S. (2018). The ten-year retrospect of nutrition and health status of pregnant
312   women in China. *Zhonghua Yu Fang Yi Xue Za Zhi*, *52*(1), 94–100. PubMed.
313   https://doi.org/10.3760/cma.j.issn.0253-9624.2018.01.019
314   Forbes, L. E., Graham, J. E., Berglund, C., & Bell, R. C. (2018). Dietary Change during Pregnancy
315   and Women's Reasons for Change. *Nutrients*, *10*(8). https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10081032
316   Grieger, J. A., Grzeskowiak, L. E., & Clifton, V. L. (2014). Preconception Dietary Patterns in
317   Human Pregnancies Are Associated with Preterm Delivery. *The Journal of Nutrition*,
318   *144*(7), 1075–1080. https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.114.190686
319   Guelinckx, I., Devlieger, R., Beckers, K., & Vansant, G. (2008). Maternal obesity: Pregnancy

320   complications, gestational weight gain and nutrition. *Obesity Reviews*, *9*(2), 140–150.
321   https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-789X.2007.00464.x
322 Henriksen, T. (2006). Nutrition and Pregnancy Outcome. *Nutrition Reviews*, *64*(suppl_2), S19–
323   S23. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-4887.2006.tb00241.x
324 Hsiao, P. Y., Fung, J. L., Mitchell, D. C., Hartman, T. J., & Goldman, M. B. (2019). Dietary
325   quality, as measured by the Alternative Healthy Eating Index for Pregnancy (AHEI-P), in
326   couples planning their first pregnancy. *Public Health Nutrition*, *22*(18), 3385–3394.
327   Cambridge Core. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980019001290
328 Kim, S. Y., Dietz, P. M., England, L., Morrow, B., & Callaghan, W. M. (2007). Trends in Pre-
329   pregnancy Obesity in Nine States, 1993–2003. *Obesity*, *15*(4), 986–993.
330   https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2007.621
331 Lander, R. L., Hambidge, K. M., Westcott, J. E., Tejeda, G., Diba, T. S., Mastiholi, S. C., Khan,
332   U. S., Garcés, A., Figueroa, L., Tshefu, A., Lokangaka, A., Goudar, S. S., Somannavar, M.
333   S., Ali, S. A., Saleem, S., McClure, E. M., Krebs, N. F., & on behalf of the Women First
334   Preconception Nutrition Trial Group. (2019). Pregnant Women in Four Low-Middle
335   Income Countries Have a High Prevalence of Inadequate Dietary Intakes That Are
336   Improved by Dietary Diversity. *Nutrients*, *11*(7). https://doi.org/10.3390/nu11071560
337 Laraia, B. A., Bodnar, L. M., & Siega-Riz, A. M. (2007). Pregravid body mass index is negatively
338   associated with diet quality during pregnancy. *Public Health Nutrition*, *10*(9), 920–926.
339   Cambridge Core. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980007657991
340 Looman, M., Schoenaker, D. A. J. M., Soedamah-Muthu, S. S., Mishra, G. D., Geelen, A., &
341   Feskens, E. J. M. (2019). Pre-pregnancy dietary micronutrient adequacy is associated with
342   lower risk of developing gestational diabetes in Australian women. *Nutrition Research*, *62*,
343   32–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nutres.2018.11.006
344 Miller, P. E., Reedy, J., Kirkpatrick, S. I., & Krebs-Smith, S. M. (2015). The United States Food
345   Supply Is Not Consistent with Dietary Guidance: Evidence from an Evaluation Using the
346   Healthy Eating Index-2010. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics*, *115*(1), 95–
347   100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jand.2014.08.030
348 Moller, A.-B., Patten, J. H., Hanson, C., Morgan, A., Say, L., Diaz, T., & Moran, A. C. (2019).
349   Monitoring maternal and newborn health outcomes globally: A brief history of key events
350   and initiatives. *Tropical Medicine & International Health*, *24*(12), 1342–1368.
351   https://doi.org/10.1111/tmi.13313
352 Parker, H. W., Tovar, A., McCurdy, K., & Vadiveloo, M. (2019). Associations between pre-
353   pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain, and prenatal diet quality in a national sample.
354   *PLOS ONE*, *14*(10), e0224034. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0224034
355 Pennington, K. A., Dong, Y., Ruano, S. H., van der Walt, N., Sangi-Haghpeykar, H., &
356   Yallampalli, C. (2020). Brief high fat high sugar diet results in altered energy and fat
357   metabolism during pregnancy in mice. *Scientific Reports*, *10*(1), 20866.
358   https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-77529-6
359 Quansah, D. Y., Schenk, S., Gilbert, L., Arhab, A., Gross, J., Marques-Vidal, P.-M., Gonzalez
360   Rodriguez, E., Hans, D., Horsch, A., & Puder, J. J. (2022). Intuitive Eating Behavior, Diet

