

1 **Original Research:**

2  
3 **The association between pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight**  
4 **gain (GWG) among women in rural NSW, Australia**

5  
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24 160 character summary of article: Evaluation of the proportion of pregnant women in  
25 a rural medical practice not meeting the current guidelines for gestational weight  
26 gain with a secondary analysis of delivery methods.

27  
28 Key words: pregnancy, gestational weight gain, BMI, obstetrics

29  
30 Number of tables 3

31  
32 Number of figures 4

33  
34 Word count (excluding title page, abstract, references, figures and tables): 2994

1 **Abstract**

2  
3 *Background:* Pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) and excessive gestational weight  
4 gain (GWG) are associated with adverse outcomes of pregnancy. The Institute of  
5 Medicine (IOM) provides recommendations for weight gain during pregnancy based on  
6 pre-pregnancy BMI.

7  
8 *Objectives:* To evaluate the proportion of pregnant women in a rural medical practice  
9 not meeting the IOM guidelines and to assess a link between pre-pregnancy BMI or  
10 excessive GWG and delivery method in this population.

11  
12 *Methods:* A clinical audit of 168 patients in a rural NSW Medical Centre with a search  
13 criterion of 'pregnancy' was performed. Relevant patient details were collected and  
14 linked to patient files; pre-pregnancy weight, height, weights recorded during  
15 pregnancy, and delivery method.

16  
17 *Results:* Among the 87% of gestating women who did not meet the current GWG  
18 recommendations, 57% gained weight excessively and 30% inadequately. There was a  
19 statistically significant association between pre-pregnancy BMI and excessive GWG  
20 with overweight women more likely to gain excessively (Fisher's exact test 29.04,  
21  $p < 0.001$ ). Pre-pregnancy BMI was also associated with delivery method, with normal  
22 weight women more likely to have a normal vaginal delivery and obese women more  
23 likely to have an instrumental delivery or planned Caesarean-section (Fisher's exact test  
24 20.89;  $p < 0.001$ ). Gestational weight gain was not associated with delivery method,  
25 regardless of pre-pregnancy BMI.

26  
27 *Conclusion:* Given that the majority of women in this rural medical practice showed  
28 gestational weight gains outside the recommended limits and that pre-pregnancy BMI  
29 was associated with delivery method, there is a role for pre-conception and antenatal  
30 programs educating women regarding healthy pre-pregnancy weight and GWG.  
31

## 1 Introduction

2  
3 Pre-pregnancy obesity and excessive gestational weight gain (GWG) are associated  
4 with a wide range of adverse maternal, perinatal, puerperal, neonatal, childhood, and  
5 adulthood complications. Women with a higher pre-conception body mass index  
6 (BMI) have an increased risk of excessive GWG and of experiencing a miscarriage  
7 or stillbirth [1-6]. They also have increased risk of pre-eclampsia, gestational  
8 diabetes mellitus (GDM), dysfunctional labours, post-partum haemorrhage, wound  
9 infection, congenital abnormalities, prematurity, neonatal death, macrosomia and  
10 lower Apgar scores [1,5,7-15,17]. High pre-pregnancy BMI is also associated with  
11 increased risk of caesarean section (CS) [5,9,16,17], with odds ratios of 1.53, 2.26  
12 and 3.38 for overweight, obese and morbidly obese categories, respectively [16].  
13 High GWG imposes a further CS risk, regardless of pre-pregnancy BMI [18].  
14

15 In addition to the immediate maternal and perinatal outcomes outlined above,  
16 maternal obesity is negatively associated with breastfeeding initiation and  
17 maintaining breastfeeding for the recommended six month period [14,19].  
18 Breastfeeding is associated with decreased risk of maternal post-partum depression,  
19 childhood obesity, neonatal infections, Type 2 diabetes (T2DM) and obesity in the  
20 offspring [20,21,22,23].  
21

