Weight velocity in addition to latest weight does not improve the identification of wasting, or the prediction of stunting and mortality: a longitudinal analysis using data from Malawi, South Africa, and Pakistan

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| 1 | We | eight velocity in addition to latest weight does not improve the identification of |
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| 3 | | from Malawi, South Africa, and Pakistan. |
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24 063009/Z/00/2. Lahore longitudinal study: SAREC (Swedish Agency for Research
 25 Cooperation with Developing Countries) and King Edward Medical College, Lahore,

- 26 Pakistan
- 27 Abbreviations: AW (attained weight), AUC: area under curve, LAZ (length for age z-
- 28 score), LMIC (low and middle income countries), MAM (moderate acute maltnurition),
- 29 SAM (severe acute malnutrition), WAZ (weight for age z-score), WFH (weight-for-height),
- 30 WV (weight velocity), WVZ2 (weight velocity z-score over 2 months) WVZ6 (weight
- 31 velocity z-score over 6 months).

32 Abstract

Background: In low/middle-income countries, most nutritional assessments use the latest
weights, without reference to growth trajectory.

Objective: This study explores whether velocity, in addition to the latest weight, improves
the prediction of wasting, stunting or mortality in the first two years of life.

37 **Methods**: We analysed a combined data set with weight and height data collected monthly

in the first year of 3447 children from Pakistan, Malawi, South Africa, with height and

39 survival recorded till 24 months. The main exposures were weight-for-age z-score (WAZ)

40 at the end of each 2-month period and weight velocity-for-age z-score (WVZ₂) across that

41 period. The outcomes were wasting, stunting or all-cause mortality in the next 1-2 months.

42 As a sensitivity analysis, we also used WVZ over 6 months (WVZ₆), with matching WAZ.

43 Cox proportional hazard models with repeated growth measures were used to study the

44 association between exposures and mortality. Mixed Poisson models were used for stunting

45 and wasting.

46 **Results**: Children who were already stunted or wasted were most likely to remain so.

47 WVZ₂ was associated with a lower risk of subsequent stunting (RR 0.95; 95% CI 0.93-

48 0.96), but added minimal prediction (difference in AUC = 0.004) compared to a model

49 including only WAZ. Similarly, WVZ₂ was associated with wasting (RR 0.74; 95% CI

50 0.72-0.76) but the prediction was only marginally greater than for WAZ (difference in

51 AUC = 0.015). Compared to WAZ, WVZ_6 was less predictive for both wasting and

52 stunting. Low WVZ₆ (but not WVZ₂) was associated with increased mortality (HR 0.75,

- 53 95% CI 0.67-0.85), but added marginal only prediction to a model including WAZ alone
- 54 (difference in C = 0.015).
- 55 **Conclusions**: The key anthropometric determinant of impending wasting, stunting, and
- 56 mortality appears to be how far below the normal range the child's weight is, rather than
- 57 how they reached that position.
- 58
- 59 Keywords: Children; Mortality; Growth Disorders; Stunting; Weight.
- 60

61 Introduction

62 Child undernutrition remains a major global health concern (1). World Health Organisation 63 (WHO) definitions of malnutrition rely on single measures of weight and length/height and, 64 more recently, mid upper arm circumference, as well as the combination of weight and length/height to give weight for height (WFH). The most common measure is that of 65 66 weight, usually adjusted for age via a lookup table, plotting on a chart or converting to a 67 standard deviation (Z) score. A weight for age Z score (WAZ) <-2 is defined as moderate 68 malnutrition and <-3 as severe, while a length for age Z score (LAZ) <-2 is defined as 69 stunting (2). Regularly weighing aims to identify children who have lost or gained weight 70 more slowly than their peers and are malnourished, so a measure that determines children 71 with low weight velocity (WV) might be expected to be more discriminating than attained weight (AW) alone. In high-income countries, this has led to the concept of failure to thrive 72 73 (FTT) or weight faltering, where the diagnosis depends on low WV based on two or more 74 weights, at least while a child is within the normal range (3).

