Associations of linear growth and weight gain in the first 2 years with bone mass at 4 years of age in children in Dhaka, Bangladesh

Maimuna Gias, <sup>1,2</sup> Huma Qamar, <sup>2</sup> Farzana Fariha, <sup>3</sup> Abdullah Al Mahmud, <sup>3</sup> Prakesh Shah, <sup>4,5,6</sup> Steven A Abrams, <sup>7</sup> Daniel E Roth\*, <sup>1,2,8</sup> and Karen M O'Callaghan\*<sup>9</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Nutritional Sciences, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; <sup>2</sup>Centre for Global Child Health, SickKids Research Institute, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Canada; <sup>3</sup>Nutrition Research Division, International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh; <sup>4</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Mount Sinai Hospital, Toronto, Canada; <sup>5</sup>Lunenfeld Tanenbaum Research Institute, Mount Sinai Hospital, Toronto, Canada; <sup>6</sup>Department of Paediatrics and Institute of Health Policy, Management and Evaluation, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; <sup>7</sup>Department of Pediatrics, Dell Medical School at the University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas, USA; <sup>8</sup>Department of Pediatrics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Canada; <sup>9</sup>Department of Nutritional Sciences, King's College London, London, UK

\*Authors contributed equally to this manuscript



This is an Accepted Manuscript for Public Health Nutrition. This peer-reviewed article has been accepted for publication but not yet copyedited or typeset, and so may be subject to change during the production process. The article is considered published and may be cited using its DOI 10.1017/S1368980024002301

Public Health Nutrition is published by Cambridge University Press on behalf of The Nutrition Society. This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution licence (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted re-use, distribution and reproduction, provided the original article is properly cited.

Address correspondence to: Dr Karen M O'Callaghan, Department of Nutritional Sciences,

King's College London, 150 Stamford St, London SE1 9NH, United Kingdom;

karen.ocallaghan@kcl.ac.uk

Acknowledgements: The authors would like to thank Dr Jennifer Harrington (Women's and

Children's Health Network and University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia) for her support in

the implementation of the BONUSKids study and assessment of DEXA scan quality. The

authors also extend their gratitude to Dr. Shaila Sharmeen Shanta (International Centre for

Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh) for her contribution to BONUSKids study activities.

Financial Support: Funding for this research was provided by the Canadian Institutes for Health

Research (PJT159596) and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (OPP1066764). The Bill and

Melinda Gates Foundation requires a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 Generic License to be

assigned to the Author Accepted Manuscript version that may result from this submission, in

accordance with the grant conditions. The funding agencies did not play a role in the design,

implementation, analysis, or interpretation of the research data.

**Conflict of Interest: None.** 

Authorship: DER: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing,

Funding Acquisition; MG: Formal Analysis, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft; HQ: Formal

Analysis, Visualization; AAM: Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing; FF: Investigation, Writing

Review & Editing; PS: Writing – Review & Editing; SAA: Writing – Review & Editing; KMOC:

Methodology, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing.

Ethical Standards Disclosure: This study was conducted according to the Hospital for Sick

Children and the International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b) research

ethics board guidelines. Written or thumb-print informed consent was obtained by all women prior to

commencing the Maternal Vitamin D for Infant Growth (MDIG) trial and additional consent was

obtained in the BONe and mUScle health in Kids (BONUSKids) follow-up study from caregivers for

their child's participation.

Abstract

Objective: Growth faltering is widespread in many low- and middle-income countries, but its

effects on childhood bone mass accrual are unknown. The objective of this study was to estimate

associations between length (conditional length-for-age z-scores, cLAZ) and weight (conditional

weight-for-age z-scores, cWAZ) gain in 3 age intervals (ages 0-6, 6-12, 12-24 months) with

dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA)-derived measures of bone mass (total-body-less-head

(TBLH) bone mineral content (BMC), areal bone mineral density (aBMD), and bone area) at 4

years of age.

Design: Associations between interval-specific growth parameters (cLAZ and cWAZ) and bone

outcomes were estimated using linear regression models, adjusted for maternal, child, and

household characteristics.

Setting: Data collection occurred in Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Participants: 599 healthy children enrolled in the BONe and mUScle Health in Kids Study.

Results: cLAZ in each age interval was positively associated with TBLH BMC, aBMD, and bone

area at 4 years; however, associations attenuated towards null upon adjustment for concurrent

height-for-age z-scores (HAZ) at age 4 years and confounders. cWAZ from 0-6 and 6-12 months

was not associated with bone mass, but every SD increase in cWAZ between 12-24 months was

associated with greater BMC (7.6g; 95%CI:3.2, 12.0) and aBMD (0.008g/cm2; 95%CI:0.003,

0.014) after adjusting for concurrent WAZ, HAZ, and confounders.

Conclusions: Associations of linear growth (birth to 2 years) with bone mass at age 4 years were

explained by concurrent HAZ. Weight gain in the second year of life may increase bone mass

independently of linear growth in settings where growth faltering is common.

**Keywords:** Bone mass, linear growth, weight gain, child growth

#### Introduction

Linear growth faltering is a global public health concern among children in low-and-middle income countries (LMICs) due to its association with infectious diseases, mortality, and cognitive impairments<sup>(1, 2)</sup>. Longitudinal studies in high-income countries (HICs) have demonstrated associations between linear growth and bone mass accretion, whereby greater gains in length in early life have been associated with a larger bone area in later childhood<sup>(3-6)</sup>. Bone mass tracks longitudinally from childhood to later in life<sup>(7, 8)</sup>, such that reduced bone mineral content (BMC) and bone mineral density (BMD) are risk factors for fractures during childhood<sup>(9)</sup> and osteoporosis later in life<sup>(10, 11)</sup>. Characterizing associations between growth at specific early-life stages and later bone mass may therefore guide the design of age-specific interventions to promote both length gain and bone mass accrual, which may be particularly relevant to children in low-income settings where undernutrition is widespread.

Long bones are formed through endochondral ossification which involves calcium accumulation in the primary spongiosa and chondrocyte mineralization<sup>(12, 13)</sup>. Endochondral bone growth reflects an increase in bone length and, under normal physiological conditions, a commensurate increase in bone density<sup>(12)</sup>. Conversely, appositional bone growth involves deposition of bone mineral to the periosteal bone surface thereby increasing bone width (and, consequently, bone area) which ensures stability of growing bones<sup>(14)</sup>. However, the extent to which bone elongation and mineralization are related in the setting of chronic nutritional deficiencies and growth faltering is uncertain, whereby bone mineral accrual may be influenced by periods of relatively rapid postnatal growth<sup>(15)</sup>.

