



Contribution of socioeconomic factors to the variation in body-mass index in 58 low-income and middle-income countries: an econometric analysis of multilevel data

Citation

Kim, Rockli, Ichiro Kawachi, Brent A Coull, and S V Subramanian. 2018. "Contribution of Socioeconomic Factors to the Variation in Body-Mass Index in 58 Low-Income and Middle-Income Countries: An Econometric Analysis of Multilevel Data." The Lancet Global Health 6 (7) (July): e777–e786. doi:10.1016/s2214-109x(18)30232-8.

Published Version

doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(18)30232-8

Permanent link

http://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:37221719

Terms of Use

This article was downloaded from Harvard University's DASH repository, and is made available under the terms and conditions applicable to Other Posted Material, as set forth at http://nrs.harvard.edu/urn-3:HUL.InstRepos:dash.current.terms-of-use#LAA

Share Your Story

The Harvard community has made this article openly available. Please share how this access benefits you. <u>Submit a story</u>.

<u>Accessibility</u>

This version saved: 16:01, 23-May-18

CrossMark

KΗ

Contribution of socioeconomic factors to the variation in body-mass index in 58 low-income and middle-income countries: an econometric analysis of multilevel data

Rockli Kim, Ichiro Kawachi, Brent A Coull, S V Subramanian

Summary

Background Most epidemiological studies have not simultaneously quantified variance in health within and between populations. We aimed to estimate the extent to which basic socioeconomic factors contribute to variation in body-mass index (BMI) across different populations.

Methods We pooled data from the cross-sectional Demographic and Health Surveys (2005–16) for 15–49 year old women with complete data for anthropometric measures in 58 low-income and middle-income countries (LMICs). We compared estimates from multilevel variance component models for BMI before and after adjusting for age and socioeconomic factors (place of residence, education, household wealth, and marital status). The hierarchical structure of the sample included three levels with women at level 1, communities at level 2, and countries at level 3. The primary outcome was BMI. We did a sensitivity analysis using the 2002–03 World Health Surveys.



Lancet Glob Health 2018 Department of Social and

Behavioral Sciences (R Kim ScD, I Kawachi PhD, S V Subramanian PhD) and Department of Biostatistics, Harvard T H Chan School of Public Health Roston MA USA

Harvard T H Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA (B A Coull PhD); and Harvard Center for Population and Development Studies, Cambridge, MA, USA (S V Subramanian)

Correspondence to: Dr S V Subramanian, Harvard Center for Population and Development Studies, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA svsubram@hsph.harvard.edu

Findings Of 1212758 women nested within 64764 communities and 58 countries, we found that most unexplained variation for BMI was attributed to between-individual differences (80%) and the remaining was between-population differences (14% for countries and 6% for communities). Socioeconomic factors explained a large proportion of between-population variance in BMI (14.8% for countries and 47.1% for communities), but only about 2% of interindividual variance. In country-specific models, we found substantial variation in the magnitude of between-individual differences (variance estimates ranging from 7.6 to 31.4, or 86.0-98.6% of the total variation) and the proportion explained by socioeconomic factors (0.1-6.4%). The disproportionately large unexplained between-individual variance in BMI was consistently found in additional analyses including more comprehensive set of predictor variables, both men and women, and populations from low-income and high-income countries.

Interpretation Our findings on variance decomposition in BMI and explanation by socioeconomic factors at population and individual levels indicate that inferential questions that target within and between populations are importantly inter-related and should be considered simultaneously.

Funding None.

Copyright © 2018 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an Open Access article under the CC BY 4.0 license.

Introduction

The determinants of population average differences (ie, between-population variance) might be fundamentally different from those causing individual cases (ie, between-individual within-population variance),^{1,2} and a distinct set of unmeasured social, cultural, physiological, or genetic factors might contribute to variation in health for these two targets of inference.3-5 However, most epidemiological studies67 have not evaluated and quantified the amount of variance in health within and between populations. Moreover, although much health inequalities research has focused on the effect of social conditions on either promotion or hindrance of diverse health outcomes,8 almost none have attempted to systematically quantify the extent to which mean differences in socioeconomic factors explain variability within and between populations.

