

1 **Abstract**

2 Objective: to investigate women’s physical activity levels, diet and gestational weight gain,
3 and their experiences and motivations of behavior change.

4

5 Design: analysis of cross-sectional data collected during a longitudinal, cohort study
6 examining physiological, psychological, sociodemographic, and self-reported behavioural
7 measures relating to bodyweight.

8

9 Setting: women recruited from routine antenatal clinics at the Nottingham University
10 Hospitals NHS Trust.

11

12 Participants: 193 women \leq 27 weeks gestation and aged 18 years or over.

13

14 Measurements & findings: measurements included weight and height, the Dietary
15 Instrument for Nutrition Education (Brief Version), the International Physical Activity
16 Questionnaire (Short Form), and open questions of perceptions of behaviour change. 50.3%
17 (n=97) were overweight/obese, and women gained 0.26kg/wk (IQR 0.34 kg/wk) since
18 conception. The majority consumed low levels of fat (n=121; 63.4%), high levels of
19 unsaturated fat (n=103; 53.9%), and used a dietary supplement (n=166; 86.5%). However,
20 41% (n=76) were inactive, 74.8% (n=143) did not consume high levels of fibre, and 90.0%
21 (n=171) consumed less than 5 portions of fruit and vegetables a day. Body mass index
22 category was not associated with diet, physical activity levels, or gestational weight gain.
23 Themes generated from open-questions relating to behaviour change were: (1) Risk
24 management, (2) Coping with symptoms, (3) Self-control, (4) Deviation from norm, (5)
25 Nature knows best.

26

27 Conclusions: early pregnancy is a period of significant and heterogeneous behaviour change,
28 influenced by perceptions of risk and women’s lived experience. Behaviour was influenced
29 not only by perceptions of immediate risk to the fetus, but also by the women’s lived
30 experience of being pregnant.

31

32 Implications for practice: There are exciting opportunities to constructively reframe health
33 promotion advice relating to physical activity and diet in light of women’s priorities. The
34 need for individualized advice is highlighted, and women across all body mass index
35 categories would benefit from improved diet and physical activity levels.

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37

38

39 **Keywords:** Pregnancy; Body Mass Index; BMI; physical activity; diet; gestational weight gain

40

41 **Introduction**

42 The rising prevalence of worldwide obesity (Ng et al., 2014), is coupled with an increased
43 incidence of maternal obesity (Rasmussen and Yaktine, 2009, Modder and Fitzsimons, 2010)
44 and has focused attention on lifestyle interventions to manage gestational weight gain. The
45 antenatal period is now synonymous with the expression *teachable moment*, and is thought
46 to offer an ideal opportunity to introduce behaviour change strategies to limit excessive
47 gestational weight gain and prevent postpartum weight retention (Phelan, 2010). During
48 this period, women in developed countries have frequent contact with healthcare
49 professionals (Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council, 2012; Institute for Clinical
50 Systems Improvement, 2012; National Institute of Health and Care Excellence, 2016), and
51 the growth and development of the unborn child has been shown to act as a stimulus for
52 changing lifestyle habits, for example smoking (Galloway, 2012), alcohol consumption
53 (Wennberg et al., 2016), poor dietary habits (Opie et al., 2016), and physical inactivity
54 (Mottola and Artal, 2016).

55

56 The energy requirements of pregnancy are relatively modest after allowance for the
57 physical and metabolic adaptations for pregnancy. In well-nourished women there is little
58 need for increases in intake until the third trimester (Butte and King 2005). Antenatal care
59 guidelines incorporate this understanding (Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council
60 2012; Health Canada, 2014) and, in the case of the UK National Institute of Health and Care
61 Excellence guidelines, it is recommended that women increase intake by approximately 200
62 kcal in the final trimester (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence, 2010). With
63 regards to physical activity, specific guidelines vary between countries, but women are
64 advised to undertake moderate-intensity activity daily (UK, 30 minutes per day, USA 150
65 minutes per week; National Institute of Health and Care Excellence 2010, US Department of
66 Health and Human Services, 2008). More specifically, under UK guidelines, women are
67 encouraged to take part in recreational activities such as swimming, brisk walking or
68 strength conditioning exercise, in order to stay fit, rather than to attain peak fitness
69 (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence, 2010). Previously sedentary women are
70 directed to begin with no more than 15 minutes of continuous exercise, three times a week,
71 until the recommended daily allowance is achieved. Sedentariness is discouraged and
72 women are encouraged to sit less and to incorporate walking and other forms of physical
73 activity into daily life (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence, 2010). The language
74 used is often superficial ("no need to eat for two"), vague ("stay fit"), and inexact
75 ("moderate-intensity"), which may impede understanding and the effectiveness of these
76 guidelines (Modder and Fitzsimons, 2010).