In a cohort of 4-year-old children in Dhaka, Bangladesh, among whom linear growth faltering is common (22% with height-for-age z-score (HAZ) < -2), we previously found that measures of bone mineral acquisition (i.e., areal bone mineral density (aBMD) and BMC) were low in comparison to a reference from UK-based children of the same chronological age and sex<sup>(16)</sup>. Here, using longitudinal data collected in this cohort since birth<sup>(16, 17)</sup>, we aimed to examine the associations of length or weight gain from birth to 2 years of age with dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA)-derived bone outcomes (BMC, aBMD and bone area) at 4 years of age.

#### Methods

Study design

This study was based on a secondary analysis of data obtained from the previously completed Maternal Vitamin D for Infant Growth (MDIG) trial (clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT01924013) and the follow-up BONe and mUScle Health in Kids study (BONUSKids; NCT03537443). A full description of the methods and primary outcomes for the MDIG trial and BONUSKids study can be found elsewhere<sup>(16-18)</sup>. Briefly, the MDIG trial was a double-blind, randomized placebocontrolled clinical trial of prenatal and postpartum vitamin  $D_3$  supplementation (n=1300) in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The primary outcome was infant linear growth at 1 year of age with further follow-up to 2 years of age<sup>(17)</sup>. The BONUSKids study included a subset of MDIG trial participants (n=642) and examined the effects of the prenatal and postpartum intervention on DEXA-derived measure of bone mass, body composition and muscle strength at 4 years of age<sup>(16)</sup>.

### Sample size and eligibility

This study had a fixed maximum sample size based on prior enrolment into the MDIG trial (n=1300) and the BONUSKids follow-up study (n=642). Inclusion criteria for this secondary analysis mandated the availability of anthropometry measurements (length and/or weight) taken during any of the postnatal timepoints of interest (i.e., 6, 12 and 24 months of age) and a useable DEXA scan at 4 years of age (i.e., scans void of excess motion artifacts). Among the 642 participants enrolled in the BONUSKids study, 20 participants were excluded due to an incomplete DEXA scan, and a further 23 participants were excluded due to excess DEXA motion artifacts, resulting in 599 participants who contributed data for the present study.

#### Maternal, infant, and household characteristics

The last recalled menstrual period and/or ultrasound dating available at the time of enrollment were used to estimate gestational age<sup>(18)</sup>. General health, lifestyle, and socio-demographic data was collected at baseline (17-24 weeks' gestation) through interviewer-administered questionnaires. Socioeconomic status (SES) was assessed based on the results from a household survey conducted during the earliest home visit (i.e., one week after enrollment) from which an asset index score was determined using principal components analysis<sup>(19)</sup>. Weekly postnatal

visits involved collection of information on breastfeeding practices and consumption of complementary foods during the initial 6 months of life, and the occurrence of diarrhea was recorded based on caregiver reports; data on dietary patterns or diarrhoea occurrence was not collected at the postnatal visits between 6 and 24 months of age. Mid-gestation maternal hemoglobin (Hb) concentrations were measured at enrollment using a point-of-care hemoglobinometer (Hb 201+, HemoCue, AB).

#### Anthropometry

Anthropometric measurements were collected during scheduled postnatal visits using standardized procedures as previously described<sup>(16-18)</sup>. Crown-to-heel infant length was measured using a length board up to 2 years of age (Infant/Child ShorrBoard; Weigh and Measure, Olney, MD, USA and Harpenden infantometer; Holtain, Crymych, UK)<sup>(17, 18)</sup>, and standing height was measured at 4 years using a stadiometer (Leicester Height Measure, Chasmors, London, UK)<sup>(16)</sup>. Weight was measured on a digital scale (Seca 874, Seca, Germany)<sup>(16-18)</sup>. The mean of paired anthropometric measurements was used in analyses. Length-for-age z-scores (LAZ), HAZ and weight-for-age z-scores (WAZ) were derived based on INTERGROWTH-21st or WHO child growth standards, as appropriate<sup>(20-22)</sup>. For this study, we categorised data into 4 timepoints: earliest measure (<45 days of age), 6 months (182 to 196 days of age), 12 months (364 to 416 days of age), 48 months (666 to 807 days of age) and 4 years (1431 to 1553 days of age). While the earliest measure was used to maximise the sample size, this timepoint predominantly reflects measurements taken at birth, whereby the median (25<sup>th</sup>, 75<sup>th</sup> percentile) age at measurement was 1 (1, 3) day.

# *Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry*

Total-body-less-head (TBLH; sub-cranial skeleton from base of neck to feet) BMC, aBMD, and bone area was examined by DEXA at 4 years of age using a narrow-angle fan-beam DEXA scanner (Lunar Prodigy Advance; GE Healthcare, Madison, WI) in the enhanced analysis mode on enCore software v16.0. Quality of the total-body-less-head DEXA images were assessed independently for alignment and motion artifact, as detailed previously<sup>(16)</sup>. DEXA scans with excessive motion were excluded from analysis. The three densitometry measures reflect different albeit related measures of bone mass; BMC reflects absolute value of the bone mineral accrued,

bone area is a two-dimensional measure of bone size and aBMD represents the mass of BMC per square centimeter of bone. TBLH BMC and aBMD z-scores were derived using the Lambda-Mu-Sigma (LMS)-modelled formulas proposed by Crabtree *et al*<sup>(23)</sup>.

#### Statistical analysis

Histograms, boxplots, and kernel density plots were used for visual inspection of the data distributions. All outcome variables (i.e., TBLH BMC, aBMD and bone area) approximated a normal distribution, and hence, transformation was not required. Bivariate relationships between the DEXA-derived bone outcomes and anthropometric variable (LAZ/HAZ or WAZ) at each timepoint were examined using scatterplots with locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (LOWESS).