A study⁹ on 39 populations from WHO's Multinational Monitoring of Trends and Determinants in Cardiovascular

Disease project, which used multilevel analyses, found only about 7-8% of all differences for systolic blood pressure between individuals to be attributed to the population level. A study¹⁰ on global child anthropometric failures identified that most variations attributable to within-population differences, of which very little (1%) was explained by established maternal and socioeconomic correlates. Understanding both within-population and between-population variation in health is important to target the right inferential unit and achieve optimal health outcomes and reduce health inequalities.11 To build on this research, we aimed to investigate the extent to which basic socioeconomic factors contribute to variation in body-mass index (BMI) in the context of low-income and middle-income countries (LMICs) where a large variance in BMI reflects the coexistence of continued undernutrition and rise in overweight and obesity.¹²

By use of the latest nationally representative surveys on women of reproductive age (15–49 years) across

Research in context

Evidence before this study

We searched PubMed database for articles published from Jan 1, 1980, to July 15, 2017, in English, that estimated variance in body-mass index (BMI) using the search terms: "body mass index", "obesity", "weight", "overweight", "global", "geography", "variation", "distribution", "multilevel", "population", "individual", "trend", "dispersion", "inequality", "socioeconomic", and "disparity". Most epidemiological studies have not been able to quantify variance in health measures, including BMI, within and between populations.

Added value of this study

To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive and systematic examination of variation in BMI across 58 low-income and middle-income countries and the contribution of basic socioeconomic factors. Across various analyses, we consistently find disproportionately large variation

58 LMICs, we aimed to decompose the total variation in BMI by differences within-population (ie, individuals) and differences between populations (ie, defined as countries and subnational communities) and compare for BMI before and after accounting for the individuallevel socioeconomic factors. Our a-priori hypotheses were that most variance in BMI is attributable to differences between individuals, of which only a small fraction can be explained by socioeconomic factors. By 30 Women from LMICs who were 15-49 years of age, not contrast, we expected to find much smaller variance in BMI attributable to differences between populations, of which a larger proportion can be explained by socioeconomic factors. We also aimed to summarise the range economic factors by country-specific stratified analysis. Heterogeneity in the estimates across 58 LMICs might indicate that a different set of factors are driving variation in BMI within populations.

Methods

Data source and sampling plan

We pooled the data for this study from the cross-sectional Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) done in 58 LMICs between 2005, and 2016 (rounds V, VI, or VII). 45 practice of defining population is perhaps by member-DHS are known for standardised and representative sampling of participants, objective measurement of anthropometric measures, and high response.13 Individual observations were collected after a probabilitybased cluster sampling procedure, which was then 50 consistently associated with obesity prevalence among adapted to specific contexts within each country. Sampling frames were first developed on the basis of non-overlapping units of geography (identified as the primary sampling units [PSUs]) that cover the entire country and a fixed proportion of households were 55 istrative divisions.13 In India-specific analysis and as a selected with systematic sampling within each PSU.¹³ For a sensitivity analysis, we used the 2002-03 World Health

in BMI attributed to between-individual differences (80%). We also provide the first quantification of an extremely small (2%) contribution of socioeconomic factors in explaining between-individual variance in BMI. Although socioeconomic factors explain a modest amount of between-population variance, population level accounts for only a small fraction of the total variance in BMI.

Implications of all the available evidence

The pattern in variance decomposition in BMI and explanation by socioeconomic factors at individual and population levels indicate that understanding the magnitude and patterning of between-individual differences are necessary to meaningfully assess variation in any health outcome. The inferential questions on determinants of within populations versus between populations are very inter-related because population health cannot improve without changes in individuals.

Surveys (WHS) implemented by WHO for 65 countries of diverse economic development.14 The study was reviewed by Harvard T H Chan School of Public Health Institutional Review Board and was considered exempt estimates from multilevel variance components models 25 from full review because the study was based on an anonymous public use dataset with no identifiable information on the study participants.

Study population and sample size

pregnant at the time of the survey, and were included in the study protocol for anthropometry measures met the eligibility criteria for our analysis. We excluded participants with missing anthropometric measures (not of variation in BMI and proportion explained by socio-35 present, refused, or other reasons) or biologically implausible height (<100 cm or >200 cm) or weight (<20 kg or >200 kg) measures. We also excluded women with missing information for any of the covariates.