22 The long-term health impacts of excessive GWG also extend beyond the immediate  
23 pregnancy, with an increased risk of post-partum weight retention, which further  
24 increases the risk of pre-eclampsia in subsequent pregnancies [9,24,25]. GDM and  
25 increased fat deposition may also precipitate impaired glucose tolerance and T2DM  
26 [26]. Furthermore, several studies show a positive association between high GWG  
27 and both childhood and adult obesity in offspring [27-30]. This is of increasing  
28 concern since a large proportion of women gain weight excessively during  
29 pregnancy. One U.S. multi-centre GWG study showed 73% of women exceeded the  
30 weight gain recommended for their BMI [7]. Accounting for a previous, more  
31 stringent set of recommendations, an earlier US cohort study showed only 43.7% of  
32 women exceeded the guidelines [31]. This suggests that even with a relaxation of  
33 weight-gain targets, there is an increased incidence of excessive GWG. Another  
34 Australian study found 38% of women gained in excess of the guidelines; however,  
35 several exclusions may account for some of the variation observed [32]. Given that  
36 some of the study's exclusion criteria, including prematurity, neonatal death,  
37 language spoken and ethnicity have been linked with excessive GWG, the study may  
38 have underestimated the prevalence of women gaining above the guidelines  
39 [1,33,34].  
40

### 41 *GWG in rural areas*

42 While there is a paucity of literature focusing on GWG in rural Australia, studies  
43 elsewhere comparing urban and rural populations show mixed results. In comparison to  
44 women in urban areas, an Iranian study found rural women more likely to be  
45 underweight, while a U.S. study found rural women were more likely to be overweight  
46 or obese. Both studies found rural women had a lower GWG than their urban  
47 counterparts [35,36]. Differences in infrastructure and food availability may contribute  
48 to rural/urban differences in BMI and GWG. Across different BMI categories, the  
49 aforementioned study suggested that pre-pregnancy obesity might actually protect  
50 against excess GWG [36]. In contrast, another urban U.S. study reported that the single  
51 most predictive factor for ideal GWG was normal pre-pregnancy BMI [37] and an urban

1 Australian study, which identified 56% of overweight women compared to 30% of  
2 normal weight women gaining in excess of IOM recommendations ( $p < 0.001$ ) [32].

3 Post-pregnancy weight retention is another issue facing rural populations. In Australia,  
4 between 42.5% and 58.1% of women of child-bearing age, and 63% of women living  
5 rurally and remotely are overweight or obese [38]. One rural U.S. study assessed the  
6 long-term effects of excess GWG and limited postpartum weight-loss [24]. The study,  
7 by Rooney and Schauberger, found no relationship between weight gain ten years  
8 postpartum and pre-pregnancy BMI, in contrast to other studies describing a positive  
9 correlation between these two factors [1-3,36]. More importantly, Rooney and  
10 Schauberger's results revealed a positive correlation between excess GWG and weight  
11 retention at five years post-partum [24]. With higher rates of obesity and obesity-related  
12 diseases, together with reduced access to medical care, these findings pertinent for the  
13 health of rural Australian women [38,39,40].

14  
15 The U.S. Institute of Medicine (IOM) has recommendations for GWG based on pre-  
16 pregnancy body BMI [41] and in the absence of Australian-specific guidelines,  
17 recommendations are generally based on this guidelines [1]. Overall, while increased  
18 risks associated with GWG and obesity in pregnancy are well documented, compliance  
19 in current Australian rural environments is less well known.

20  
21 This study addresses this gap in knowledge by evaluating the proportion of pregnant  
22 women in a rural medical practice not meeting the IOM guidelines using three different  
23 methods to calculate GWG. With the local hospital being low-risk, a secondary analysis  
24 assessed the link between pre-pregnancy BMI or GWG and delivery method. This study  
25 was conducted to quantify the number of women who may benefit from the newly  
26 implemented *Expecting Changes* program in the area, a program targeting weight  
27 control in women planning to conceive or newly pregnant.

## 1 **Material and Methods**

2  
3 Ethical approval was granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee (UOW, ethics  
4 number GSM16/015).

5  
6 An audit of quarterly snapshot data (2016) from a rural NSW medical centre (Modified  
7 Monash Model classification 4) was conducted using the PenCS Audit Tool™ (Pen CS  
8 Pty Ltd, Leichardt, Australia). Patients with an active search criterion of ‘pregnancy’  
9 were isolated (n=385) and cross-referenced to their Best Practice (Best Practice  
10 Software Pty Ltd, Bundaberg, Australia) file. Height, pre-pregnancy and pregnancy  
11 weight data and delivery details were extracted by the Practice Manager and patient  
12 information was de-identified. Patients with missing height information were excluded  
13 (n=136). A further 81 were excluded based on inadequate weight recordings, missing  
14 data or improbable values (Figure 1). This left 168 women in the study population.  
15

16 Pre-pregnancy BMI was calculated using the woman’s height and the record of either 1)  
17 their earliest pregnancy weight or 2) most recent pre-pregnancy weight (weight (kg) /  
18 height (m<sup>2</sup>)). Weight status was categorized according to the WHO BMI cut-off points  
19 (Table 1).  
20