75 In contrast, in low- and middle-income countries (LMIC), decisions tend to be based only 76 on the current weight, as interpretation of serial measurements requires more detailed 77 record-keeping and WHO definitions of malnutrition include no velocity elements (4). 78 However, the WHO growth chart project has published age and sex-standardised norms for 79 weight velocity over 4- and 8-week intervals (5) and they have argued that velocity 80 measures are helpful in predicting later stunting (6). As severe malnutrition (SAM) 81 becomes less common (7), the accurate diagnosis of moderate malnutrition (MAM) 82 becomes more important, to target treatment to children who are most likely to benefit. 83 Using only a low AW will also identify children who were born small but have grown

| 84 | steadily since birth and supplementary feeding could even harm these children (8). Thus, a |
|------|--|
| 85 | secondary screening measure of velocity could potentially be used to improve the |
| 86 | specificity of diagnoses. |
| | |
| 87 | Few studies have examined whether velocity improves the prediction of adverse growth |
| 88 | outcomes, compared to using a single weight (7, 8). Only one has considered outcomes |
| 89 | beyond the age of 6 months or used increments greater than one month (9). Thus, it is |
| 90 | unclear whether velocity adds value in addition to the latest weight alone, and if so, when, |
| 91 | and over what time interval weight velocity might usefully be measured. |
| | |
| 92 | We thus aimed to use a large combined historical data set of longitudinal growth data, with |
| 93 | a high prevalence of malnutrition, to examine the value of WV, in addition to AW, in |
| 94 | identifying the onset of wasting and predicting stunting or mortality at different ages, and |
| 95 | over differing time intervals. |
| 96 | Methods |
| | |
| 97 | This prospective study used data from three cohort studies conducted in low or middle |
| 98 | income countries, all with monthly measurements collected for at least the first 12 months |
| 99 | and outcome of interest up to 24 months. These were the Lungwena Child Survival Study |
| 100 | (Malawi), the Africa Centre Vertical Transmission Study (South Africa), and the Lahore |
| 101 | longitudinal study (Pakistan). Each study is briefly described below. |
| 102 | |
| 1117 | |

102 Included cohort studies

103 The Lungwena Child Survival Study was a cohort study of 795 women recruited between

104 1995 and 1996 and their newborn children prospectively studied (10, 11). Children were

| 105 | measured monthly to 18 months, then every three months up to 36 months. Children were |
|-----|---|
| 106 | measured at home by a research assistant using portable spring scales and length boards |
| 107 | (12). |

108 The Africa Centre Vertical Transmission Study study registered 2938 children (half HIV-

109 positive) from seven rural, one semi-urban, and one urban primary health care clinic in

110 KwaZulu-Natal, in a nonrandomised intervention cohort study between 2001 and 2005 (13,

111 14). Weight and lengths were collected by research staff, using the WHO-recommended

112 protocol, monthly until 12 months, then every three months to 24 months (12).

113 The Lahore longitudinal study enrolled infants born between 1984 and 1994, with 1314

from a village area, 572 from a peri-urban slum, 921 from an urban slum, and 339 from a

middle-class neighbourhood, and followed them monthly from birth up to 36 months (15,

116 16). All infants were weighed and measured at home by specially trained research

assistants, with the measuring technique checked monthly and instruments checked weekly(12, 17)

118 (12, 17).

119 In the three studies, all deaths were recorded, but their causes were not recorded

120 consistently between datasets. Sociodemographic information (age, sex, and country of

- 121 origin) was self-reported. Moreover, HIV-positive mothers and subsequent HIV-positive
- 122 children were excluded from the analyses.

123 Statistical analyses

124 The three datasets were combined into one database (excluding all HIV-positive mothers)
125 and measurements were expressed as Z scores compared to the WHO growth standard (18).