40 Defining population

20

Population, as a unit of analysis and inference, can be defined in many ways.¹⁵ In our main analysis, individuals were modelled as nested within populations that were conceptualised in two units. The most conventional ship in a country.¹ Country serves an important macro unit because national economic development, technological advancement, and demographic, epidemiological, and nutritional transitions are known to be its population.¹⁶ Another operationalisation of population within a country is community, which was defined as area-based PSUs in DHS that often correspond to villages that relate to meaningful social and adminsensitivity analysis for the pooled data, we also illustrated additional conceptualisations of population with

See Online for appendix

subnational administrative divisions where policy and 1 $e_{0iik} \sim N(0, \sigma_{e0}^2)$ health service administration were typically implemented (ie, states or regions, and districts).¹⁷

Outcome

The primary outcome of interest was BMI (kg/m²), calculated as weight (kg) divided by the square of height (m²). Trained investigators weighed each woman by using a solar-powered scale with an accuracy of 100 grams and measured height by using an adjustable board 10 calibrated in millimetres.18

Explanatory variables

We adjusted all models for women's age (years 15-19, considered four socioeconomic variables: household wealth, women's education, place of residence, and marital status. In DHS, household wealth was captured through a composite index of relative standard of living derived from country-specific indicators of asset ownership, housing 20 variance: characteristics, and water and sanitation facilities, and then divided into quintiles for each country.¹⁹ Education was coded in four categories indicating no formal schooling, and completion of primary, secondary, or higher schooling. A binary variable for place of residence (census- 25 based urban vs rural) and a categorical variable for marital status (never married; married or living together; divorced, separated, or widowed) were used. Socioeconomic factors, such as wealth index and education level, were shown to be valid when collected through population-based surveys.²⁰ 30 (ie, no correlation in BMI among individuals) will result

Statistical analysis

We pooled individual level data from the nationally representative DHS to create a global sample that followed a three-level hierarchical structure with women at level 1 35 (i), nested within communities at level 2 (j), and countries at level 3 (k). To account for the complex survey design and describe individual and population components of variance in BMI, we specified a series of three-level adjusted for fixed effects of survey year only to provide a baseline for comparing the changes in BMI variations in subsequent models:

$$BMI_{iik} = \beta_0 + \beta Year_k + (e_{0iik} + u_{0ik} + v_{0k})$$

For interpretation, β_0 represents the average BMI across all countries in baseline year 2005, and bracketed terms represent random effects associated with individuals, 50 communities, and countries. The term v_{ok} is a countryspecific residual that represents a departure of each country from the global average BMI; u_{ok} is a communityspecific residual conditional on country; and e_{oijk} is an individual-specific residual. Assuming a normal 55 distribution of these residuals with a mean of 0, this model estimates variation in BMI between individuals, ie

between communities ie,

5 $u_{0ik} \sim N(0, \sigma_{u0}^2)$

and between countries ie,

 $v_{0k} \sim N(0, \sigma_{v0}^2)$

We evaluated the assumption of independently and identically distributed residuals at each level using normal score plots (appendix).

We calculated the proportion of variation in BMI 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, and 45-49). We 15 attributable to each level, also known as variance partitioning coefficient (VPC), on the basis of variance estimates of random effects. For instance, the proportion of total variation in BMI attributable to countries was calculated by dividing between-country variance by total

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{\nu_0}^2}{\sigma_{\nu_0}^2 + \sigma_{\mu_0}^2 + \sigma_{e_0}^2}\right) \times 100$$

VPC measures the extent to which individuals in a study population resemble each other more than they resemble those from other study populations in terms of the outcome. A simple random sample of individuals in 100% VPC at the individual level and 0% at population levels.