21 Weight-gain during pregnancy was calculated via three methods (employed by other  
22 studies) allowing an assessment of whether method of calculation changed the  
23 outcome [7,15,32,36]. Calculations used were

- 24 1. Total weight-gain: last weight minus first weight.
- 25 2. Average weight-gain by week: total weight-gain divided by the number of  
26 gestational weeks.
- 27 3. Average weight-gain by week: weight-gains at each measurement divided by the  
28 number of weeks between weight measurements.  
29

30 Based on these three calculation methods, GWG was classified as below, within, or  
31 above the IOM recommendations. A secondary analysis of delivery method was  
32 matched to each category pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG.  
33

### 34 *Statistical analysis*

35 Cross-tabulations using chi-square and exact tests were used to determine the  
36 association between 1) pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG, based on the IOM  
37 recommendations, and 2) GWG and delivery method. Fisher’s exact test was used when  
38 the minimum expected cell frequency assumption was violated. Data were analysed  
39 using Excel (Microsoft® Corporation, Redmond, USA) and SPSS software (IBM, New  
40 York City, USA).

## 1 Results

### 3 *Subjects*

4 Of the 168 women in the final study population, 4% were underweight, 32% were  
5 normal weight, 23% were overweight and 42% were obese. Indigenous status was  
6 collected, but not considered due to the small sample size (n=11). Age ranged from 18.9  
7 to 46.2 years (mean: 30.6 years).

### 9 *GWG across all pregnancies*

10 The three methods used to evaluate GWG revealed slightly different proportions of  
11 women below, within and above the IOM recommendations (Figure 2). Using total  
12 weight gained, 36% of participants gained above and 33% less than the guidelines.  
13 Almost a third of women (31%) gained weight within the recommendations. With  
14 regard to the methods of GWG classification, more women were found to have gained  
15 above the recommendations when total weight-gain was broken down by week (57%,  
16 n=95), with only 13% (n=22) of women gaining within the recommendations. When  
17 assessing weight-gain using the interval between weights, even fewer women had met  
18 the recommended guidelines (9%, n=15).

### 20 *GWG based on pre-pregnancy BMI*

21 On average, underweight, normal weight, overweight and obese women gained a total  
22 of 11.25 kg, 12.62 kg, 12.08 kg and 7.38 kg, respectively. Using the weight-gain by  
23 week calculation, underweight women gained an average of 0.354 kg per week; normal  
24 weight women, 0.478 kg; overweight women, 0.480 kg; and obese women, 0.311 kg  
25 (Table 2). A  $\chi^2$  test of this weekly weight-gain calculation revealed a statistically  
26 significant association between pre-pregnancy BMI and weight-gain based on IOM  
27 recommendations (Fisher's Exact test 29.01;  $p < 0.001$ ), with 76% (n=29) of overweight  
28 women (Table 3) gaining above the recommendations. Obese women were more likely  
29 gain less gestational weight than recommended by the IOM (Table 3). Women with  
30 normal pre-pregnancy BMIs were significantly more likely ( $p < 0.001$ ) to gain within the  
31 IOM recommendations. This significance was not observed when using the total  
32 weight-gain and interval weight-gain calculations; however, using each respective  
33 calculation, 50% (n=26) and 61% (n=23) of overweight, and 37% (n=26) and 55%  
34 (n=39) of obese women still gained above the recommendations. Using the interval  
35 calculation, 51% (n=27) of women within a normal pre-pregnancy weight range gained  
36 above the recommendation compared to 47% (n=25) using the average gain by week  
37 calculation. Despite the small sample size (n=6), the majority of women (67-83%) with  
38 an underweight pre-pregnancy BMI gained less than the IOM recommendations  
39 regardless of calculation method (Table 3).

### 41 *Pre-pregnancy BMI, excessive GWG and delivery method*

42 The association between pre-pregnancy BMI and delivery method was statistically  
43 significant, (Fisher's Exact test 20.89;  $p < 0.001$ ), with obese women significantly more  
44 likely to have an instrumental delivery (n=8) or planned-CS (n=16) and less likely than  
45 expected to have normal vaginal delivery (NVD). Normal weight women were more  
46 likely to have a NVD and although the numbers were small, underweight women were  
47 significantly more likely to undergo emergency-CS (Table 4). There was no statistically  
48 significant association between GWG and delivery method ( $\chi^2 = 8.8$ ;  $p = 0.358$ ) (Figure  
49 3).