| 126 | Stunting was defined as length for age (LAZ) <-2SD and wasting as weight for length |
|-----|---|
| 127 | (WLZ) <-2. The analysis was then conducted per measurement rather than per child. For |
| 128 | each attained weight, the exposures of interest was the Z score for that weight (WAZ) and |
| 129 | the velocity for age (WVZ) across the period up to that attained weight, calculated using the |
| 130 | WHO velocity standards(5) for both 2 and 6 month intervals. The outcome was whether or |
| 131 | not the child was stunted or wasted at the next monthly measurement, or whether they had |
| 132 | died. Attained WLZ and LAZ were treated as secondary or additional exposures. |
| 133 | Prediction models were constructed using weight velocity and the attained growth |
| 134 | parameters at the end of the weight velocity period, to predict the next observation of |
| 135 | wasting, stunting, or mortality. Since each growth measurement was used to predict the |
| 136 | subsequent period's wasting and stunting risk, mixed Poisson models with repeated growth |
| 137 | measures were used to study the associations. All observations were included in the model |
| 138 | to maximise power while intra-personal correlations were captured as a random intercept. |
| 139 | Results are reported as risk ratios (RR) with their respective 95% CI. Model predictive |
| 140 | performance was assessed with the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve |
| 141 | (AUC). The main analyses were adjusted for age at assessment, sex, and country of origin. |
| 142 | In addition, analyses were stratified for incident and recurrent wasting/wasting for the |
| 143 | predictors that had the highest AUC. |
| 144 | Cox proportional hazard models with repeated growth measures were used to study the |
| 145 | association between exposures and mortality rate. The outcome variable was time to event |
| 146 | (either death or censoring). The basic analyses were adjusted for age at assessment, sex, |
| 147 | and country of origin (model 1). Additional models included the mutual adjustment among |

148 the growth parameters. Analyses are reported as hazard ratios (HR) with 95% confidence

| 149 | intervals (CI) | . In the mortality | analysis, the | predictive ability | y was quantified | using Harrell's |
|-----|---------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | | | | | <u> </u> |

- 150 C-index which estimates the probability of concordance between observed and predicted
- 151 responses (19).
- 152 Finally, sensitivity analyses were used to investigate whether the associations observed
- 153 differed by age (\leq and > 6 months). The interaction between binary age group (\leq vs. > 6
- 154 months) and weight variables were included in the corresponding regression models and
- 155 can be interpreted as the ratio of RR (for wasting and stunting) and ratio of HR (for
- 156 mortality). A ratio > 1 indicates that the association of the weight variable with the outcome
- 157 is stronger in the older (> 6 months) group.
- 158 R 4.0.5 software was used to perform all analyses. A p-value ≤ 0.05 was considered
- 159 statistically significant.

160 **Results**

161 The baseline characteristics of the included data are shown in Table 1. Of the 3447 children 162 with any pairs of growth data, 98 children died, and in a third of these this followed a 163 weight <-2SD. Of the included weights, the majority (78%) were within normal range, but 164 20% were <-2 (underweight) and only 1% were >2. Using the first measurements available 165 near to birth, 11.8% of children were < -2 WAZ and 14.4% < -2 LAZ. The majority of 166 underweight measures came from the Pakistan peri-urban & village cohorts. On average 167 children were already below expected length by age 1 month and dropped to an average 168 2SD below the mean by the second year of life, 14% were already < -2 LAZ (Figure 1). 169 Their weight showed a similar but less extreme pattern. Weight for length rose in the first 170 few weeks and remained close to expected levels for the first 6 months, then dropped 171 slightly below thereafter.

The associations of WAZ and WVZ with subsequent wasting and stunting were shown in Table 2. For both wasting and stunting, after adjustment for age, sex, country of origin and already being wasted or stunted, respectively, WVZ2 was a stronger predictor than WVZ6, but both were lower than for WAZ alone. The model including WVZ2 as well as WAZ had marginally higher prediction performance for subsequent wasting (AUC gain 1.5%) than the model with only WAZ, but for predicting stunting: the model including WAZ and WVZ2 the AUC was almost unchanged (AUC gain 0.4%).