A conditional growth modelling approach<sup>(24, 25)</sup> was used to assess the associations of interval-specific growth measurements from age 0-24 months with each bone outcome (TBLH BMC, TBLH aBMD or TBLH bone area) at 4 years of age. At the first stage, the anthropometric z-score measurement (i.e., LAZ or WAZ) at one age timepoint was regressed on the preceding measure to generate standardized residuals, which reflected the extent to which an individual participant grew (i.e., slower or faster) relative to peers within each of three age intervals: earliest measure to 6 months, 6-12 months, and 12-24 months of age. Specifically, the conditional length-for-age-z-score (cLAZ) for each age interval was generated by deriving the individual participant residual from the simple linear regression of LAZ at the end of an age interval on LAZ at the beginning of an age interval. Conditional weight-for-age-z-scores (cWAZ) for each age interval were similarly generated by regressing end-of interval WAZ on start-of-interval WAZ. Conditional z-scores may therefore be interpreted as each child's relative length/weight gain during a specified interval, compared to peers, accounting for the child's own length/weight at the beginning of the interval.

At the second stage, all cLAZ (or cWAZ) measures were incorporated as covariates in a single regression model for each bone outcome, such that each regression coefficient reflected the effect of growth on each bone parameter in one age interval, independent of growth in the preceding intervals<sup>(26)</sup>. Effect estimates were expressed as the difference in bone outcome per

unit increase in growth parameter, with 95% confidence intervals (CI). P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

We first estimated bivariate associations of each conditional growth parameter (i.e., cLAZ for each age interval) with each bone outcome (referred to as 'base models'). Then, models were expanded to adjust for a set of covariates based on a prespecified conceptual framework (**Fig 1** and **Supplemental Fig 1**), using a direct acyclic graph (DAG) approach<sup>(27)</sup> informed by the published literature and data availability. Three multivariable models were used for each linear growth-bone outcome association: adjustment for concurrent HAZ (i.e., HAZ at 4 years), adjustment for the full set of confounders but not concurrent HAZ, and adjustment for all confounders and concurrent HAZ; final inferences were informed from results of the fully adjusted model.

A similar modelling approach was used to estimate the associations between age interval-specific conditional weight gain (cWAZ) and each bone outcome at 4 years of age. However, for weight gain models, 4 multivariable models were used: the first 3 models were the same as those used in the length gain models, and a fourth model adjusted for all confounders, concurrent HAZ, and concurrent WAZ at 4 years. Concurrent HAZ and concurrent WAZ were included to investigate the extent to which associations of early-life growth and bone outcomes were explained by (versus independent of) the effect of early-life growth on concurrent HAZ/WAZ. In a post-hoc analysis assessing the effect of early-life relative weight gain on bone outcomes, we adjusted for cLAZ at 24 months of age to determine whether the association of cWAZ between 12-24 months and bone mass was confounded by increases in length during this time period.

### Imputation methods for missing data

In primary analysis, missing data for explanatory variables were imputed using multivariate imputation by chained equations (MICE). MICE is a flexible data imputation method that generates multiple predictions for each missing value using a series of regression models based on the observed values for variables included in the imputation model. Predicted values are imputed to create multiple iterations of a complete dataset<sup>(28)</sup>. Here, variables were assumed to be missing at random (MAR), whereby the probability of missing data is considered independent of unobserved data and can be explained by observed data<sup>(29)</sup>. To obtain estimates of the exposure-

outcome relationship using MICE, analysis was performed using each complete dataset and final effect estimates are averaged across all datasets<sup>(28)</sup>. In total, 2.8% of LAZ and WAZ measurements were missing within the first 45 days of age, in addition to some length and weight measurements missing at the 6-, 12-, and 24-month timepoints (**Supplemental Table 1**). Additionally, there were 5 missing data points for other household covariates. Therefore, missing conditional growth measures (cLAZ and cWAZ at each age interval) and household characteristics (asset index, household smoking status, and presence of hand soap in the handwashing station) were imputed to maximise the sample size when modelling the relationship between the conditional growth measure and the bone outcomes.

As a sensitivity analysis, a complete case analysis was conducted involving only infants without missing data for any covariates. In addition, we performed a restricted analysis in which preterm infants were excluded, as well as a subgroup analysis stratified by sex.

All statistical analyses were conducted using STATA version 17.1 (StataCorp, College Station, TX).

#### **Results**

Participant characteristics

Of the 599 participants with a completed DEXA scan, 296 (49%) were boys and 303 (51%) were girls. Participant socio-demographic characteristics are presented in **Table 1**.

Relative linear growth from birth to 2 years and bone outcomes at 4 years of age

In unadjusted base models, cLAZ at 6, 12, and 24 months was positively associated with BMC, aBMD, and bone area (**Table 2** and **Figure 2**). The magnitude of the effect estimates increased with age, with cLAZ at 24 months having the largest magnitude across all 3 bone measures. Including confounders (i.e., maternal, infant and household factors) in the model resulted in minimal changes to the effect estimates (Table 2). Concurrent HAZ at 4 years was strongly associated with all three bone outcomes, and estimates of associations of all early timepoints with bone parameters were substantially attenuated upon adjustment for HAZ at 4 years of age (Table 2). In the multivariable model including concurrent HAZ and other confounders, all estimates were further attenuated, and none remained statistically significant (Table 2).

Relative weight gain from birth to 2 years and bone outcomes at 4 years of age

In the base models, the effect estimates for cWAZ at 24 months were more than double the magnitude of those for cWAZ at the 6-month or 12-month periods (**Table 3** and Figure 2). In multivariable models (adjusted for maternal, infant and household characteristics), cWAZ at all timepoints remained positively associated with bone outcomes with minimal impact on effect estimates (Table 3 and Figure 2). Further adjustment for concurrent HAZ at 4 years in multivariable models resulted in attenuation of estimates, but inferences remained mostly unchanged (Table 3 and Figure 2). In multivariable models that also included concurrent WAZ at 4 years, associations of cWAZ at 6- and 12-months with BMC and aBMD, and all associations between cWAZ and bone area, were attenuated towards null and rendered non-significant (Table 3 and Figure 2). Adjustment for concurrent WAZ also attenuated the positive associations between cWAZ at 24 months and BMC and aBMD but these remained statistically significant (Table 3 and Figure 2). In a post-hoc analysis including adjustment for cLAZ at 24 months, cWAZ at 24 months remained significantly associated with BMC ( $\beta$ =6.6g; 95%CI: 1.8 to 11.4) and aBMD ( $\beta$ =0.006g/cm<sup>2</sup>; 95%CI: 0.0002 to 0.123) but not bone area ( $\beta$ =3.5cm<sup>2</sup>; 95%CI: -2.4 to 9.4).