361   Quality and Metabolic Health in the Postpartum in Women with Gestational Diabetes.
362   *Nutrients*, *14*(20). https://doi.org/10.3390/nu14204272

363 Rasmussen, K. M., Yaktine, A. L., & Institute of Medicine (US) and National Research Council
364   (US) Committee to Reexamine IOM Pregnancy Weight Guidelines. (2009). *Weight Gain*
365   *During Pregnancy: Reexamining the Guidelines*. National Academies Press (US).

366 Rifas-Shiman, S. L., Rich-Edwards, J. W., Kleinman, K. P., Oken, E., & Gillman, M. W. (2009).
367   Dietary Quality during Pregnancy Varies by Maternal Characteristics in Project Viva: A
368   US Cohort. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, *109*(6), 1004–1011.
369   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2009.03.001

370 Savard, C., Lemieux, S., Carbonneau, É., Provencher, V., Gagnon, C., Robitaille, J., & Morisset,
371   A.-S. (2019). Trimester-Specific Assessment of Diet Quality in a Sample of Canadian
372   Pregnant Women. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*,
373   *16*(3). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16030311

374 Shin, D., Lee, K. W., & Song, W. O. (2016). Pre-Pregnancy Weight Status Is Associated with Diet
375   Quality and Nutritional Biomarkers during Pregnancy. *Nutrients*, *8*(3).
376   https://doi.org/10.3390/nu8030162

377 Sun, Y., Shen, Z., Zhan, Y., Wang, Y., Ma, S., Zhang, S., Liu, J., Wu, S., Feng, Y., Chen, Y., Cai,
378   S., Shi, Y., Ma, L., & Jiang, Y. (2020). Effects of pre-pregnancy body mass index and
379   gestational weight gain on maternal and infant complications. *BMC Pregnancy and*
380   *Childbirth*, *20*(1), 390. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-020-03071-y

381 Sundermann, A. C., Zhao, S., Young, C. L., Lam, L., Jones, S. H., Velez Edwards, D. R., &
382   Hartmann, K. E. (2019). Alcohol Use in Pregnancy and Miscarriage: A Systematic Review
383   and Meta-Analysis. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research*, *43*(8), 1606–1616.
384   https://doi.org/10.1111/acer.14124

385 Tang, J., Zhu, X., Chen, Y., Huang, D., Tiemeier, H., Chen, R., Bao, W., & Zhao, Q. (2021).
386   Association of maternal pre-pregnancy low or increased body mass index with adverse
387   pregnancy outcomes. *Scientific Reports*, *11*(1), 3831. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-
388   82064-z

389 Tebbani, F., Oulamara, H., & Agli, A. (2021). Food diversity and nutrient intake during pregnancy
390   in relation to maternal weight gain. *Nutrition Clinique et Métabolisme*, *35*(2), 93–99.
391   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nupar.2020.09.001

392 Teede, H. J., Bailey, C., Moran, L. J., Bahri Khomami, M., Enticott, J., Ranasinha, S., Rogozińska,
393   E., Skouteris, H., Boyle, J. A., Thangaratinam, S., & Harrison, C. L. (2022). Association
394   of Antenatal Diet and Physical Activity–Based Interventions With Gestational Weight
395   Gain and Pregnancy Outcomes: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Internal*
396   *Medicine*, *182*(2), 106–114. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2021.6373

397 Uno, K., Takemi, Y., Hayashi, F., & Hosokawa, M. (2016). Nutritional status and dietary intake
398   among pregnant women in relation to pre-pregnancy body mass index in Japan. *Nihon*
399   *Koshu Eisei Zasshi*, *63*(12), 738–749. PubMed. https://doi.org/10.11236/jph.63.12_738