In subsequent models, we adjusted for age-related differences in BMI (model 2):

$$BMI_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta Year_k + \beta age_{ijk} + (e_{0ijk} + u_{0jk} + v_{0k})$$

and further adjusted for all socioeconomic variables, random intercept linear regression models. In model 1, we 40 including type of residence, education, wealth, and marital status (model 3):

$$BMI_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta Year_k + \beta age_{ijk} + \beta SES_{ijk} + (e_{0ijk} + u_{0jk} + v_{0k})$$

45 The proportion of variance in BMI explained by socioeconomic factors at each level was computed by subtracting the variance of model 3 from the variance of model 2, and converting to a percentage:

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{\text{age adjusted}}^2 - \sigma_{\text{age + SES}}^2}{\sigma_{\text{age adjusted}}^2}\right) \times 100$$

We did two types of country-specific analyses. For each of the 58 LMICs, two-level random effects models (individuals at level 1 and communities at level 2) were estimated to assess the range in BMI variance and proportion explained 1 by socioeconomic factors. For India, we specified four-level random effects models (individuals at level 1, communities at level 2, districts at level 3, and states at level 4) with a larger set of predictor variables, including birth history, 5 religion, health behaviours, current illnesses, dietary intake, and women's empowerment to assess their contribution to variation in BMI within and between populations (appendix).

assess the extent to which our main findings hold consistent across more heterogeneous populations, we replicated our analysis with data from the WHS pooled across 65 low-income and high-income countries.14 We considered the same set of socioeconomic variables, except $15 2 \cdot 1 (2 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 1)$ to $1 \cdot 1 (1 \cdot 1 - 1 \cdot 1)$ for communities. The for marital status. Second, because the relative household wealth index does not take into account the differences in country wealth (ie, treats the poorest 20% in country A and country B the same even though their living conditions might differ), we re-estimated our main model (model 3) using predicted absolute income for households.21 Predicted absolute income constructed on the basis of algorithm proposed by Harttgen and Vollmer²² used asset information and nationally available data for average Finally, to evaluate the importance of considering different conceptualisations of population, we ran the following model specifications for BMI before and after adjusting for socioeconomic factors: individuals within communities within communities, states or regions, and countries.

We did all multilevel modelling using MLwiN 3.00, and estimated parameters using iterative generalised least squares.

Role of the funding source

There was no funding source for this study.

Results

We included 1212758 (98.2%) women nested within 40 BMI. Indicators of women's empowerment were available 64764 communities and 58 countries in the final analytic sample (figure 1). Of the total eligible women, we excluded 22657 (1.8%) with missing anthropometric measures or biologically implausible height or weight measures (figure 1). Additionally, 98 (<0.1%) women were excluded 45 for missing information on education level (figure 1). Regarding the distribution of sample size and BMI within each country, the overall average BMI was 22.7 kg/m² (SD 4.7), and it varied from 20.2 kg/m² in Ethiopia to 29.8 kg/m² in Egypt (table). A positive BMI gradient by 50 Madagascar to 31.4 (30.2–32.5) in Jordan, and betweenage and socioeconomic indicators was apparent in the full adjusted model, although the association between education and BMI was heterogeneous across countries (appendix). The association between household wealth and BMI was more consistent across countries: on average, 55 countries (figure 3, appendix). The proportion of BMI women in the wealthiest quintile had 2.3 kg/m² higher BMI than those from the poorest quintile (appendix).

For the pooled analysis, the total variance in BMI was 20.4 in the age-adjusted model (appendix). Of the total age-adjusted variance, 74.6% was attributed to betweenindividual differences and 25.4% was attributed to between-population differences (ie, 15.1% for countries and 10.3% for communities; figure 2A). Despite the large within-population variation, only 2.3% was explained by socioeconomic factors (ie, individual level variance estimate reduced from 15 · 2 [95% CI 15 · 1–15 · 2] We additionally did three sensitivity analyses. First, to 10 to 14.8 [14.8-14.9]). By contrast, 14.8% of betweencountry variances and 47.1% of between-community variances were explained by socioeconomic factors. corresponding to changes in variance estimates from $3 \cdot 1$ (2 · 0 – 4 · 2) to 2 · 6 (1 · 7 – 3 · 6) for countries and from pattern in variance decomposition remained consistent in the fully adjusted model: 79.9% of the unexplained variation in BMI was attributed to between-individual differences, 14.1% to between-country differences, and $20.6 \cdot 0\%$ to between-community differences (figure 2A).