#### Stratified and sensitivity analyses

In the length gain models, analyses by child sex yielded similar inferences among boys and girls for most of the models (**Supplemental Table 2**). Analyses by child sex in all the weight gain models revealed similar patterns of associations and inferences, with only minor variation in the magnitude of effect sizes between boy and girls (**Supplemental Table 3**). Inferences from analyses restricted to term-born infants (i.e., ≥37 weeks) were consistent with the primary analysis for both length and weight gain models (**Supplemental Tables 4** and **5**); as observed in the primary analyses, associations of cWAZ at 24 months and bone mass remained significant (Supplemental Table 5). Lastly, in comparison to primary analysis using MICE, similar inferences were obtained in sensitivity analyses restricted to participants without missing data for LAZ or WAZ within the first 2 years of life and/or any confounding variables included in multivariable models (**Supplemental Tables 6** and **7**).

#### **Discussion**

In this cohort of children in Dhaka, Bangladesh, relative gains in both length and weight within the first 2 years of life were associated with increased bone mass and bone area at 4 years of age, with a greater magnitude of association for the latest age interval (12–24 months). However, the associations between early-life length gain and later bone outcomes were almost entirely explained by concurrent HAZ at 4 years, which was strongly associated with bone mass. The findings are consistent with previous longitudinal studies of associations between early-life growth and later bone mass in pediatric populations in both the Netherlands<sup>(5)</sup> and the UK<sup>(3)</sup>, and studies of childhood growth and bone mass in adulthood in Finland<sup>(30)</sup>, India<sup>(31)</sup> and Brazil<sup>(32)</sup>. In the context of the present study, in which postnatal linear growth faltering is pervasive, the results suggest that while interventions that promote linear growth from birth to 2 years of age may be expected to increase bone mass in proportion to height gain, there is no specific age interval in which bone mineral accrual is likely to be particularly sensitive to such interventions.

Faster relative weight gain within the first 2 years of life was associated with increased BMC, aBMD and bone area at 4 years of age, which was also consistent with prior studies<sup>(4, 5)</sup>. Even after adjustment for concurrent WAZ, relative weight gain in the second year of life (12-24 months) remained significantly associated with higher BMC and aBMD, although, unlike previous findings from the Netherlands<sup>(5)</sup>, a similarly robust association with bone area was not observed. Endochondral ossification leading to bone elongation and mineral deposition is likely to be the primary mechanism that explains the associations of height and bone mass<sup>(33)</sup>, whereas the association of fat mass with bone mass is likely explained by mechanical loading that promotes appositional bone growth<sup>(33, 34)</sup>. A study in the UK<sup>(33)</sup> highlighted that the independent associations of height and weight gain with bone mass accrual, and their distinct underlying mechanisms of effect, makes it challenging to predict the effect of socioeconomic factors on bone health; for example, whereas higher social position was associated with increased linear height and greater bone mass and size, higher social position was also associated with lower fat mass which was in turn associated with a lower bone mass. The relationship between relative weight gain in the 12-24-month interval and bone mass observed in the present study was unlikely to be explained by endochondral ossification, which couples bone lengthening to bone mineralization, because the association was independent of length gains. During the second year

of life, most children are ambulatory and therefore weight bearing, so it is likely that ponderal growth (gains in weight and adiposity) contributed to bone mineralization by loading effects on the skeleton<sup>(14, 35)</sup>. Increased weight supports both appositional bone formation and endocortical deposition by exerting mechanical stress on the skeleton at weight-bearing sites<sup>(33, 34)</sup>. Given that we did not observe a significant association of relative weight gain with bone area, the primary mechanism supporting increased bone mass may therefore have been endocortical remodeling (which may not involve substantial changes in bone area); alternatively, it is possible that the association between appositional bone growth and bone area was too small to detect within the limits of the sample size of this study. Nonetheless, the findings indicate that the second year of a life may be a sensitive period in which changes in weight can affect the accumulation of bone mass through mechanisms other than bone elongation.

This study had several strengths. In extension of findings from high-income settings<sup>(3, 5)</sup>, we examined the relationship between early-life growth and bone mass in a population in which linear growth faltering, undernutrition and low bone mass are common. Our findings are therefore particularly relevant for guiding future efforts targeting whole-population shifts in growth parameters. The conditional modeling approach facilitated examination of correlated growth measures in a single model, which enables identification of specific age periods in which interventions would be expected to have the most benefit on later bone mass, independent of growth in earlier or later age windows. Lastly, multiple imputation was used to address bias associated with missing data that is common in longitudinal studies, and reliability of the inferences were supported by complete-case analysis.

An important limitation of this study was that the role of physical activity was not investigated. Numerous studies have shown that physical activity influences skeletal integrity and bone mass<sup>(36-38)</sup>, and it likely contributed to the between-child variations and age-related differences in bone outcomes<sup>(39)</sup>. Height may be associated with gross motor activity of young children<sup>(39)</sup>, and therefore physical activity may partially mediate the relationship between height and bone mass; however, there is also the potential for confounding relationships, given that height, bone mass, and opportunities for physical activity are all likely to be related to socioeconomic status. Similarly, while we accounted for the potential confounding of early-life infant feeding patterns,

we lacked dietary intake data beyond the first 6 months of life; it is possible that inclusion of such data may have increased the precision of the effect estimates. Although DEXA is the gold-standard method for bone mass assessment in pediatrics<sup>(40)</sup>, it produces a two-dimensional estimate of a three-dimensional structure which can lead to an overestimation of aBMD in larger bones and thereby potentially weaken the associations between body size and aBMD<sup>(41, 42)</sup>. Finally, it is important to acknowledge that study participants were from a trial cohort recruited within one area of Dhaka, who were enrolled based on willingness and availability to participate in further follow-up studies. We have previously reported that sociodemographic characteristics were similar for MDIG trial participants and the subset of participants of the BONUSKids study included in the present analyses<sup>(16)</sup>; however, we cannot exclude the possibility of attrition bias and we are uncertain about the generalizability of our findings to the broader population of children in Dhaka or children residing in comparable settings.