The associations for those who were not wasted or stunted at the time of the attained WAZ
(incident cases) and for children who were already stunted or wasted are shown in Table 3.
This revealed that, although both WAZ and WVZ2 were more predictive of incident cases

| 182 | than persistence in prevalent cases, WVZ essentially added no extra prediction of incident |
|-----|--|
| 183 | cases. It did, however, increase the prediction of recovery from wasting (change in AUC |
| 184 | 9.8%) but only marginally from stunting (change in AUC 1.4%). |
| 185 | Associations of growth parameters with mortality are shown in Table 4. Adjusted just for |
| 186 | age, sex, and country of origin (Model 1), WAZ, WLZ, and WVZ (6-month interval) were |
| 187 | separately associated with lower mortality risk, while WVZ (2-month interval) and LAZ |
| 188 | were not significantly associated with mortality. Among combinations of the 3 significant |
| 189 | predictors, the combination of WAZ and WVZ (6-month interval) yielded the strongest |
| 190 | prediction (C-index 0.8842), slightly greater than using WAZ (C-index 0.8647) or WVZ-6 |
| 191 | alone (0.8718) but the overall gain was still only 2%. |
| 192 | Supplementary Tables 1-3 show the analysis of potential interaction with age group. On |

193 predicting wasting, in the combined model, WAZ showed a 12% increased association

194 (Ratio of RR = 0.88; 95% CI 0.81-0.95) in older children, while WVZ-2 was 6% greater

195 (Ratio of RR = 1.06; 95% CI 1.01-1.12). There was no evidence for age interactions for

196 predicting stunting and mortality.

197 **Discussion**

This study used data from three cohort studies to describe the extent to which recent changes in weight (velocity) added to the accuracy of prediction of later wasting, stunting and mortality, compared to a single weight alone. Surprisingly, combining weight velocity with attained weight added little or no additional predictive value, except in predicting whether already wasted children would recover.

| 203 | This finding is in keeping with the limited number of other papers that have directly |
|-----|--|
| 204 | compared velocity with single measures, mostly in relation to mortality. Two early studies |
| 205 | found that attained weight and height for age performed better than weight or height |
| 206 | velocity as discriminators of mortality (20, 21), while a more recent paper found little |
| 207 | difference between various single measures and velocity (22). One group has found |
| 208 | velocity to be a stronger predictor of mortality in one data set (23), but in a second set they |
| 209 | found no increased prediction when adding velocity (24). In another study, the same group |
| 210 | also considered predicting wasting and stunting and found that velocity increased |
| 211 | prediction up to age 2 months (24), but not at later ages (9). |
| 212 | There are many possible reasons why velocity may not be a useful discriminator. Velocity |
| 213 | is vulnerable to error as it requires two measurements, both with a degree of measurement |
| 214 | error (e.g. instrument imprecision and differences in procedures) plus the variability of |
| 215 | weight over short intervals due to ingestion and elimination (25). Although these data were |
| 216 | collected as part of research studies, they were largely collected in real life situations where |
| 217 | one could speculate that at one visit a young child might have just eaten and drunk largely, |
| 218 | while at the next they might have fasted or just emptied their bowels or bladder. These |
| 219 | combined are thus inevitably less accurate than a single weight measurement. Thus, a child |
| 220 | could show a large meaningless variation ('noise'), from one time to the next that has no |
| 221 | long-term significance, but has the potential to drown out true meaningful variation - |
| 222 | the'signal' (25). |
| | |

It must also be born in mind that weight velocity is calculated between two measurements, and in utero growth could not be measured. If the decline in growth occurred in utero, the size at birth may be low, but there will be no observable decline in velocity. As a group,

226 these children had a high prevalence of stunting, illustrated by the fact that the mean LAZ 227 in the 2nd year was close to -2 (i.e. 2 SD below mean). It has been well shown that a high 228 proportion of stunting has already occurred very early in the first year (26). Other studies 229 have shown that in uncompromised environments most children with slow intrauterine 230 growth will show rapid catchup in the first 4 months (27), but in suboptimal circumstances 231 recovery from stunting is rare (26). Thus most of these children remain at a similar centile, 232 rather than a showing a detectable decline. This may also apply to the onset of wasting; a 233 previous study in young infants that compared attained weight to velocity and skinfolds as 234 a measure of low fat stores, found that a low weight was highly specific for both low 235 velocity and low fat, but that only 40% of those with low fat had shown slow weight gain 236 (28), suggesting that they had started life with low fat stores and failed to acquire fat, rather 237 than faltering.