77

78 A range of healthcare professionals, including obstetricians, midwives, general
79 practitioners', practice nurses, dietitians, public health nutritionists and managers, and
80 health professionals in childcare centres, are responsible for the implementation of these
81 national guidelines (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence, 2010; Australian

82 Health Ministers' Council, 2012; Health Canada, 2014). The UK midwifery strategy for 2020
83 (Department of Health, 2010) however, aims for midwives to be the trusted first point of
84 contact for women but evidence showing whether this is currently the case is scarce.
85 Unfortunately, Heslehurst et al., (2014a) have described numerous barriers perceived by
86 healthcare professionals, including a need for improved communication skills, the opinion
87 that pregnant women will have an adverse reaction to weight related conversations, and
88 insufficient weight management knowledge. Both research (e.g. (Dodd et al., 2014, Poston
89 et al., 2015, John et al., 2014), and practice (e.g. (Heslehurst et al., 2014b, McGiveron et al.,
90 2015)) are focused on changing maternal behaviours to manage obstetric risk (Ahluwalia,
91 2015). However, (Heslehurst et al., 2014a) describes the dissemination of diet and physical
92 activity guidelines as passive, while (Swift et al. 2016) described how women did not feel
93 that their weight, diet or exercise were priorities for midwives and other healthcare
94 professionals. While more proactive approaches are attractive, it is essential that midwives
95 and those caring for women in the antenatal period are mindful of women's experience and
96 motivations to ensure constructive dialogues.

97

98 The purpose of the current study is, therefore, to investigate the relationship between
99 current behaviours, in the form of dietary indicators and estimates of physical activity, and
100 gestational weight gain, describe women's experiences and their characterisation of dietary
101 and physical activity behaviour during early pregnancy, and describe their awareness of
102 guidelines.

103

104

105 **Methods**

106 *Research design*

107 This paper describes a cross-sectional analysis, of data collected at baseline from a cohort
108 study, on a number of physiological, psychological, sociodemographic, and self-reported
109 behavioural measures relating to bodyweight. Participants' sociodemographic
110 characteristics, along with their experiences, behaviours, and expectations regarding
111 antenatal weight measurement have been previously reported (Swift et al. 2016).

112

113 *Study population and recruitment*

114 As part of the Managing Weight in Pregnancy (MAGIC) study (Swift et al. 2016), women
115 were recruited while waiting for their "dating" (10 weeks 0 days to 13 weeks 6 days) or
116 "anomaly" (18 weeks 0 days to 20 weeks 6 days) ultrasound scans (which are routine
117 appointments for all women (National Institute of Health and Care Excellence 2016)), at the
118 Nottingham University Hospitals NHS Trust. Researchers recruiting women had all
119 undergone training and held certificates in Good Clinical Practice, and had Disclosure and
120 Barring Service clearance. Inclusion criteria for the study were maternal age ≥ 18 years and
121 proficiency in English. Women of any socioeconomic background, bodyweight, and parity
122 were eligible. The study was approved by the National Health Service (NHS) Health Research

123 Authority (NRES Committee East Midlands) and Nottingham University Hospitals Trust,
124 Research and Innovation Department (12/EM/0267), and all participants provided written
125 informed consent. No incentive was provided for taking part in the study.

126

127

128 *Anthropometrics*

129 Measurements of weight and height were taken by trained researchers on calibrated
130 equipment (Leicester height measure, Marsden, UK and bathroom scales, Salter, UK). Body
131 Mass Index (BMI) was calculated using the standard formula (weight divided by height
132 squared, $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) and classified using the World Health Organization's criteria (underweight
133 $<18 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, recommended weight $18\text{-}24.9 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, overweight $25\text{-}29.9 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$, obese ≥ 30
134 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) (World Health Organization, 1995). Participants were asked to provide self-reported
135 pre-pregnancy weight in stones and pounds or in kilogrammes, from which the weight
136 change (kg/wk) from conception to recruitment was calculated; (weight taken by
137 researchers, kg) – (self-reported pre-pregnancy weight, kg) / (number of weeks gestation at
138 which weight taken by researchers, wk).

139

140 *Dietary intake*

141 Participants self-completed a paper version of the Dietary Instrument for Nutrition
142 Education – Brief Version (DINE[®] copyright holder University of Oxford) food frequency
143 questionnaire which was developed to give an indication of fat and dietary fibre intake in
144 adults consuming a typical UK diet. High, medium, and low intakes of fibre, fat and
145 unsaturated fat were determined, as per the authors' instructions (Roe et al., 1994).
146 Participants also recorded the number of pieces of fruit and vegetables they consumed on a
147 typical day, and were asked to describe any vitamin, mineral or herbal supplements use.