#### **Conclusion**

In a population with a high prevalence of linear growth faltering, relative gains in length in the first 2 years of life were associated with bone mass and bone area at 4 years of age, but there were no sensitive time periods when the associations were independent of concurrent HAZ at 4 years of age. Conversely, increased relative weight gain between the ages of 12 to 24 months may improve bone mass independently of linear growth or attained height and weight. However, any potential benefits of interventions that promote weight gain would need to be carefully balanced against the possible risks of excess weight to avoid unintended contributions to the double-burden of malnutrition<sup>(43)</sup>.

#### References

- 1. Victora CG, Christian P, Vidaletti LP *et al.* (2021) Revisiting maternal and child undernutrition in low-income and middle-income countries: variable progress towards an unfinished agenda. *Lancet* **397**, 1388-1399.
- 2. Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP *et al.* (2013) Maternal and child undernutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet* **382**, 427-451.
- 3. Fewtrell M, Prentice A, Cole T *et al.* (2000) Effects of growth during infancy and childhood on bone mineralization and turnover in preterm children aged 8-12 years. *Acta Paediatr* **89**, 148-153.
- 4. Harvey NC, Mahon PA, Kim M *et al.* (2012) Intrauterine growth and postnatal skeletal development: findings from the Southampton Women's Survey. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* **26**, 34-44.
- 5. Heppe DH, Medina-Gomez C, de Jongste JC *et al.* (2014) Fetal and childhood growth patterns associated with bone mass in school-age children: the Generation R Study. *J Bone Miner Res* **29**, 2584-2593.
- 6. Monjardino T, Amaro J, Fonseca MJ *et al.* (2019) Early childhood as a sensitive period for the effect of growth on childhood bone mass: Evidence from Generation XXI birth cohort. *Bone* **127**, 287-295.
- 7. Kalkwarf HJ, Gilsanz V, Lappe JM *et al.* (2010) Tracking of bone mass and density during childhood and adolescence. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **95**, 1690-1698.
- 8. Wren TA, Kalkwarf HJ, Zemel BS *et al.* (2014) Longitudinal tracking of dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry bone measures over 6 years in children and adolescents: persistence of low bone mass to maturity. *J Pediatr* **164**, 1280-1285. e1282.
- 9. Clark E, Tobias J Ness A (2006) Association between bone density and fractures in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pediatrics* **117**, e291-e297.
- 10. Johnell O, Kanis JA, Oden A *et al.* (2005) Predictive value of BMD for hip and other fractures. *J Bone Miner Res* **20**, 1185-1194.
- 11. Weaver CM, Gordon CM, Janz KF *et al.* (2016) The National Osteoporosis Foundation's position statement on peak bone mass development and lifestyle factors: a systematic review and implementation recommendations. *Osteoporos Int* 27, 1281-1386.
- 12. Wongdee K, Krishnamra N Charoenphandhu N (2012) Endochondral bone growth, bone calcium accretion, and bone mineral density: how are they related? *J Physiol Sci* **62**, 299-307.
- 13. Mackie E, Ahmed Y, Tatarczuch L *et al.* (2008) Endochondral ossification: how cartilage is converted into bone in the developing skeleton. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* **40**, 46-62.

- 14. Rauch F (2005) Bone Growth in Length and Width- The Yin and Yang of Bone Stability. *J Musculoskelet Neuronal Interact* 5, 194-201.
- 15. Deodati A, Manco M, Mariani M *et al.* (2021) Bone density and body composition in small for gestational age children with adequate catch up growth: A preliminary retrospective case control study. *Bone* **153**, 116114.
- 16. O'Callaghan KM, Shanta SS, Fariha F *et al.* (2022) Effect of maternal prenatal and postpartum vitamin D supplementation on offspring bone mass and muscle strength in early childhood: follow-up of a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* **115**, 770-780.
- 17. Roth DE, Morris SK, Zlotkin S *et al.* (2018) Vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy and lactation and infant growth. *N Engl J Med* **379**, 535-546.
- 18. Roth DE, Gernand AD, Morris SK *et al.* (2015) Maternal vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy and lactation to promote infant growth in Dhaka, Bangladesh (MDIG trial): Study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials* **16**, 300.
- 19. Dunteman GH (1989) Principal components analysis: Sage.
- 20. World Health Organization. (2006) WHO child growth standards. <a href="https://www.who.int/tools/child-growth-standards">https://www.who.int/tools/child-growth-standards</a>] Acessed February 2022. (accessed February 2022)
- 21. Villar J, Giuliani F, Bhutta ZA *et al.* (2015) Postnatal growth standards for preterm infants: the Preterm Postnatal Follow-up Study of the INTERGROWTH-21st Project. *Lancet Glob Health* **3**, e681-e691.
- 22. Villar J, Ismail LC, Victora CG *et al.* (2014) International standards for newborn weight, length, and head circumference by gestational age and sex: the Newborn Cross-Sectional Study of the INTERGROWTH-21st Project. *Lancet* **384**, 857-868.
- 23. Crabtree NJ, Shaw NJ, Bishop NJ *et al.* (2017) Amalgamated reference data for size-adjusted bone densitometry measurements in 3598 children and young adults—the ALPHABET study. *J Bone Miner Res* **32**, 172-180.
- 24. Keijzer-Veen MG, Euser AM, van Montfoort N *et al.* (2005) A regression model with unexplained residuals was preferred in the analysis of the fetal origins of adult diseases hypothesis. *J Clin Epidemiol* **58**, 1320-1324.