238 Finally, it should be recognised that velocity may vary rapidly over time, resulting in 239 varying measurements dependent on when the measurement was taken and the duration 240 where velocity is calculated. A recent study collected daily weights in a group of Gambian 241 infants used a spline curve to "smooth out minor day-to-day fluctuations" and found that 242 short episodes of weight loss were common (mean 18 days), but these were followed by a 243 similar period (mean 17 days) of catchup (29). Depending on the times when weights were 244 collected, the same child might thus be labelled as having very low or very high velocity 245 (Figure 2). Over a longer period, the net effect may have been slower than expected weight 246 gain, but it had two sources of errors (25). This deviation can equally be detected in most 247 children simply using weight for age, as this describes how much the weight deviates from the average for that age, with only one error. So weight for age will always tend to be more 248

accurate than the net velocity in initially average children, who will always be in amajority.

251 Strengths and limitations

252 This study was able to combine data from three cohorts with comparable measurements, 253 which enabled us to answer the research question with more events than analysing each 254 cohort separately. Nonetheless, this study is not without limitations. Firstly, as a group, 255 these children had very high rates of stunting, but our earlier description of this cohort 256 showed that while incident wasting was higher than expected, it was much less common. 257 (12). So in this setting, variations in WAZ may be more likely to reflect slowing of growth 258 rather than short-term weight loss. Data collection was carried out more than 20 years ago 259 when mortality and severe acute malnutrition were generally more common in the area. 260 Thus, these findings may not be representative of modern populations. We have not 261 considered the potentially modifying role of diet, in particular duration of breast feeding 262 and age of first solids, environmental conditions or socioeconomic conditions, as these 263 were not consistently collected between data sets. Similarly, we have not considered the 264 role of birth length and weight in the analysis, as this study focus on the prediction value of 265 weight velocity in practice, where birth length and weight is often not available.

266 Implications

The usual practice, which concentrates on the current weight, turns out to be the better than the proposed alternatives, as well as the easiest means of detecting wasting or predicting future adverse events. It is arguably reassuring that this analysis found no justification for incorporating weight velocity measures in routine screening programmes, which already

struggle to find time to process even single weights and heights. Incorporating the change from an earlier weight adds considerable complexity in practice. This would require the earlier weight to be accessed and the change interpreted, although recent developments in digital support for growth monitoring have the potential to make the interpretation easier (30).

The one possible exception for this is in the assessment of children with MAM or SAM (as indicated by wasting in this study), where the recent growth pattern substantially improved the prediction of persistence or recovery. This may lend support to the practice in many nutrition clinics of monitoring weight gain over time, not just attained weight, although this is not recommended by WHO (4).

In conclusion, although theoretically useful in detecting and predicting low growth and mortality, velocity measures add little or no predictive power, probably due to their increased imprecision compared to a single recent weight and the challenge of measuring them over the relevant time interval. The key anthropometric determinant of impending wasting, stunting, and mortality appears to be how far below the normal range the child's weight is, rather than how they reached that position.

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- 288 CMW, FPR, FKH designed the study and jointly-wrote the first draft. FPR and FKH
- analysed the data. RB, PA, SZ interpreted the data and critically revised the manuscript.
- 290 CMW, FPR, RB, PA, SZ, and FKH have read and approved the final version of the
- 291 manuscript.

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Table 1. Baseline characteristics per attained weight WAZ categories

| | Baseline WAZ categories | | | |
|--|-------------------------|---------------|------------|--|
| | <-2 | -2 to 2 | >2 | |
| Total number of measurements, n (%) | 4,167 (20.4) | 15,953 (78.3) | 265 (1.3) | |
| Number (%) in each WAZ category by cohort: | | | | |
| Malawi | 842 (20.2) | 2,734 (17.1) | 4 (1.5) | |
| South African and Pakistan middle class | 154 (3.7) | 3,968 (24.9) | 201 (75.9) | |
| Pakistan peri-urban & village | 2,303 (55.3) | 4,595 (28.8) | 0 | |
| Pakistan urban slum | 868 (20.8) | 4,656 (29.2) | 60 (22.6) | |
| 7 | | | | |

n: number; WAZ: weight-for-age z-score

- 378 Table 2. Associations of attained weight and weight velocity in one period, with wasting
- and stunting in the next period.