148

149 *Physical activity levels*

150 Physical activity levels were assessed using a paper version of the self-completed
151 International Physical Activity Questionnaire – Short Form (IPAQ), which is a tool designed
152 for population surveillance of physical activity among adults. The short form version
153 assesses three types of activities, namely walking, moderate-intensity activity and vigorous-
154 intensity activities, undertaken in four domains, namely leisure-time physical activity,
155 domestic and gardening activities, work-related physical activity and transport-related
156 physical activity. Domain specific estimates of physical activity cannot be provided, however
157 the total score of physical activity is calculated by adding the duration (min) and frequency
158 (days) of walking, moderate-intensity and vigorous-intensity activities. Both continuous
159 (Metabolic Equivalent of Task; $\text{MET}\cdot\text{min}\cdot\text{wk}^{-1}$) and categorical (low, moderate, high)
160 estimates of physical activity can be calculated from the short form version of the IPAQ.
161 "Low" individuals do not meet the criteria for "Moderate" or "High" and are considered to
162 have low levels of physical activity. "Moderate" and "High" individuals have a total physical
163 activity score of $\geq 600 \text{ MET}\cdot\text{min}\cdot\text{wk}^{-1}$ and $\geq 3000 \text{ MET}\cdot\text{min}\cdot\text{wk}^{-1}$ (Craig et al., 2003). As per

164 the authors' instructions, participants were excluded if their self-reported values were
165 unreasonably high (≥ 16 hours of activity; (Craig et al., 2003)).

166

167 *Perceived changes in diet and physical activity*

168 Participants were asked to record – on a self-completed, paper-based questionnaire -
169 whether the amount of exercise done, the types of food or drink consumed, the way food is
170 eaten, or the amount of food eaten had changed since becoming pregnant. Open questions
171 then asked women to describe these changes. In addition, participants were asked to
172 describe what food they wanted to eat more and less of (if appropriate).

173

174 *Awareness of dietary and physical activity guidance*

175 Participants' awareness of the Department of Health's (DoH) and NHS guidance dietary and
176 physical activity guidance was also assessed using the self-completed, paper-based
177 questionnaire. Participants were asked whether they were aware of the recommendations
178 for calorie (energy) intake, vitamin and mineral supplements, and physical activity and if so,
179 how many extra calories, what supplements, and what physical activity they thought was
180 recommended.

181

182 *Data analysis*

183 Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS version 22 (IBM Corp, 2013). Data entry was
184 conducted by three members of the research team and all data entry was double-checked
185 by another member of the team. The dataset was inspected for univariate outliers and
186 missing data. Normality of continuous variables was assessed using the Kolmogorov–
187 Smirnov test, and then described using appropriate parametric and nonparametric statistics.
188 Categorical variables were described as frequencies. Chi-squared and Kruskal-Wallis were
189 used to investigate the relationship between the DINE fibre, fat and unsaturated fat
190 indicators and IPAQ categories on the one hand, and BMI classification and rate of weight
191 change per week since conception on the other.

192

193 Summative content analysis was employed to analyze participants' responses regarding
194 what they believed the physical activity recommendations were by counting keywords and
195 content (Hsieh and Shannon 2005). To improve reliability, data were coded by two
196 researchers and consensus reached (JAS and KES). Finally, qualitative data from open
197 questions relating to diet and physical activity changes were subjected to an inductive,
198 interpretive thematic (Fade and Swift, 2011) by one researcher (JAS) and inspected for
199 representativeness by the study team. Verbatim quotes from participants' written
200 responses are used to illustrate emergent themes. Identification numbers are indicated
201 alongside quotes and no attempt is made to analysis by BMI category as this would clash
202 with the relativist ontological position of this methodology (Swift and Tischler, 2010).

203

204

205 **Findings**

206 One hundred and ninety-three women were recruited onto the study. As reported in (Swift
207 et al. 2016), the sample recruited had 79.6% (n=121) with a National Statistics Socio-
208 Economic Classification score of 1 or 2, indicating that they or their partner were in
209 occupations of the highest social standing (Office for National Statistics, 2010), which is
210 twice the proportion of women compared with the census data for the East Midlands
211 (<65yrs) (Office for National Statistics, 2011). The average age of mothers participating
212 (mean 32.8yrs, min 18.9yrs, max 47.1yrs) was which is higher than the mean (30.0 yrs)
213 reported in the Office for National Statistics data (Office for National Statistics, 2013).
214 Participants' self-reported gestation was between 10 and 27 weeks and the majority of
215 women were recruited at 12-14 weeks' gestation and 20-22 weeks' gestation (84.5%,
216 n=163), which reflects the function of the clinics recruited from (namely the 10-12 week
217 dating scan and 18-20 week anomaly scan).