- 25. Adair LS, Fall CH, Osmond C *et al.* (2013) Associations of linear growth and relative weight gain during early life with adult health and human capital in countries of low and middle income: findings from five birth cohort studies. *Lancet* **382**, 525-534.
- 26. Johnson W (2015) Analytical strategies in human growth research. *Am J Hum Biol* 27, 69-83.
- 27. Digitale JC, Martin JN Glymour MM (2022) Tutorial on directed acyclic graphs. *J Clin Epidemiol* **142**, 264-267.
- 28. Azur MJ, Stuart EA, Frangakis C *et al.* (2011) Multiple imputation by chained equations: what is it and how does it work? *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* **20**, 40-49.
- 29. White IR, Royston P Wood AM (2011) Multiple imputation using chained equations: issues and guidance for practice. *Stat Med* **30**, 377-399.
- 30. Mikkola TM, von Bonsdorff MB, Osmond C *et al.* (2017) Childhood growth predicts higher bone mass and greater bone area in early old age: findings among a subgroup of women from the Helsinki Birth Cohort Study. *Osteoporos Int* **28**, 2717-2722.
- 31. Tandon N, Fall C, Osmond C *et al.* (2012) Growth from birth to adulthood and peak bone mass and density data from the New Delhi Birth Cohort. *Osteoporos Int* **23**, 2447-2459.
- 32. Bierhals IO, Vaz JdS, Matijasevich A *et al.* (2022) Linear growth and relative weight gain in childhood and bone mass in adolescence: findings from the Pelotas (Brazil) 2004 birth cohort. *Arch Osteoporos* **18**, 5.
- 33. Clark EM, Ness A Tobias JH (2005) Social position affects bone mass in childhood through opposing actions on height and weight. *J Bone Miner Res* **20**, 2082-2089.
- 34. Kodama Y, Umemura Y, Nagasawa S *et al.* (2000) Exercise and mechanical loading increase periosteal bone formation and whole bone strength in C57BL/6J mice but not in C3H/Hej mice. *Calcif Tissue Int* **66**, 298-306.
- 35. Ernst DE (1998) Exercise for female osteoporosis. *Sports Med* **25**, 359-368.
- 36. Matsuzaki M, Kuper H, Kulkarni B *et al.* (2014) Life-course determinants of bone mass in young adults from a transitional rural community in India: the Andhra Pradesh Children and Parents Study (APCAPS). *Am J Clin Nutr* **99**, 1450-1459.
- 37. Michalopoulou M, Kambas A, Leontsini D *et al.* (2013) Physical activity is associated with bone geometry of premenarcheal girls in a dose-dependent manner. *Metabolism* **62**, 1811-1818.

- 38. Valtueña J, Gracia-Marco L, Vicente-Rodríguez G *et al.* (2012) Vitamin D status and physical activity interact to improve bone mass in adolescents. The HELENA Study. *Osteoporos Int* **23**, 2227-2237.
- 39. Filteau S, Rehman AM, Yousafzai A *et al.* (2016) Associations of vitamin D status, bone health and anthropometry, with gross motor development and performance of schoolaged Indian children who were born at term with low birth weight. *BMJ Open* 6, e009268.
- 40. Kalkwarf HJ, Abrams SA, DiMeglio LA *et al.* (2014) Bone densitometry in infants and young children: the 2013 ISCD Pediatric Official Positions. *J Clin Densitom* **17**, 243-257.
- 41. Crabtree NJ, Arabi A, Bachrach LK *et al.* (2014) Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry interpretation and reporting in children and adolescents: the revised 2013 ISCD Pediatric Official Positions. *J Clin Densitom* **17**, 225-242.
- 42. Sawyer A (2007) *Bone densitometry in growing patients*: Springer Science & Business Media.
- 43. Popkin BM, Corvalan C Grummer-Strawn LM (2020) Dynamics of the double burden of malnutrition and the changing nutrition reality. *Lancet* **395**, 65-74.

**Table 1.** Infant and maternal characteristics in the present study cohort overall and stratified by child sex.

Characteristic	Total cohort	Boys	Girls	
Characteristic	(n=599)	(n=296)	(n=303)	
Infant characteristics				
Gestational age at birth (weeks), median (min, max)	39 (32, 43)	39 (33, 43)	39 (32, 43)	
Preterm (<37 weeks), n (%)	50 (8)	26 (9)	24 (8)	
Mode of delivery, n (%)				
Vaginal birth	281 (47)	135 (46)	146 (48)	
Caesarean section	318 (53)	161 (54)	157 (52)	
Infant anthropometry, mean $\pm$ SD				
Birth weight (g) <sup>a</sup>	2715 ±352	2777 ±363	2659 ±333	
Length at birth (cm) <sup>b</sup>	47.4 ±2.0	47.8 ±1.9	47.0 ±2.0	
WAZ at birth <sup>a</sup>	-1.20 ±0.89	-1.16 ±0.89	-1.24 ±0.89	
LAZ at birth <sup>b</sup>	-0.91 ±1.04	-0.86 ±0.99	-0.96 ±1.08	
EBF duration (weeks), median (min, max) <sup>c</sup>	14 (0, 26)	14 (0, 26)	14 (0, 26)	
At least one diarrheal episode, n (%) <sup>d</sup>	283 (47)	153 (52)	130 (43)	

# **Maternal characteristics**

Age (years), median (min, max)	23 (18, 40)	23 (18, 38)	23 (18, 40)
Height (cm), mean ± SD	$150.8 \pm 5.5$	$151.0 \pm 5.3$	150.5 ±5.7
Level of education, n (%)			
No schooling	25 (4)	10 (3)	15 (5)
Primary incomplete	113 (19)	50 (17)	63 (21)
Primary complete	87 (15)	43 (15)	44 (15)
Secondary incomplete	251 (42)	129 (44)	122 (40)
Secondary complete or higher	123 (21)	64 (22)	59 (19)
Mid-gestation hemoglobin concentration (g/L), mean $\pm$ SD	107 ±11	106 ±11	107 ±11
Vitamin D intervention group, $n$ (%)			
Placebo	114 (19)	51 (17)	63 (21)
4,200 IU/week	126 (21)	64 (22)	62 (21)
16,800 IU/week	120 (20)	63 (21)	57 (19)
28,000 IU/week	121 (20)	56 (19)	65 (21)
28,000 IU/week prenatal & postpartum	118 (20)	62 (21)	56 (19)

#### **Household characteristics**

Asset index quintiles, n (%) $^{e}$ 

1 (lowest)	113 (19)	57 (19)	56 (19)
2	118 (20)	64 (22)	54 (18)
3	119 (20)	50 (17)	69 (23)
4	131 (22)	61 (21)	70 (23)
5 (highest)	116 (19)	64 (22)	52 (17)
Household smoking, $n$ (%) <sup>f</sup>	214 (36)	107 (36)	107 (35)
Treatment of drinking water, $n$ (%)	265 (44)	132 (45)	133 (44)
Presence of soap at handwashing station, n (%) <sup>g</sup>	499 (83)	249 (84)	250 (83)

aBMD, areal bone mineral density; BMC, bone mineral content; EBF, exclusive breastfeeding; HAZ, height-for-age z-score; LAZ, length-for-age z-score; WAZ, weight-for-age z-score; TBLH, total body less head.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm a}$  N=427 for the entire cohort, N=203 for boys, and N=224 for girls.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> N=423 for the entire cohort, N=200 for boys, and N=223 for girls.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> The maximum duration of EBF was an artifact of the study design which truncated this data up to the first 26 weeks of life.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Presence of at least one diarrheal episode in the first 6 months of life (yes vs. no).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> N=597 for the entire cohort and N=301 for girls. Asset index quintile variable derived using principal component analysis as measure of indicators of socioeconomic status based on ownership of claimed household items.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>f</sup> N=597 for the entire cohort and N=294 for boys.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>g</sup> N=598 for the entire cohort and N=295 for boys.