| Predicting wasting in next period | RR (95% CI) | AUC | Change i | n AUC |
|---|--|---------------------|----------|-------|
| Model 1 Wasting in this period | 9.91 (8.3; 12.8) | 0.872 (0.861-0.884) | REF | |
| Model 2 Wasting in this period WAZ | 3.84 (3.1; 4.7) 0.66 (0.6; 0.7) | 0.916 (0.908-0.924) | 4.5% | REF |
| Model 3 Wasting in this period WVZ ₂ | 11.8 (10.5; 13.2) 0.76 (0.74; 0.79) | 0.888 (0.878-0.899) | 1.7% | |
| Model 4 Wasting in this period WVZ ₆ | 11.8 (10.5; 13.2) 0.83 (0.81; 0.86) | 0.869 (0.858-0.880) | -0.3% | |
| Model 5 Wasting in this period WAZ WVZ ₂ | 4.06 (3.4; 4.9) 0.62 (0.58; 0.66) 0.74 (0.72; 0.76) | 0.931 (0.927-0.941) | 6.0% | 1.5% |
| Predicting stunting in next period | | | | |
| Model 1 Stunting in this period | 6.61 (6.2; 7.0) | 0.910 (0.905-0.915) | REF | |
| Model 2 Stunting in this period WAZ | 5.30 (4.9; 5.7) 0.86 (0.85; 0.88) | 0.929 (0.925-0.934) | 2.0% | REF |
| Model 3 Stunting in this period WVZ ₂ | 6.62 (6.2; 7.1) 0.96 (0.95; 0.97) | 0.913 (0.909-0.918) | 0.3% | |
| Model 4 Stunting in this period WVZ ₆ | 6.63 (6.2; 7.1) 0.96 (0.95; 0.98) | 0.912 (0.907-0.917) | 0.2% | |
| Model 5 Stunting in this period WAZ WVZ ₂ | 5.22 (4.99; 5.6) 0.85 (0.84; 0.87) 0.95 (0.93; 0.96) | 0.933 (0.929-0.937) | 2.3% | 0.4% |

Data presented as risk ratios (RR) and their 95% CI using linear mixed-effect models. All models were adjusted for age, sex and country of origin and and then mutually adjusted for all variables listed. WAZ: weight-for-age z-score; WVZ₂: Weight velocity z-score 2-month interval. WVZ₆: Weight velocity z-score 6-month interval. All Relative risks were P<0.001 384 Table 3. Associations of attained weight and weight velocity with subsequent wasting and stunting in incident and prevelant existing

385 cases

| | Risk of incident wasting in non-wasted childen | | | Risk of continued wasting in already wasted childen | | |
|------------------------------------|--|---------|---------------------|---|---------|---------------------|
| | RR (95% CI) | p-value | AUC | RR (95% CI) | p- | AUC |
| | | | | 6 | value | |
| Predicting wasting | | | | | | |
| Model with WAZ only | 0.49 (0.45-0.53) | < 0.001 | 0.912 (0.902-0.922) | 0.84 (0.80-0.88) | < 0.001 | 0.707 (0.683-0.733) |
| Model WVZ2 only | 0.70 (0.70-0.70) | < 0.001 | 0.916 (0.604-0.928) | 0.83 (0.79-0.86) | < 0.001 | 0.743 (0.718-0.769) |
| Model with both | | | 0.914 (0.902-0.925) | | | 0.805 (0.783-0.828) |
| WAZ | 0.46 (0.42-0.50) | < 0.001 | | 0.83 (0.79-0.87) | < 0.001 | |
| WVZ2 | 0.67 (0.64-0.70) | < 0.001 | | 0.82 (0.79-0.86) | < 0.001 | |
| Gain in AUC by adding WVZ to model | | | 0.2% | | | 9.8% |
| Risk of incident stunting | | | non stunted childen | Risk of continued stunting in already stunted childen | | |
| Model with WAZ only | 0.52 (0.49-0.55) | < 0.001 | 0.837 (0.826-0.848) | 0.94 (0.92-0.96) | < 0.001 | 0.761 (0.742-0.780) |
| Model WVZ2 only | 0.89 (0.86-0.91) | < 0.001 | 0.832 (0.820-0.844) | 0.99 (0.97-1.00) | < 0.001 | 0.678 (0.656-0.701) |
| Model with both | | | 0.831 (0.825-0.847) | | | 0.775 (0.757-0.793) |
| WAZ | 0.49 (0.46-0.52) | < 0.001 | | 0.93 (0.91-0.96) | < 0.001 | |
| WVZ2 | 0.84 (0.81-0.52) | < 0.001 | | 0.98 (0.97-1.00) | 0.02 | |
| Gain in AUC by adding WVZ to model | | | -0.1% | | | 1.4% |
| | | | | | | |