400 Vats, H., Saxena, R., Sachdeva, M. P., Walia, G. K., & Gupta, V. (2021). Impact of maternal pre-
401   pregnancy body mass index on maternal, fetal and neonatal adverse outcomes in the

402   worldwide populations: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obesity Research &*
403   *Clinical Practice*, *15*(6), 536–545. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orcp.2021.10.005
404 WHO expert consultation. (2004). Appropriate body-mass index for Asian populations and its
405   implications for policy and intervention strategies. *The Lancet*, *363*(9403), 157–163.
406   https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(03)15268-3
407 Witek, K., Wydra, K., & Filip, M. (2022). A High-Sugar Diet Consumption, Metabolism and
408   Health Impacts with a Focus on the Development of Substance Use Disorder: A Narrative
409   Review. *Nutrients*, *14*(14). https://doi.org/10.3390/nu14142940
410 Yang, M., Feng, Q., Chen, C., Chen, S., Guo, Y., Su, D., Chen, H., Sun, H., Dong, H., & Zeng, G.
411   (2023). Healthier diet associated with reduced risk of excessive gestational weight gain: A
412   Chinese prospective cohort study. *Maternal & Child Nutrition*, *19*(3), e13397.
413   https://doi.org/10.1111/mcn.13397
414 Yang, Y. X., Wang, X. L., Leong, P. M., Zhang, H. M., Yang, X. G., Kong, L. Z., Zhai, F. Y.,
415   Cheng, Y. Y., Guo, J. S., & Su, Y. X. (2018). New Chinese dietary guidelines: Healthy
416   eating patterns and food-based dietary recommendations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical*
417   *Nutrition*,   *27*(4),   908–913.
418   https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/ielapa.762435308484087
419

Basic characteristics based on Pre-pregnancy BMI

1   Table 1 Basic characteristics based on Pre-pregnancy BMI

Characteristics	Pre-pregnancy BMI				p
	Underweight (n=24)	Normal weight (n=329)	Overweight (n=127)	Obese (n=52)	
Age (years)	29.29±4.53	31.34±4.18	32.03±4.71	32.31±4.53	0.017
Height (cm)	164.42±5.14	164.19±5.42	162.91±4.85	163.63±5.07	0.942
Weight (kg)	52.56±9.37	64.65±11.93	72.57±8.74	81.04±14.51	<0.001
GWG (kg)	15.77±5.09	13.93±4.63	12.75±4.20	12.02±5.09	<0.001
Basic metabolism (kcal/d)	1315.41±116.00	1310.64±150.00	1360.98±119.68	1363.81±137.76	<0.001
Educational level (N, %)					0.382
Secondary level or below	9(37.50)	83(25.23)	46(36.22)	14(26.92)	
College level	7(29.17)	93(28.27)	35(27.56)	14(26.92)	
University level	5(20.83)	88(26.75)	32(25.20)	15(28.85)	
Graduate level or above	3(12.50)	65(19.75)	14(11.02)	9(17.31)	
Household income (N, %)					0.395
<5000	2(8.33)	16(4.86)	8(6.30)	4(7.69)	
5000-10000	3(20.83)	59(17.93)	12(9.45)	5(9.62)	
10001-30000	14(58.33)	205(62.31)	87(68.50)	38(73.07)	
>30000	5(12.50)	49(14.89)	20(15.75)	5(9.62)	
Smokers (N, %)	2(8.33)	35(10.64)	11(8.66)	5(9.62)	0.922
Number of pregnancies	2[1,2]	2[1,2]	2[1,3]	2[1,3]	0.451
Number of deliveries	1[0,1]	1[1,1]	1[1,1]	1[0,1]	0.103