**Table 2.** Associations between infant length growth from birth to 2 years of age and bone mineral content, bone mineral density and bone area at 4 years of age.

	Base model Multivariable		Multivariable model <sup>a</sup>	model <sup>a</sup> Adjusted for concurrent HAZ		ent HAZ <sup>b</sup>	$egin{array}{ll} egin{array}{ll} egi$	
	Difference in bone		Difference in bone	<del>)</del>	Difference in bone		Difference in bone	
	outcome	P	outcome	P	outcome	P	outcome	P
	(95% CI) <sup>d</sup>		(95% CI) <sup>d</sup>		(95% CI) <sup>d</sup>		(95% CI) <sup>d</sup>	
TBLH BMC (g)								
cLAZ (6 months)	29.5 (25.5, 33.5)	< 0.001	29.4 (25.7, 33.1)	< 0.001	2.3 (-1.3, 5.8)	0.22	-0.4 (-4.9, 4.1)	0.87
cLAZ (12 months)	36.4 (30.8, 42.0)	< 0.001	36.5 (31.4, 41.6)	< 0.001	7.7 (3.1, 12.2)	0.001	4.7 (-0.7, 10.1)	0.09
cLAZ (24 months)	46.3 (40.0, 52.6)	< 0.001	43.0 (37.2, 48.8)	< 0.001	8.8 (3.4, 14.1)	0.001	3.8 (-2.5, 10.1)	0.24
HAZ at 4 years	_	-	_	-	40.0 (36.9, 43.2)	< 0.001	44.1 (39.2, 49.0)	< 0.001
TBLH aBMD (g/cm	<sup>2</sup> )							
cLAZ (6 months)	0.017 (0.014, 0.021)	< 0.001	0.017 (0.013, 0.021)	< 0.001	0.002 (-0.002, 0.007)	0.27	-0.002 (-0.007, 0.004)	0.51
cLAZ (12 months)	0.024 (0.019, 0.029)	< 0.001	0.023 (0.018, 0.029)	< 0.001	0.008 (0.003, 0.014)	0.003	0.003 (-0.003, 0.010)	0.31
cLAZ (24 months)	0.032 (0.026, 0.038)	< 0.001	0.030 (0.024, 0.036)	< 0.001	0.011 (0.005, 0.018)	< 0.001	0.005 (-0.003, 0.013)	0.19
HAZ at 4 years	_	-	_	-	0.022 (0.018, 0.026)	< 0.001	0.028 (0.022, 0.034)	< 0.001
TBLH Bone Area (c	m <sup>2</sup> )							
cLAZ (6 months)	42.0 (36.8, 47.2)	< 0.001	42.3 (37.9, 46.8)	< 0.001	2.4 (-1.5, 6.3)	0.23	2.3 (-2.6, 7.3)	0.36
cLAZ (12 months)	46.8 (39.5, 54.1)	< 0.001	48.1 (42.0, 54.2)	< 0.001	5.1 (0.1, 10.1)	0.04	5.3 (-0.6, 11.3)	0.08

cLAZ (24 months)	57.6 (49.3, 65.8)	< 0.001	53.9 (46.9, 61.0)	< 0.001	3.1 (-2.8, 9.1)	0.30	1.2 (-5.9, 8.3)	0.74
HAZ at 4 years	_	-	_	-	58.1 (54.6, 61.6)	< 0.001	59.3 (53.9, 64.7)	< 0.001

N=599 for all models. aBMD, areal bone mineral density; BMC, bone mineral content; cLAZ, conditional length-for-age z-score; HAZ, height-for-age z-score; TBLH, total body less head.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Models adjusted for asset index quintile, presence of hand soap at handwashing station, household smoking, LAZ within 45 days of birth, WAZ within 45 days of birth, maternal age (years), maternal height (cm), mid-gestation maternal hemoglobin concentrations (g/L), gestational age at birth (weeks), maternal education category, vitamin D intervention group assigned at enrolment to the MDIG trial, treatment of drinking water, child sex, exclusive breastfeeding duration (weeks), and presence of diarrheal episodes in the first 6 months of life.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Models adjusted for HAZ at 4 years of age.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Models adjusted for covariates in multivariable model and HAZ at 4 years of age.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Effect estimate represents the difference in bone outcome per 1 unit increase in cLAZ or HAZ.

**Table 3.** Associations between infant weight gain from birth to 2 years of age and bone mineral content, bone mineral density and bone area at 4 years of age.

	Base model		Multivariable model <sup>a</sup>		Multivariable model concurrent HAZ <sup>b</sup>	including	Multivariable mod concurrent HAZ & W	
	Difference in bone		Difference in bone		Difference in bone		Difference in bone	
	outcome (95% CI) <sup>d</sup>	P	outcome (95% CI) <sup>d</sup>	P	outcome (95% CI) <sup>d</sup>	P	outcome (95% CI) <sup>d</sup>	P
TBLH BMC (g)								
cWAZ (6 months)	12.1 (6.3, 17.9)	< 0.001	13.2 (8.1, 18.3)	< 0.001	6.7 (3.8, 9.5)	< 0.001	0.4 (-2.5, 3.3)	0.80
cWAZ (12 months)	8.9 (0.4, 17.3)	0.04	11.6 (4.2, 19.0)	0.002	5.1 (1.1, 9.1)	0.01	-1.8 (-5.8, 2.2)	0.38
cWAZ (24 months)	28.3 (19.7, 36.9)	< 0.001	29.3 (21.8, 36.9)	< 0.001	18.2 (14.0, 22.3)	< 0.001	7.6 (3.2, 12.0)	0.001
HAZ at 4 years	_	_	-	_	43.1 (40.8, 45.5)	< 0.001	27.2 (23.3, 31.0)	< 0.001
WAZ at 4 years	_	-	-	_	_		19.8 (15.8, 23.8)	<0.001
TBLH aBMD (g/cm <sup>2</sup>	<i>E</i> )							
cWAZ (6 months)	0.010 (0.006, 0.015)	< 0.001	0.010 (0.006, 0.015)	< 0.001	0.007 (0.003, 0.010)	< 0.001	0.001 (-0.002, 0.005)	0.46
cWAZ (12 months)	0.008 (0.002, 0.015)	0.02	0.009 (0.002, 0.015)	0.006	0.005 (-0.0002, 0.010)	0.06	-0.001 (-0.006, 0.004)	0.76
eWAZ (24 months)	0.024 (0.017, 0.031)	< 0.001	0.024 (0.017, 0.030)	< 0.001	0.017 (0.012, 0.022)	< 0.001	0.008 (0.003, 0.014)	0.004
HAZ at 4 years	_	_	-	_	0.026 (0.023, 0.029)	< 0.001	0.013 (0.008, 0.018)	< 0.001
WAZ at 4 years	_	_	_	_	_	_	0.016 (0.011, 0.021)	< 0.001