## 1 Discussion

2  
3 Regardless of pre-pregnancy BMI or calculation method, the majority of participants  
4 gained weight outside the IOM recommendations; only 9-31% of women gained within  
5 the recommended guidelines. Calculating GWG by week or interval rather than total  
6 weight-gain identified more women gaining outside the guidelines. Approximately one-  
7 third of women gained less weight than recommended, regardless of calculation  
8 method. Whether this is related to the environment, inadequate antenatal education or  
9 overly strict guidelines, these results are consistent with, or lower than, those reported  
10 previously. Johnson, *et al.* found 73% of participants gained above the guidelines using  
11 a total weight and weekly weight gain calculation; however, a Taiwanese study,  
12 however, found significantly fewer to have gained above (27.7%) and many more to  
13 have gained within (45%) the guidelines [7,15]. Ethnic differences in body morphology  
14 are more likely to have played a role than in the current study and provide grounds for  
15 variation in the IOM recommendations to also consider ethnicity rather than just BMI.  
16 Additionally, in a Swedish study of 163,352 women, the proportion of women gaining  
17 in excess of the guidelines was linked to education status and parity, with 37.1% of  
18 women gaining in excess of the guidelines in the first pregnancy and 32.9% in the  
19 second [3]. Being retrospective in nature, the current study did not collect data  
20 regarding parity or education. Irrespectively, with such a high proportion of women  
21 experiencing excessive GWG there is a clear need for intervention.

22  
23 A common limitation for GWG studies is establishing pre-pregnancy weight. Various  
24 approaches have been used: many have used self-reported pre-pregnancy weight to  
25 determine BMI, while others have excluded women with incomplete BMI information  
26 [9,32,42,43]. In one study, where pre-pregnancy weight data were missing from  
27 participants' records, it was estimated post-delivery [44]. It is not clear whether this  
28 estimation was objective or subjective. In a later study using IOM guidelines, subjective  
29 pre-pregnancy weight provided by participants was used to calculate GWG [7]. Given  
30 that many women may neither be weighed prior to conceiving nor present within the  
31 first few weeks/months of pregnancy, it is difficult to assess true GWG based on pre-  
32 pregnancy weight. In an attempt to account for this limitation, Johnson, *et al.* assessed  
33 weekly weight-gain and provided an objective measure of weight upon study  
34 commencement [7]. This enabled a correlation between weekly weight-gain based on  
35 BMI and the IOM recommendations rather than a total weight-gain figure and formed  
36 the basis of the calculations used in this study. Another approach is using only the first  
37 prenatal visit weight to calculate GWG, with the justification that early pregnancy  
38 weight-gain should be relatively minor [24].

39  
40 Using average weekly weight-gain, pre-pregnancy BMI was not associated with GWG  
41 outside the recommendations with more overweight and obese women gaining above  
42 the recommended weekly amounts. These findings are comparable with de Jersey *et al.*,  
43 where their methods included only a total weight-gain calculated by weights performed  
44 at 16 and 36 weeks' gestation [32]. The results do conflict with those of Gallagher *et al.*  
45 who found that rural overweight and obese women were less likely to have excessive  
46 GWG [36]. However, their finding that American rural women were more likely to have  
47 an overweight or obese pre-pregnancy BMI weight status is consistent with the  
48 demographic of the current study, with 64% of participants overweight or obese [36].  
49 There was no statistically significant association between pre-pregnancy BMI and GWG  
50 when assessing total weight-gain and average weekly weight gained between  
51 measurements.  
52

1 A secondary analysis of delivery method was included because the local hospital is  
2 classified as 'low-risk' (women with a BMI>40 must deliver at larger hospitals). An  
3 association between pre-pregnancy BMI and delivery method was observed with more  
4 obese women having instrumental deliveries or planned CS and more normal weight  
5 women having NVD. This finding is consistent with other large studies that found that  
6 compared to women with a normal pre-pregnancy BMI, overweight and obese women  
7 were more likely to undergo CS [5,7,16]. In a retrospective study (n=30,298), Scott-  
8 Pillai *et al.* further concluded the risk was greater for each increasing category of  
9 obesity; a breakdown of which was not included in the current study [5]. There was no  
10 statistically significant association between excessive GWG and delivery method which  
11 contrasts with previous studies; two in particular reported excessive GWG as an  
12 independent risk factor for CS delivery [16,45,46,47]. The lack of association may have  
13 been related to the current study's use of categorical data to classify GWG, as opposed  
14 to quantifying the impact of increasing kilograms of GWG on delivery method. While  
15 reasons for planned-CS may not be related to maternal weight-gain or BMI, in the  
16 current study, it may indicate the need for the inclusion of pre-conception weight  
17 control planning in the *Expecting Changes* program.