The poor ability to explain between-individual variance for BMI was further supported from India-specific analysis considering a larger set of predictor variables and additional conceptualisations of population (figure 2B, amounts and overall inequality in income distribution. 25 appendix). In India, 655071 women (accounting for 54% of the pooled sample) were nested within 28512 communities, 640 districts, and 36 states. Of the total age-adjusted variance in BMI in India (15.8), 84.2% was attributed to between-individual differonly, individuals within countries only, and individuals 30 ences and 15.8% was attributed to between-population differences (ie, 5.8% for states, 2.8% districts, and 7.1% communities). Adjusting for socioeconomic factors explained 3.8% of the between-individual variance in BMI and further adjustment for women's religion, birth 35 history, health behaviours, current illnesses, and dietary intake explained an additional 1.1%. At the population levels, 56.8-66.1% of variance was explained by socioeconomic factors, and further adjustment for additional factors explained 4.4-13.7% more variance in for a subsample of 114380 women in India and explained less than 1% of variance in BMI over and above adjustment for socioeconomic factors both within and between populations (appendix).

> In the country-specific analysis, we consistently found a disproportionately large variation in BMI between individuals compared with between communities (figure 3). The fully adjusted between-individual variance estimates ranged from 7.6 (95% CI 7.4-7.9) in community variance estimates ranged from 0.3 (0.1-0.4)in Zimbabwe to 2.5 (2.2-2.9) in Egypt (figure 3). In terms of VPC, between-individual differences accounted for 86.0-98.6% of the total variance in BMI across variance explained by socioeconomic factors was also heterogeneous across countries, but poor explanation at

the individual level was uniformly observed (figure 4). At 1 the individual level, socioeconomic factors explained less than 1% of the differences in BMI within 11 countries, including Chad, Egypt, Colombia, and Pakistan, and just over 5% in Lesotho and Bangladesh (figure 4). At the 5 community level, the same factors explained less than 10% of the differences in BMI within seven countries, including Guyana, Jordan, Egypt, and Kyrgyzstan, and up to 85% in Togo (figure 4).

In the first sensitivity analysis, which considered a more 10 heterogeneous population (185449 men and women aged from 15 years to older than 70 years) from countries of all ranges of economic development, we found a consistent pattern in variance decomposition with larger total unexplained variance in BMI (appendix). The total age- 15 adjusted variance in BMI among 99356 women nested within 10732 communities in 63 diverse countries was 30.0, of which 11.3% was attributed to between-country differences and 10.4% to between-community differences, and the remaining 78.4% to between-individual 20 differences (appendix). Of the respective variances, socioeconomic factors explained roughly 2% for betweencountry differences, 5% for between-community differences, and <0.1% for between-individual differences (appendix). Among 86093 men within 10898 communities 25 from the same countries, the total age-adjusted variance in BMI was 23.7 (appendix). Variance partitioning remained the same for men and socioeconomic factors explained slightly larger proportions (roughly 3% for between-country differences, 8% for between-community 30 In this study, we observed three salient findings that had differences, and 0.4% for between-individual differences; appendix).

The results from the second sensitivity analysis suggested that our findings were robust when predicted absolute income was used instead of relative wealth 35 whelmingly large interindividual variation in BMI, only (appendix). Compared with the original wealth index, the predicted household income quintiles explained more variation in BMI between countries (about 32%) but the same amount of variance between communities (about 41%) and between individuals (about 1%; 40 This pattern was consistently found after adjusting for a appendix).

Finally, variance estimates at each level were sensitive to the choice of model specification, but the overall pattern remained consistent (appendix). When country was the only population unit considered, 85% of the 45 in respect to the magnitude of between-individual total age-adjusted variance in BMI (20.2) was attributed to between-individuals, of which roughly 8% was explained by socioeconomic factors (appendix). Modelling states or regions as an additional population unit about 15% of the total age-adjusted variance in BMI (20.4) attributed to differences between countries, 4% between states or regions, 7% between communities, and 74% between individuals (appendix). Socioeconomic population levels, but only about 2% at the individual level (appendix).