218

219 *Anthropometrics*

220 Just under half of the sample had a BMI that could be classified as within the healthy range
221 (48.7%, n=94), a third as overweight (31.6%, n=61), 18.6% as obese (n=36), and 1% (n=2) as
222 underweight. The distribution of weight change per week since conception showed a
223 positive skew with women, on average, gaining 0.26kg/wk (IQR 0.34 kg/wk, min -1.05kg/wk,
224 max 9.83kg/wk) since conception. BMI classification was not significantly associated with
225 rate of weight change.

226

227 *Current dietary intakes and levels of physical activity*

228 The DINE food frequency questionnaire was completed by 191 women and indicated that
229 the majority of women reported consuming healthy levels of fat and unsaturated fat,
230 suggesting good adherence to dietary guidelines (Table 1). However, 90.0% (n=171) of
231 women consumed less than the recommended 5-a-day of fruit and vegetables and
232 approximately three-quarters of the sample did not consume high levels of fibre.

233

234 Table 1. Participants' scores on DINE; fibre, fat, and unsaturated fat indicators.

	Low intake	Medium intake	High intake
Fibre	40.8% (n=78)	34.0% (n=65)	25.1% (n=48)
Fat	63.4% (n=121)	28.3% (n=54)	8.4% (n=16)
Unsaturated fat	2.6% (n=5)	43.5% (n=83)	53.9% (n=103)

235 *N.B. Shaded areas indicate superior intakes in terms of health*

236

237 The majority of participants (86.5%, n=166) reported taking a vitamin, mineral, or herbal
238 supplement. 123 (74.1%) of these women reported using a multivitamin (n=110) or
239 multivitamin with omega-3 (n=13). Folic acid (n=15), folic acid with vitamins D and/or C
240 (n=22), and folic acid with iron (n=2) supplements were also reported. One woman reported
241 taking Chlorella and Spirulina, and one woman reported taking virgin coconut oil.

242

243 Data on METs were available for 183 women with a median of 693 MET-min·wk⁻¹, (IQR
244 1143, Q1 297, Q3 1440; range min 0 max 5340 MET-min·wk⁻¹). 41% of these women (n=76)
245 were classified as inactive, 43% (n=78) as moderately active, 6% (n=11) as highly active. 18
246 women were excluded (8%) as their self-reported values were unreasonably high.

247

248 There were no significant associations of BMI classification with fat, unsaturated fat, and
249 fibre indicators, self-reported fruit and vegetable consumption on a typical day, or physical
250 activity levels. There was, however, a significant association between fat intake and average
251 weight change (per week) since conception ($\chi^2_{(2)}= 7.78$; $p<0.05$) with high intakes of fat
252 associated with higher rates of weight gain (median 0.46kg/wk IQR 0.77kg/wk) than
253 medium (median 0.30kg/wk IQR 0.30kg/wk) and low intakes (median 0.24kg/wk IQR
254 0.31kg/wk).

255

256 *Perceptions of dietary change and changes to physical activity levels*

257 44.0% (n=85) of women reported exercising less since becoming pregnant, 42.0% (n=81) the
258 same amount as before, and 13.5% (n=26) stated no difference (N.B. 1 missing value). The
259 majority of women reported that the amount of food they consumed had increased since
260 becoming pregnant (54.4%, n=105), 30.1% that it hadn't changed (n=58), and 15.5% (n=30)
261 that intake had decreased. 79.8% (n=154) agreed that since becoming pregnant that they
262 had changed the type of food or drinks consumed, and 82.9% (n=160) agreed that they had
263 changed the way they eat. Thematic analysis was conducted on food-related data from 185
264 participants and physical data from 105 participants and revealed five themes:

265

266 **(1) Risk management**

267 Food-related behaviour change was overwhelmingly justified by considerations of **risk** to
268 the baby that were mitigated by avoidance of recommended foods. Indeed, some women
269 explicitly described the potential toxic or pathogenic risk of certain foods: *Stopped eating*
270 *foods with listeria or toxoplasmosis risk, e.g. soft cheeses, raw or cured meat (ID 10509); I*
271 *don't eat anything on the 'foods to avoid' NHS list (ID 40307). Risk management was also*
272 *overwhelmingly cited as a reason for decreasing physical activity: Worried it will hurt the*
273 *baby or cause miscarriage... (ID 50103); ...due to concern on How exercise could affect my*
274 *unborn child (ID 30104), and personal experience was emphasized: Previous miscarriages (ID*
275 *101); I started to go swimming but started bleeding again so am quite reluctant to take up*
276 *too much exercise for fear of damaging/losing the baby (ID 40502).*