### 18 *Limitations*

19 As discussed above, establishing pre-pregnancy weight can be difficult [7,9,24,32]. To  
20 overcome this, the calculation of weight-gain by week based on total GWG and interval  
21 between weight measurements was used. This is similar to the method adopted by  
22 Johnson, *et al.* [7]. Although the result was not significant, calculation based on the  
23 interval between weights allowed for a more accurate assessment of weight-gain as it  
24 factored in a potential change in rate of weight-gain occurring at different stages of  
25 pregnancy and allowed for consideration of lower weight gain targets in the first  
26 trimester.

27  
28  
29 While this study reports a statistically significant difference in weight-gain by women  
30 based on pre-pregnancy BMIs, there are limitations to the accuracy of such data and the  
31 representative nature of the sample size to the broader population of gestating rural  
32 women. Since the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) guidelines  
33 advised against it, there has been a shift away from weighing women at every antenatal  
34 appointment [48]. This was reflected in the number of women excluded from the study  
35 due to lack of weight data. It may also be that weights were recorded on 'yellow cards'  
36 rather than in GP patient records, which this study did not have ethical approval to  
37 access. Midwives report anecdotal bias in that women who appear overweight tend to  
38 be weighed more than those who look normal or underweight. While this is associated  
39 with the local hospital's low-risk status, it also potentially means that more normal or  
40 underweight women were excluded from the study. As such, the sample size of  
41 underweight women was too small to detect statistical significance. Other limitations  
42 leading to reduction in weight information include women opting-out of weighing and  
43 variation in doctor practice (including own biases and limitations in addressing the  
44 subject of weight with women).

45  
46 Comorbidities were outside the scope of this research; however, the lack of  
47 consideration of possible confounding factors such as socioeconomic factors, education  
48 level, marital status, age, parity, smoking status, and indigenous status may have  
49 confounded our study results and reduced their generalisability. This information was  
50 not always available in the GP patient record and therefore would not have accurately  
51 reflected the participant characteristics. Additionally, inability to include information  
52 regarding hypertension or endocrine disorders would influence the results, although



1 there does not seem to be a consistent approach regarding co-morbidities, with some  
2 studies excluding women based on comorbidities and others not [5,7,9,16,32,49].

3  
4 Method of delivery was obtained from GP patient records, but given that in 11% of  
5 participants this parameter was unknown and many births in the area were excluded, the  
6 study sample was unlikely to have represented all delivery methods.

#### 7 *Implications for the 'Expecting Changes' program*

8 Herein, we provide evidence of the need for pre- and/or post-conception support for  
9 overweight and obese women in this rural area; however, given the total number of  
10 women with excessive GWG, more targeted antenatal counselling may be prudent for  
11 all expectant mothers. Data from this study may be applied to other rural populations in  
12 Australia and suggests that with limited access to services in rural areas, specific  
13 programs for weight control may be an important way to address this issue.

14  
15 Given increased rates of CS and instrumental deliveries related to high pre-pregnancy  
16 BMI the need for pre-conception planning is further emphasised [5,7,16]. Ongoing  
17 weight management in women of childbearing age is an important role for the GP, with  
18 recommendations of promoting moderate-intensity exercise and nutritional diets  
19 outlined in the current clinical guidelines [50].

#### 20 *Future research*

21 The findings of the current study will allow an accurate assessment of the effectiveness  
22 of the *Expecting Changes* program.

23  
24 Adverse outcomes of high pre-pregnancy BMI and excessive GWG extend beyond the  
25 immediate pregnancy to impact health outcomes for both mother and child. Regardless  
26 of pre-pregnancy BMI or method of GWG calculation, the majority of women in this  
27 small rural centre are gaining outside the recommended guidelines. Women with high  
28 pre-pregnancy BMIs are more likely to gain above the recommended amount and obese  
29 women are more likely to have a CS or instrumental delivery. Thus, there is a role for a  
30 program like the multi-disciplinary *Expecting Changes* program, targeting women with  
31 a pre-pregnancy BMI $\geq$ 25 and further antenatal counselling on GWG is likely to benefit  
32 women both prior to and during pregnancy, regardless of BMI.  
33  
34