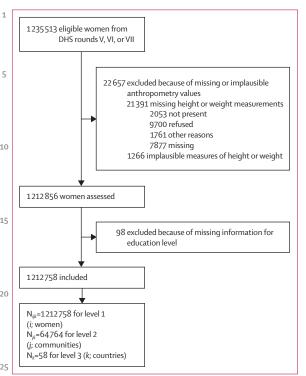


Figure 1: Study overview

DHS=Demographic Health Surveys.

Discussion

implications for population health. First, most unexplained variation in BMI among reproductive age women across 58 LMICs was attributed to between-individual within-population differences. Second, despite the overaround 2% was explained by socioeconomic variables. Although a smaller fraction of variation in BMI was attributed to between-population differences, a much larger proportion was explained by socioeconomic factors. more comprehensive set of predictor variables in India and across heterogeneous samples of men and women from diverse low-income and high-income countries. Finally, substantial variation was found across countries differences and the proportion explained by socioeconomic factors.

Our study had potential data limitations and we did additional analyses to partially address them. First, our within each country (ie, four-level model) resulted in 50 main analysis was restricted to few socioeconomic variables that were comprehensively collected across all countries. Measures of race and ethnicity, occupation, socioeconomic measures at different stages of the life course, and other relevant behavioural factors were not factors explained up to roughly 12-50% of the variance at 55 consistently available. However, many of the relevant behavioural factors are likely to be mediators in between socioeconomic conditions and BMI, and hence

	Year	Survey round	Communities (n)	Women (n)	Mean BMI (kg/m²)	BMI percentiles (kg/m²)		
						5th 50th 95th		
Albania	2008-09	DHSV	450	7386	24.4 (4.0)	19.1	23.8	31.8
Armenia	2015-16	DHS VII	313	5730	25.4 (5.1)	18.9	24.5	34.8
Azerbaijan	2006	DHSV	318	7862	25.2 (5.2)	18.5	24.3	34.8
Bangladesh	2014	DHS VII	600	16624	22.3 (4.2)	16.5	21.9	29.7
Benin	2011-12	DHS VI	750	14563	23.4 (4.3)	18.2	22.6	31.0
Bolivia	2008	DHS V	999	15539	25.8 (4.8)	19.6	24.9	34.9
Burkina Faso	2010	DHS VI	573	7625	21.4 (3.5)	17.2	20.8	27.7
Burundi	2010-11	DHS VI	376	4103	21.3 (3.5)	17.1	20.8	27.2
Cambodia	2014	DHS VII	611	10818	22.1 (3.6)	17.2	21.5	28.8
Cameroon	2011	DHS VI	578	7131	23.9 (4.8)	18·1	22.9	33.1
Chad	2014-15	DHS VII	624	9730	21.1 (3.6)	16.5	20.5	27.4
Colombia	2009-10	DHS VI	4951	43 950	25.3 (5.0)	18.6	24.6	34.4
Comoros	2012	DHS VI	252	4828	24.4 (5.0)	18.1	23.5	33.9
Congo (Brazzaville)	2011-12	DHS VI	384	5058	22.3 (4.1)	17.3	21.4	24.0
Côte d'Ivoire	2011-12	DHS VI	351	4312	22.9 (4.0)	18.0	22.1	30.5
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2013–14	DHS VI	536	8159	21.7 (3.6)	17-2	21-2	28.1
Dominican Republic	2013	DHS VI	524	8671	25.9 (5.7)	18.1	25.1	36.4
Egypt	2014	DHS VI	1764	19345	29.8 (5.4)	22·1	29.2	39.6
Ethiopia	2016	DHS VII	642	13781	20.2 (3.6)	16.3	20.2	28.0
Gabon	2012	DHS VI	336	4958	24.5 (5.4)	17.9	23·3	35.1
Ghana	2014	DHS VII	427	4393	24.3 (5.1)	18.3	23.2	34.2
Guatemala	2014-15	DHS VII	858	24193	26.0 (5.1)	19·2	25.2	35.3
Guinea	2012	DHS VI	300	4227	22.3 (4.0)	17.3	21.6	29.7
Guyana	2009	DHSV	325	4515	25.7 (6.0)	17.4	24.8	36.7
Haiti	2012	DHS VI	445	8870	22.6 (4.3)	17.3	21.7	30.9
Honduras	2011-12	DHS VI	1148	21092	25.8 (5.5)	18.6	24·9	36.0
India	2015-16	DHS VII	28512	655 071	21.7 (4.2)	16.3	21.0	29.5
Jordan	2012	DHS VI	806	6461	29.1 (6.2)	20.2	28.4	40·1
Kenya	2014	DHS VII	1592	13 455	23.3 (4.7)	17.3	22.4	32.0
Kyrqyzstan	2012	DHS VI	316	7516	24.2 (4.8)	18.1	23·3	32.9
Lesotho	2014	DHSVI	399	3243	25.5 (5.6)	18.6	24.2	36.1
Liberia	2013	DHSVI	322	4180	23.1 (4.2)	18.1	22.2	31.2
Madagascar	2008-09	DHSV	594	7674	20.4 (3.0)	16.4	20.1	25.7
Malawi	2015-16	DHS VII	850	7407	22.9 (4.0)	18.2	22.1	30.6
Maldives	2009	DHSV	270	5153	24.8 (4.7)	17.6	24.4	33.1
Mali	2003	DHSVI	413	4643	22.6 (4.4)	17.5	24.4	31.0
Moldova	2005	DHSV	413	7072		18.3	23.8	36.1
Mozambique	2005	DHS VI	610	12 197	25·1 (5·7) 22·7 (4·0)	18.0	23·0 21·9	30.5
Namibia	2011	DHS VI		4081		16.9	21.9	
Nepal	2013		545 282	6164	23.9 (5.8)	16.9		34·9
			383		22.0 (3.9)		21.3	29.5
Niger Nigeria	2012		475	4415	22·3 (4·2)	17·0	21.5	30.0
3	2013	DHSVI	896	33 893	23.0 (4.5)	17.4	22.1	31.6
Pakistan	2012-13	DHSVI	495	4127	24.5 (5.3)	17.4	23.7	34.1
Peru	2012	DHSVI	1426	22704	26.0 (4.6)	19.7	25.4	34.3
Rwanda	2014-15	DHSVI	492	6217	22.9 (3.5)	18.2	22.4	29.5
São Tomé and Principe	2008-09	DHSV	99	2179	24.3 (5.4)	18.2	23.1	33.8
Senegal	2010-11	DHS VI	391	5258	21.7 (4.4)	16.4	20.8	30.2
Sierra Leone	2013	DHSVI	434	7302	22.6 (4.0)	17.7	21.9	30.0
Swaziland	2006–07	DHSV	274	4591	26.4 (5.8)	19.2	25.0	37.8
Tajikistan	2012	DHS VI	356	8930	23.5 (4.8)	17.5	22.5	32.8