386

387 Data presented as risk ratios (RR) and their 95% CI using linear mixed-effect models. The created groups were: people who had

388 wasting/stunting at baseline (yes/no) vs those who developed later (yes/no). The main analyses were adjusted for age, sex, country of

389 origin and wasting/stunting status in the last period. WAZ: weight-for-age z-score; WVZ: Weight velocity z-score.

| 390 | Table 4. Associations of attained height | pht. weight and | weight velocity | with mortality |
|-----|--|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| | | | | |

| | HR (95% CI) | p-value | C-index (95% CI) | Change in C |
|-----------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------------|----------------|
| | | | | index |
| Each variable added singly | | | | |
| WAZ = Model 1 | 0.84 (0.73-0.98) | 0.023 | 0.8647 (0.8263-0.9032) | REF |
| WLZ | 0.83 (0.72-0.97) | 0.02 | 0.8626 (0.8234-0.9018) | -0.2% |
| LAZ | 0.91 (0.77-1.08) | 0.30 | 0.8592 (0.8203-0.8980) | -0.6% |
| WVZ (2-month interval) | 0.93 (0.80-1.06) | 0.30 | 0.8606 (0.8226-0.8985) | -0.4% |
| WVZ (6-month interval) | 0.78 (0.69-0.88) | < 0.001 | 0.8718 (0.8325-0.9110) | 0.7% |
| Model 2 (mutually adjusted) | | .0; | 0.8842 (0.8479-0.9205) | 2.0% |
| WAZ | 0.83 (0.72-0.96) | < 0.001 | | |
| WVZ (6-month interval) | 0.78 (0.69-0.88) | < 0.001 | | |
| Model 3 (mutually adjusted) | | | 0.8794 (0.8426-0.9162) | 1.5% |
| WLZ | 0.77 (0.66-0.89) | < 0.001 | | |
| WVZ (6-month interval) | 0.75 (0.67-0.85) | < 0.001 | | |
| Model 4 (mutually adjusted) | | | 0.8655 (0.8270-0.9041) | 0.1% |
| WAZ | 0.92 (0.74-1.13) | 0.40 | | |
| WLZ | 0.89 (0.72-1.10) | < 0.001 | | |
| Model 5 (mutually adjusted) | 9 | | 0.8801 (0.8435-0.9167) | 1.5% |
| WAZ | 0.98 (0.80-1.21) | 0.90 | | |
| WLZ | 0.78 (0.63-0.96) | 0.02 | | |
| WVZ (6-month interval) | 0.75 (0.67-0.85) | < 0.001 | | |

391

392 Data presented as hazard ratios (HR) with their respective 95% CI using Cox proportional models. All analyses were adjusted for age,

393 sex, and country of origin. Total measurements: 20,385 and deaths: 98. The c-index is an indicator of risk prediction which estimates

394 the probability of concordance between observed and predicted responses. Values close to 0.5 are equivalent to a random guess while

395 1.0 is equivalent to perfect prediction. WAZ: weight-for-age z-score; WVZ: Weight velocity z-score; LAZ: length-for-age z-score;

396 BMI: body mass index.

Figure Legends 397

| 398 | |
|-------------------|---|
| 399 | Figure 1. Age trend of growth indicators by sex. |
| 400 | |
| 401 | |
| 402 | |
| 403 | Figure 2: The challenge of assessing weight gain across an episode of weight faltering |
| 404 405 406 | A child showing slow, then fast velocity, averaged to a relatively slow velocity over a longer time, but with two sources of error. The last weight-for-age z score describes how much the weight deviates from the average for that age, with only one source of error |
| 407 | |





Declaration of interests

☑ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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