1 **Acknowledgements**

2

3 Thank you to the staff at the medical centre where this research was conducted.

4

5 **Conflicts of interest**

6

7 None declared.

Corrected Proof

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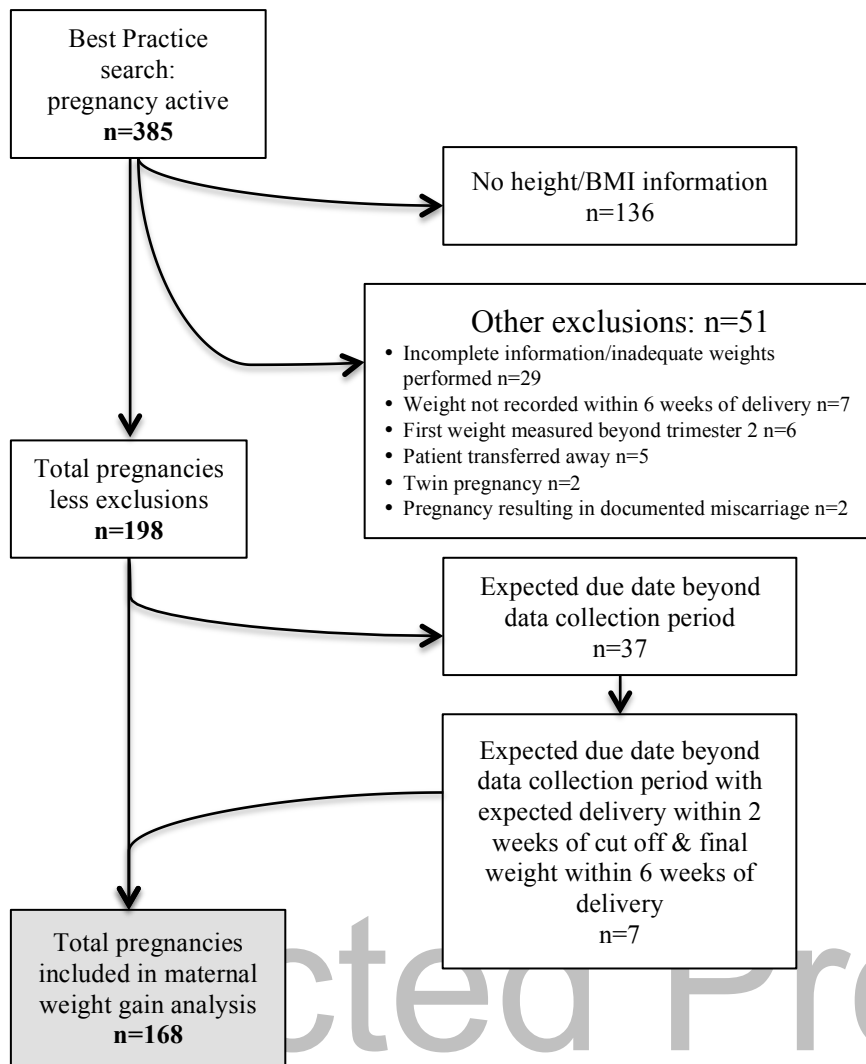
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**Table 1. Institute of Medicine weight gain in pregnancy recommendation. Units, converted from pounds to kilograms [1].**