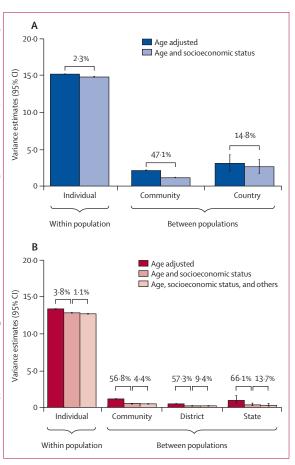
	Year	Survey round	Communities (n)	Women (n)	Mean BMI (kg/m²)	BMI percentiles (kg/m²)		
						5th	50th	95th
(Continued from pr	evious page)							
Tanzania	2015–16	DHS VII	608	12027	23.4 (4.8)	17.7	22.4	33.0
The Gambia	2013	DHS VI	281	4176	22-3 (4-7)	16.8	21.3	31.6
Timor-Leste	2009–10	DHS VI	455	11962	20.2 (2.9)	16.4	19.9	24.9
Тодо	2013-14	DHS VI	330	4395	23.4 (4.8)	17.9	22.4	33.2
Uganda	2011	DHS VI	403	2420	22.2 (3.8)	17.6	21.5	29.4
Yemen	2013	DHS VI	781	22 500	22.3 (5.0)	16.2	21.2	31.8
Zambia	2013-14	DHS VI	721	14824	22.7 (4.1)	17.7	21.9	30.8
Zimbabwe	2015	DHS VII	400	9058	24·5 (5·1)	18·2	23.4	34.4
All countries			64764	1212758	22.7 (4.7)	16.7	21.8	31.7
Data are n or mean (SE Table: Distribution c			. ,	rios from the DI	45 2005 16			

unlikely to contribute much to the explanation of within-population variation in BMI. In our India-specific 20 analysis, which considered a larger set of variables, only 1% of additional between-individual variance was explained over and above adjustment for basic socioeconomic factors.