277

278 Although there was an understanding that an increase in energy requirements was
279 necessary to "**grow**" the baby, very few women described how her decrease in physical
280 activity should also be accounted for: *Eating more – using more calories being pregnant (ID*
281 *40506); Assume its (sic) the extra calories my body needs to support baby's growth (ID*
282 *50402). Also less well described was behaviour change to **nurture** the baby - or indeed*

283 themselves - from a nutrient point of view: *I am more conscious of ensuring my food is rich*
284 *in vitamins (ID 120505), or in terms of physical fitness.*

285

286 **(2) Coping with symptoms**

287 Women described making food-related changes to cope with **gastrointestinal** symptoms,
288 including nausea, feeling overly full and uncomfortable, heartburn, and constipation, which
289 were exacerbated by **perceptual** changes in terms of smell, taste and texture: *I eat more to*
290 *try and combat the constant sickness, nausea (sic), horrible taste in my mouth & hunger (ID*
291 *90406). Women perceived an increase in **appetite** and thirst, which if were not satisfied led*
292 *to low **energy** levels, feeling “wobbly” and “faint”: Before being Pregnant I did not eat alot*
293 *but now im always hungry and eating (ID 80304); I’M ALSO EATING MORE CARBS – TO*
294 *AVOID DIPS IN BLOOD SUGAR LEVELS (ID 100106), ...felt nauseous and ravenously hungry!*
295 *(ID 60303). Similarly, a decrease in physical activity was described as resulting from*
296 *gastrointestinal symptoms and energy levels: Not had the energy or felt well enough (ID*
297 *80501). I’ve not felt up to it (ID 30407). Furthermore, physical limitations - both pre-existing*
298 *and **co-morbidities** - and respiratory issues were also described as experiences explaining*
299 *changes to physical activity: Walk less due to leg cramps (ID 50110); Back pain has*
300 *prevented some exercise, as has shortness of breath (ID 50106).*

301

302 **(3) Self-control**

303 Women implicitly described their food-related behaviour change as both **conscious and**
304 **effortful**, for example prefacing their information with “I’m attempting to...” and “I am
305 making myself...”: *Fortunately I have iron will power so have largely ignored the cravings,*
306 *bar the odd weekend treat (ID 100110). In contrast, it was the maintenance of pre-*
307 *pregnancy levels of physical activity which were described as effortful: LAST 3 MONTHS*
308 *SINCE BECOMING PREGNANT, I HAVE FELT OVER TIRED & NO ENERGY TO MOTIVATE*
309 *MYSELF FOR THE GYM (ID 60102); Less energy, don’t feel really motivated to do much (ID*
310 *40102). Both childcare responsibilities and work/study competed for women’s available*
311 *energy: Do run around after a toddler most days though (ID 40509).*

312

313 Interestingly, in relation to food-related behavior, a narrative of **desire** was interwoven with
314 one of **necessity**. Readily women described changes in preferences using remarkably similar
315 terminology, having either “gone off” certain foods and drinks and/or experiencing
316 “cravings”: ... - *finding normal foods bland and uninteresting (ID 60506); Increasing desire for*
317 *fatty sugary foods (more than usual) (ID 60413). However, merging with this description of*
318 *how women felt that what they wanted had changed, was something more forceful.*
319 *Women employed terminology such as how they “needed to” engage in certain food -*
320 *related behaviour, or conversely how they “couldn’t” engage in others: Need much more or*
321 *feel sick (ID 30116); I constantly feel sick so I can only stomach what I can stomach (ID*
322 *90515). Desire and necessity were less obvious in the data relating to physical activity*
323 *although the frustration expressed by some women in regards to their reduced physical*

324 activity does not imply these changes were considered desirable: *used to run 6 miles most*
325 *days, now none :((ID 80103); Felt quite tired so couldn't run as long as I'd like (ID 50507).*

326

327 **(4) Deviation from norm**

328 Although some described how their current behaviour deviated from pre-pregnancy
329 regimes, such as for weight loss and athletic training, most women implied that they did not
330 consider their current dietary behaviour (during this pregnancy period) as **normal**: *Never*
331 *used to eat breakfast or snack, now I do both! (ID 90510); I have always had weight issues*
332 *since being a teenager and being pregnant means I can eat other foods such as carbs which I*
333 *might normally avoid (ID 40108). Similarly, a cessation of normal physical activity behaviour*
334 *was described by women, often abruptly on confirmation of pregnancy: after my baby who*
335 *is 9 months old I tried looseing (sic) weight by doing Zumba but when I found out preg again*
336 *stoped (sic) (ID 10411); I was training for a marathon but had to stop when I found out I was*
337 *pregnant (ID 90502).*