Basic characteristics based on GWG

1   Table 1 Basic characteristics based on GWG

Characteristics	GWG			
	Inadequate (n=25)	Adequate (n=351)	Excessive (n=156)	p
Age (years)	32.28±4.25	31.70±4.67	31.36±4.27	0.487
Height (cm)	163.20±3.96	162.56±5.23	164.46±4.62	0.614
Weight (kg)	69.30±9.80	62.36±10.57	69.80±13.54	<0.001
Pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m^2)	24.92±3.49	22.86±3.66	25.33±3.69	<0.001
Basic metabolism (kcal/d)	1335.76±97.51	1334.27±195.40	1326.05±119.20	0.816
Educational level (N, %)				0.524
Secondary level or below	6(24.00)	102(29.06)	42(26.92)	
College level	7(28.00)	100(28.49)	44(28.21)	
University level	9(36.00)	83(23.65)	48(30.77)	
Graduate level or above	3(12.00)	66(18.80)	22(14.10)	
Household income (N, %)				0.743
<5000	1(4.00)	20(5.70)	9(5.77)	
5000-10000	3(12.00)	56(15.95)	22(14.10)	
10001-30000	19(76.00)	228(64.96)	97(62.18)	
>30000	2(8.00)	47(13.39)	28(17.95)	
Smokers (N, %)	4(16)	34(9.68)	15(9.62)	0.587
Number of pregnancies	2[1,3]	2[1,3]	2[1,2]	0.502
Number of deliveries	1[1,2]	1[0,1]	1[1,1]	0.283

Multivariable adjusted CHDI-P scores by Pre-pregnancy BMI

1   Table 1 Multivariable adjusted CHDI-P scores by Pre-pregnancy BMI

	Total	Diversity total	Adequacy total	Limitation total
Multivariable-adjusted model–adjusted for educational level, household income and number of deliveries				
underweight	60.28±0.99	9.99±0.11	26.26±1.08	24.03±0.32
normal weight	59.46±0.99	10.00±0.21	26.26±1.01	23.19±0.38
overweight	58.85±0.98	9.99±0.20	26.21±1.00	22.64±0.34
obese	57.80±1.11	9.99±0.12	26.07±1.15	21.70±0.43

Multivariable adjusted CHDI-P scores by GWG

1   Table 1 Multivariable adjusted CHDI-P scores by GWG

	Total	Diversity total	Adequacy total	Limitation total
Multivariable-adjusted model–adjusted for household income and number of deliveries				
inadequate	59.54±0.92	10.00±0.11	26.76±0.99	22.74±0.19
adequate	59.17±0.86	10.00±0.10	26.25±0.98	22.91±0.23
excessive	59.17±0.73	10.00±0.12	26.19±0.84	22.98±0.24

Post-hoc analysis of CHDI-P scores across BMI-based subgroups.

1   Table 1 Post-hoc analysis of CHDI-P scores across BMI-based subgroups.

	Total		Diversity total		Adequacy total		Limitation total	
	p	95% CI	p	95% CI	p	95% CI	p	95% CI
Obese-normal weight	<0.001	[-2.04, -1.27]	0.004	[-0.01, -0.00]	0.595	[-0.59, 0.21]	<0.001	[-1.64, -1.35]
Overweight-normal weight	<0.001	[-0.87, -0.33]	0.007	[-0.01, -0.00]	0.900	[-0.33, 0.22]	<0.001	[-0.66, -0.46]
Underweight-normal weight	<0.001	[0.28, 1.37]	0.804	[-0.01, 0.01]	0.900	[-0.57, 0.56]	<0.001	[0.63, 1.04]
Overweight-obese	<0.001	[0.63, 1.48]	0.709	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.836	[-0.30, 0.57]	<0.001	[0.78, 1.10]
Underweight-obese	<0.001	[1.85, 3.12]	0.546	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.876	[-0.47, 0.84]	<0.001	[2.10, 2.57]
Underweight-overweight	<0.001	[0.85, 2.00]	0.892	[-0.01, 0.01]	0.900	[-0.54, 0.64]	<0.001	[1.18, 1.61]

Post-hoc analysis of CHDI-P scores across GWG-based subgroups.

1   Table 1 Post-hoc analysis of CHDI-P scores across GWG-based subgroups.

	Total		Diversity total		Adequacy total		Limitation total	
	p	95% CI	p	95% CI	p	95% CI	p	95% CI
Excessive-adequate	0.900	[−0.18, 0.17]	0.308	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.739	[-0.26, 0.14]	0.004	[0.02, 0.13]
Inadequate-adequate	0.080	[−0.03, 0.76]	0.521	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.023	[0.06, 0.96]	0.003	[-0.29, -0.05]
Inadequate-excessive	0.061	[−0.01, 0.75]	0.887	[-0.00, 0.01]	0.006	[0.14, 1.00]	<0.001	[-0.36, -0.13]