cWAZ (6 months)	12.8 (5.0, 20.6)	0.001	15.0 (8.3, 21.6)	< 0.001	5.9 (2.7, 9.2)	< 0.001	-0.2 (-3.7, 3.2)	0.89
cWAZ (12 months)	7.2 (-4.3, 18.6)	0.22	12.3 (2.4, 22.2)	0.02	3.3 (-1.4, 8.0)	0.17	-3.5 (-8.2, 1.3)	0.15
cWAZ (24 months)	26.9 (15.2, 38.5)	< 0.001	29.1 (19.1, 39.1)	< 0.001	13.6 (8.6, 18.6)	< 0.001	3.2 (-2.2, 8.6)	0.24
HAZ at 4 years	_	_	_	_	59.7 (57.0, 62.5)	< 0.001	44.1 (39.4, 48.8)	< 0.001
WAZ at 4 years	=	=	-	=	_	-	19.4 (14.6, 24.2)	< 0.001

N=599 for all models. aBMD, areal bone mineral density; BMC, bone mineral content; cWAZ, conditional weight-for-age z-score; HAZ, height-for-age z-score; TBLH, total body less head; WAZ, weight-for-age z-score.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Models adjusted for asset index quintile, presence of hand soap at handwashing station, household smoking, LAZ within 45 days of birth, WAZ within 45 days of birth, maternal age (years), maternal height (cm), mid-gestation maternal hemoglobin concentrations (g/L), gestational age at birth (weeks), maternal education category, vitamin D intervention group assigned at enrolment to the MDIG trial, treatment of drinking water, child sex, exclusive breastfeeding duration (weeks), and presence of diarrheal episodes in the first 6 months of life.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Models adjusted for covariates in multivariable model and HAZ at 4 years of age.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Models adjusted for covariates in multivariable model and HAZ at 4 years of age and WAZ at 4 years of age.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Effect estimate represents the difference in bone outcome per 1 unit increase in cWAZ, HAZ or WAZ.

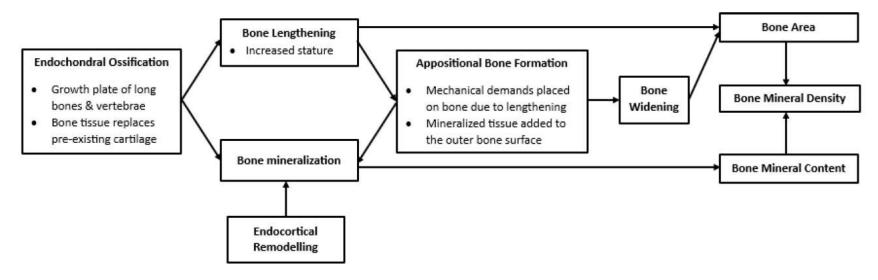
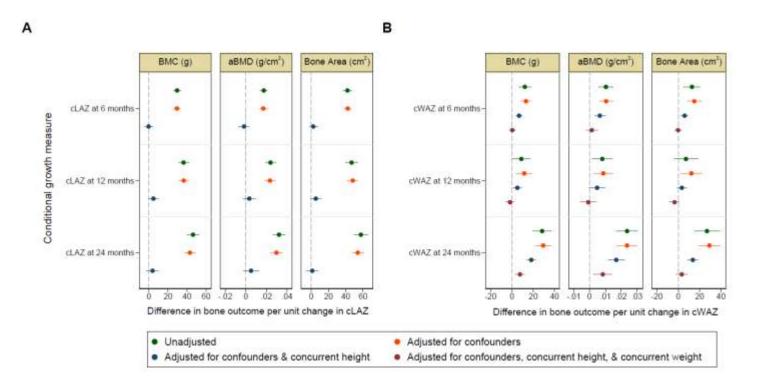


Figure 1: Hypothesized mechanisms by which concurrent HAZ at 4 years and bone parameters at 4 years are coupled.

Endochondral ossification promotes bone lengthening and bone mineralization, The associations of weight gain during the 12–24-month period and increased bone mass (bone mineral content and density), but not bone area, are likely explained by appositional bone formation or endocortical remodeling, rather than endochondral ossification which couples bone lengthening and bone mineralization.



**Figure 2:** Associations of interval-specific conditional length gain (panel A) and weight gain (panel B) up to 2 years of age and bone outcomes at 4 years of age.

Circles are point estimates and horizontal lines represent the 95% confidence intervals. Unadjusted base models are represented in green. Multivariable models in orange were adjusted for confounders including: asset index quintiles, presence of hand soap at handwashing station, household smoking, LAZ within 45 days of birth, WAZ within 45 days of birth, maternal age (years), maternal height (cm), mid-gestation maternal hemoglobin concentrations (g/L), gestational age at birth (weeks), maternal education category, vitamin D intervention group assigned at enrolment to the MDIG trial, treatment of drinking water, child sex, exclusive breastfeeding duration (weeks), and presence of diarrheal episodes in the first 6 months of life. Multivariable models adjusted for the aforementioned confounders and concurrent HAZ at 4 years of age are in blue. Multivariable models adjusted for the same confounders and concurrent HAZ at 4 years of age-are in purple. Multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE) was used to impute missing data for explanatory variables. HAZ; height-for-age z-score; LAZ, length-for-age z-score; WAZ, weight-for-age z-score.