338

339 Increasing the **frequency and regularity** of eating events, particularly snacks was strategy
340 employed by most women: *I find I need to eat little & often (ID 30113); Try to eat regular (ID*
341 *40104). While some women specified that these changes did or did not increase the overall*
342 *amount of food consumed, others were less sure: Feel the need to snack more (but eating*
343 *less at evening meal so hopefully not not much more!) (ID 100103); Eat more often as helps*
344 *with sickness so probably eating more overall (ID 30410). Women identified specific foods or*
345 *drinks that they either wanted to or felt a need to consume more or less of, but also*
346 **categorised** foods in terms of constituents (e.g. caffeine, "carbs") or characteristics (fatty,
347 spicy) and discussed how these interacted with experienced symptoms: *I want 'comfort'*
348 *foods and savory (sic) foods eg carbs, white bread, potatoe (sic) (ID 40509); More fatty food,*
349 *more starchy food to avoid nausea and comfort eating (ID 100504). Categorization didn't*
350 *extend to the labels healthy (or unhealthy) which were rarely employed in relation to food:*
351 *Just haven't fancied eating many things especially anything healthy! (ID 12040), and never*
352 *in terms of physical activity.*

353

354 **(5) Nature knows best**

355 Throughout the women's responses to changes in food-related behaviour there was a sense
356 of **wonder** at their body's changes: *I have no idea why!! (ID 100109); I don't know.....*
357 *pregnant! (ID 40303). Women also spontaneously sought **explanation** for these changes:*
358 *Pasta salad – not sure why (ID 90411); Ice / icelollys / ice cream - think it's the 'fresh' taste...*
359 *(ID 60106), often referring to how their changes in preferences and behaviour must be in*
360 *response to some change in their body's or their baby's requirements: I am eating more*
361 *cheese & dairy products, I think that this is due to calcium deficits maybe? (ID 10413); ...I*
362 *think I crave what my body is lacking (50504); Carbs – baby wants carbs! (ID 110405). This*
363 *sense of wonder was not evident in women's narratives regarding their physical activity*
364 *changes. Although women were still 'listening' to, and responding to, their bodies changing*

365 signals (particularly in terms of nausea and tiredness) this did not evoke the same curiosity
 366 that was evident in the food-related data.

367
 368

369 *Awareness of guidance*

370 The majority of participants reported that they were not aware of the DoH and NHS
 371 guidance on energy (calorie) intake or physical activity during pregnancy (Table 2). Among
 372 those participants who provided an estimation of the extra energy (calories) recommended
 373 in pregnancy, the median was 200 (IQR 100, min 100, max 500). Overall, 20 women (10.4%)
 374 were aware that energy intake recommendations were dependent on trimester.

375

376 Table 2. Participants' self-reported awareness of dietary and physical activity guidance.

	Not aware of guidance	Aware of guidance but no description reported	Aware of guidance and description reported
Energy (calorie) intake	54.9% (n=106)	7.8% (n=15)	37.3% (n=72)
Supplements	25.4% (n=49)	6.7% (n=13)	67.9% (n=131)
Physical activity	57.5% (n=111)	4.7% (n=9)	37.8% (n=73)

377

378 In contrast, the majority of participants reported that they were aware of guidance on
 379 supplements during pregnancy. The vast majority of the 131 participants who provided a
 380 description of supplement guidance specified that folic acid (n=93) or a folic-containing
 381 multivitamin was recommended (n=36). Vitamin D (n=52), vitamin C (n=4), calcium (n=3),
 382 iron (n=9) and omega-3 (n=3) were also mentioned.

383

384 Over half of the participants were unable to provide a description of physical activity
 385 guidance (Table 2) and those who did emphasised intensity and mode, over frequency and
 386 duration (Table 3).

387

388 Table 3. Content analysis of participants' responses regarding what they believed the physical
 389 activity recommendations were.

Theme	Number	Percentage
Frequency	18	25
3-5 times per week	5	7
Everyday	5	7
Regularly	8	11
Duration	16	23
30 minutes	12	17
20 minutes	4	6
Intensity[†]	30	41
"Gentle"	16	22
"Moderate"	7	10

“Enough to increase heart rate”	1	1
“Light”	6	8
“Not strenuous”	5	7
“Not out of breath”	2	3
Mode	37	51
Swimming	13	18
Yoga/Pilates	9	13
Walking	13	18
Cycling	1	1
Pelvic floor and tummy exercises	1	1
Avoid	32	46
Balance sports/risk of falling	5	7
Risky sports	2	3
New activities	6	8
Activities that are too physical/heavy lifting	4	6
High impact sports	4	6
Combat/contact sports	9	13
Sports that increase body temperature	2	3
No change from before pregnancy	13	18
Keep active	7	10

390 † All direct quotes from the participants

391 NB: Themes are not mutually exclusive

392 Discussion

393 This study clearly demonstrates that, for participants in this study, early pregnancy is a
394 period of significant and heterogeneous behaviour change, which women described in
395 detail and with considerable nuance. Midwives and those caring for women in the antenatal
396 period need to be cognizant of women’s lived experience when providing lifestyle advice,
397 particularly in the context of weight management.