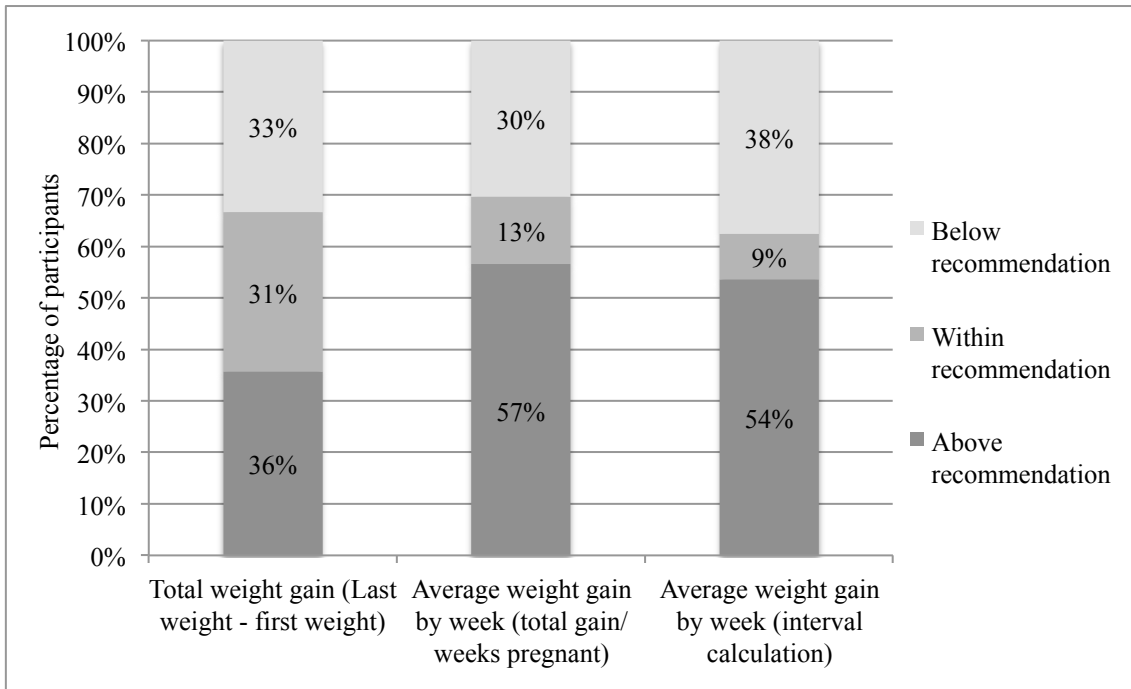
<b>Pre-pregnancy Weight Category</b>	<b>Body Mass Index</b>	<b>Recommended range of total weight (kg)</b>	<b>Recommended rate of weight in second and third trimester (kg/week)</b>
Underweight	Less than 18.5	12.7 – 18.1	0.45 (0.45 – 0.58)
Normal weight	18.5 - 24.9	11.3 – 15.8	0.45 (0.36 - 0.45)
Overweight	25 - 29.9	6.8 – 11.3	0.27 (0.22 - 0.31)
Obese (includes all classes)	30 and greater	4.9 – 9.0	0.22 (0.18 - 0.27)

Corrected Proof



**Figure 1. Participant inclusion and exclusion protocol.**





**Figure 2. All pregnancy GWG relative to IOM recommendations showing proportion of women in each category across the three methods of calculation.**

Corrected Proof

**Table 2. Average total and weekly weight gain (with standard deviation) across BMI categories with IOM recommendations per BMI category.**

<b>Pre-pregnancy Weight Category</b>	<b>Participant average total weight gain (kg) (<math>\pm</math>SD)</b>	<b>IOM Recommended range of total weight (kg)</b>	<b>Participant average weekly weight gain (total weight/weeks pregnant) (<math>\pm</math>SD)</b>	<b>Participant average weekly weight gain (weight gain over interval between measurements) (<math>\pm</math>SD)</b>	<b>IOM Recommended rate of weight in second and third trimester (kg/week)</b>
Underweight	11.25 ( $\pm$ 4.27)	12.7 – 18.1	0.354 ( $\pm$ 0.31)	0.381 ( $\pm$ 0.11)	0.45 (0.45 – 0.58)
Normal weight	12.62 ( $\pm$ 5.13)	11.3 – 15.8	0.478 ( $\pm$ 0.28)	0.481 ( $\pm$ 0.21)	0.45 (0.36 - 0.45)
Overweight	12.08 ( $\pm$ 6.26)	6.8 – 11.3	0.480 ( $\pm$ 0.29)	0.456 ( $\pm$ 0.25)	0.27 (0.22 - 0.31)
Obese (includes all classes)	7.83 ( $\pm$ 6.07)	4.9 – 9.0	0.311 ( $\pm$ 0.36)	0.355 ( $\pm$ 0.27)	0.22 (0.18 - 0.27)

Corrected Proof

**Table 3. Assessment of weight gain by pre-pregnancy BMI relative to IOM GWG recommendations using three methods of calculation, Fisher's Exact statistic 29.04,  $p<0.001$ .**

	<b>IOM Recommendation</b>			Total
	Above (n, %)	Within (n, %)	Below (n, %)	
Underweight	0(0)	1 (5)	5 (10)	6 (4)
Normal weight	25 (26)	13 (59)	15 (29)	53 (35)
Overweight	29(31)	5 (23)	4 (8)	38 (24)
Obese	41 (43)	3(14)	27 (53)	71 (42)
<b>TOTAL</b>	95	22	51	168

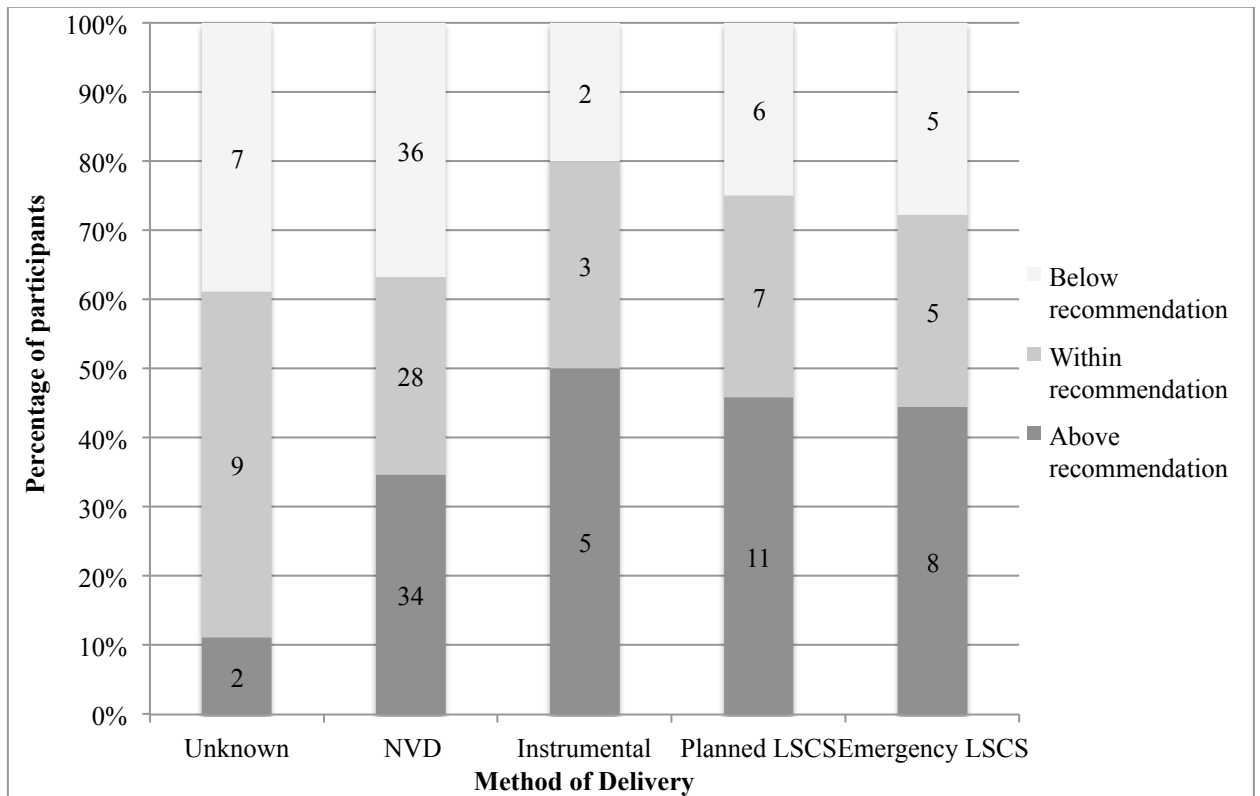
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**Table 4. Delivery methods of women classified by pre-pregnancy BMI  $p < 0.001$  using Fisher's exact test.**

	Method of Delivery					
	Total (n, %)	Unknown (n, %)	NVD (n, %)	Instrumental (n, %)	Planned LSCS (n, %)	E-LSCS (n, %)
Underweight	6 (4)	1 (25)	1 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (50)
Normal weight	53 (35)	4 (8)	39 (74)	1 (2)	4 (8)	5 (9)
Overweight	38 (24)	6 (16)	24 (63)	1 (3)	4 (11)	3 (8)
Obese	71 (42)	7 (10)	34 (47)	8 (11)	16 (22)	8 (11)
TOTAL	168	18 (11)	98 (58)	10 (6)	24 (14)	18 (11)

*NVD: normal vaginal delivery, LSCS: lower segment Caesarean-section, E-LSCS: emergency lower segment Caesarean-section*

Corrected Proof



**Figure 4. Delivery methods of women classified by GWG above, within and below the IOM recommendations (numbers within columns represent number of deliveries). NVD: normal vaginal delivery, LSCS: lower segment Caesarean-section. Instrumental: forceps or ventouse (vacuum extraction).**

Corrected Proof