398

399 The qualitative data presented demonstrates that the changes women make to their diet
400 and physical activity behaviour do not develop gradually during early pregnancy, but instead
401 appear to be triggered by the confirmation of conception. Women described making
402 conscious decisions relating to behaviour change, particularly referencing the management
403 of risk to the fetus. Considering the current emphasis on obstetric risk management
404 (Ahluwalia, 2015) this is perhaps unsurprising. In addition, women described behaviour
405 change either as a result of, or to cope with, their lived experience of pregnancy, most
406 notably nausea, appetite, and perceived energy levels, and with varying degrees of self-
407 control. These are immediate but short-term responses to perceived symptoms, and there
408 was little sense that these behaviours might have negative long-term consequences.
409 Instead, women implicitly constructed their pregnancies as ‘natural’ and trusted that this

410 natural state, the result of eons of natural selection, was perfectly adapted; the ‘wisdom of
411 nature’ heuristic (Bostrom and Sandberg, 2008).

412

413 This has important implications for the dietary and physical activity advice provided by
414 healthcare professionals to women in developed countries. Clearly the messaging around
415 risk and its’ management has been co-opted by our UK participants, demonstrated by the
416 high levels of knowledge and use of nutritional supplements, and the dominant risk
417 management qualitative theme. Similarly, in Australia, (Lucas et al., 2016) reported that risk
418 aversion was an important factor influencing dietary choice in pregnant women. One,
419 therefore, might expect there to be little resistance to providing advice to mitigate risk in
420 these, so-called, *risk averse* societies (Lucas et al., 2016). What might resonate less well are
421 messages such as “there is no need to eat for two” (National Health Service, 2016) and “Just
422 a little more food” (US Department Of Health And Human Services, 2010), along with advice
423 framed as “If you feel peckish...” (National Health Service, 2016) as women report
424 experiencing much stronger physical cues, which they feel compelled to comply with. As
425 well as privileging wisdom of nature, women also subscribe to the inherent logic that the
426 growth of the fetus requires energy, which must be accounted for as an additional
427 requirement. Furthermore, advice to improve nutrient intake by consuming more fruit and
428 vegetables or iron-rich foods (National Health Service, 2016) might also fail to be accepted.
429 When women are selecting foods they are choosing those that display (or do not display)
430 characteristics that are related in some way to the physical cues experienced. Appeals to the
431 positive aspects of health, such the benefit of physical activity on limiting gestational weight
432 gain (Elliott-Sale et al., 2015), are therefore likely to be disregarded. It is interesting to
433 speculate whether the high prevalence of multivitamin supplementation observed in the
434 current sample, which notably is over and above UK recommendations (National Health
435 Service, 2016), also serves to undermine appeals to change dietary behaviour. Future work
436 might usefully explore whether supplementation is being used as insurance, reducing the
437 necessity of consuming nutrient-rich food and liberating the diet for symptom control.

438

439 Although health is the primary impetus for midwives and other professionals caring for
440 women during the antenatal period, this doesn’t necessarily speak to women beyond a
441 concern about immediate threats to the fetus. However, a recommendation to provide
442 women with more ‘education’ regarding a wider range of health risks doesn’t necessarily
443 follow. Despite its intuitive appeal and long history, the efficacy of threatening
444 communication in health education practice has not been substantiated (Ruiter et al., 2014).
445 Instead, midwives might do well to consider constructing their dialogue around food and
446 physical activity in terms of how it can also be used to manage the lived experience of
447 pregnancy; for example, how food choices can offer satiety, biological and emotional
448 nourishment, convenience (Swift and Tischler, 2010), and how fatigue can be reduced and
449 energy improved with exercise (Ward-Ritacco et al. 2016). This person-centred approach
450 would embrace the subjective nature of pregnancy symptoms which – as demonstrated by

451 this analysis – can vary widely, rather than what *should* be experienced. For example, rather
452 than working from a position that a woman might feel “peckish”, the midwife would accept
453 that for participant 60303 feeling “ravenous” was her reality. Furthermore, midwives might
454 also see a benefit in not simply countering “eating for two” by describing it as a *myth*
455 (National Health Service, 2016) or by stating that this doesn’t mean “eating twice as much”
456 (US Department Of Health and Human Services, 2010), but rather recognising that this
457 might feel counterintuitive and provide an explanation for where this energy comes from.
458 The energy requirements of pregnancy are not distributed equally throughout the antenatal
459 period, with requirements to support fetal growth and an increase in basal metabolic rate
460 heavily weighted towards the third trimester (Butte and King, 2005). Changes in fat
461 metabolism during the first and second trimester work to increase maternal fat deposition.
462 Understanding that there is minimal increase in energy requirement during this period,
463 particularly in societies where women may reduce physical activity, and that excess energy
464 intake contributes to increased maternal fat deposition rather than fetal development may
465 be more compelling than simply describing it as a *myth*.

466

467 When making recommendations about advice giving, one might like to consider developing
468 more comprehensive resources detailing foods, recipes and physical activity opportunities.
469 However, the current study demonstrates just how expansive changes to lifestyle behaviour
470 can be, which raises questions as to how comprehensive resources can practically be. A
471 solution-focused approach (Ferraz and Wellman, 2008) could enable midwives to privilege a
472 woman’s personal food culture, her exercise preferences, and, as in the case of a tobacco
473 reduction programme (Browne et al., 1999), her sense of self-efficacy.

474

475 Much is made of pregnancy as a “window of opportunity” for motivating healthy behaviours
476 (Olander et al., 2015). However, another important finding of this study is that women do
477 not construct their behaviour during this period of their life as normal. It may follow that
478 any behaviour changes made in this abnormal period - even if they are beneficial to health -
479 are unlikely to be sustained long-term when the focus changes. Future work might,
480 therefore, usefully investigate whether/when normality is achieved post-pregnancy, or
481 whether the very concept of normality is renegotiated (Montgomery et al., 2011). Instead,
482 what might be a useful legacy from the antenatal period is the way in which women connect
483 to the functional aspects of their bodies (Hodgkinson et al., 2014) attending to and trusting
484 its’ signals. Cognitive dietary restraint has been identified as a predictor of excess
485 gestational weight control (Kapadia et al., 2015) but the antenatal period might offer a
486 “window of opportunity’ to develop attentive and intuitive eating styles which are emerging
487 areas of research with the potential to improve individuals’ relationships with food and
488 disordered eating patterns (Robinson et al., 2013, Van Dyke and Drinkwater, 2014).

489

490 In this study, BMI category was not found to be associated with diet, physical activity, or
491 gestational weight gain. These findings, therefore, serve to underline the importance of

492 delivering individualised advice about weight-related behaviours without prejudice (Swift et
493 al. 2016), and tackling weight bias among midwives (Mulherin et al., 2013) and other
494 healthcare professionals.

495

496 As discussed in Swift et al. (2016), there are limitations with the size and representativeness
497 of the sample in the current study. Further from these issues, it is important to recognize
498 the strengths and limitations associated with the measures of diet and physical activity. The
499 original purpose of DINE was to provide a brief and inexpensive tool for dietary assessment
500 in primary care health promotion programmes (Roe et al., 1994), but it has been used in
501 research, notably with pregnant women as part of the Healthy Eating and Lifestyle in
502 Pregnancy study (John et al., 2014). Similarly, the IPAQ was designed to evaluate
503 population-level surveillance across developed and developing countries and not intended
504 to replace precise, objective measures of individual changes in activity levels in intervention
505 or research studies (van der Ploeg et al., 2010). However, participants found the completion
506 of both DINE and IPAQ quick and straightforward which speaks to their potential clinical
507 utility as a means of initiating a solution-focused approach. For example, considering the
508 strong narrative around appetite and satiety, indications around fibre intake might prove
509 particularly useful in practice.

510

511 Although the use of self-reported pre-pregnancy weight is used in widely used in research
512 and clinical practice, questions remain as to how reliable and valid pre-pregnancy BMI is
513 compared to measure pre-pregnancy BMI (Natamba et al. 2016). It is, therefore, important
514 to recognize that comparisons between pre-pregnancy BMI and BMI in early pregnancy may
515 be influenced by misreporting as well as gestational weight gain.

516

517 **Conclusion**

518 Early pregnancy is clearly a period of significant and heterogeneous behaviour change in
519 relation to diet and physical activity. Behaviour was influenced not only by perceptions of
520 immediate risk to the fetus, but also by the women's lived experience of being pregnant.
521 Midwives need to be cognizant of this, and should seek to reframe health promotion advice
522 relating to physical activity and diet in light of women's priorities. The need for
523 individualized advice is underscored not only by the significant variations in experience but
524 also by the finding that women across the BMI categories would benefit from improved diet
525 and physical activity levels.

526

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