Second, our main analysis was restricted to young-aged 25 and middle-aged women in LMICs with complete information on BMI measure and other covariates. An additional analysis with more heterogeneous population resulted in larger variance in BMI and even smaller proportion explained by socioeconomic factors both 30 within and between populations. Moreover, our results were similar with previous studies23-25 that have explored variance in BMI in different contexts; although, none have attempted to systematically quantify the extent to which mean differences in sociodemographic factors contribute 35 to variation at multiple levels. A study 23 that focused on the USA and Canada found that a 2.5-4.9% variation in BMI attributed to populations (geographically defined subnational and regional units), and adjusting for age, race, income, educational attainment, and living in an urban 40 environment resulted in almost 27-60% reduction in between-population variance, but only 7% at the individual level for women in the USA.

Finally, estimates in any multilevel variance components analysis are inevitably sensitive to how populations (or 45 units of analysis) are defined. Our sensitivity analyses with different multilevel specifications indicated that both the amount of variation and the proportion explained by socioeconomic factors are different depending on the conceptualisation of populations. For instance, inclusion 50 Figure 2: Between-population and within-population variance estimates in of state or region as another population unit corresponded to decrease in community effects. However, regardless of how population levels were defined, the largest fraction of unexplained variance in BMI was always attributed to between-individual differences. 55

Our findings on variance decomposition and explanation by socioeconomic factors at population and



BMI and proportion explaned by individual-level factors

(A) Pooled three-level analysis with individual-level socioeconomic factors. (B) India-specific four-level analysis with individual-level socioeconomic status and other factors (religion, birth history, health behaviours, illnesses, and diet). Exact estimates are reported in the appendix. BMI=body-mass index.

individual levels raise the necessity to simultaneously consider two types of inferential questions:1-3 what

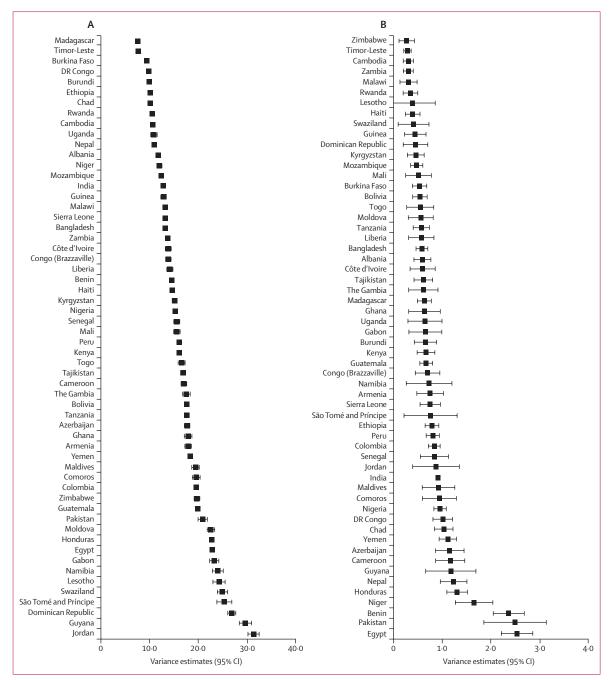


Figure 3: Variance estimates from country-specific two-level random intercept models for body-mass index

Estimates adjusted for age and socioeconomic factors (A) between individuals and (B) between communities. Exact estimates are reported in the appendix.

explains between-individual (within-population) variance between populations (ie, differences in the mean values of BMI across populations)? The determinants of withinpopulation versus between-population variance are importantly inter-related. Differences in the mean values statistical constructs. For instance, average BMI is a marker of perhaps the nutritional status in a population

that is aggregated from individual level measures rather in BMI and what explains the mean differences in BMI 50 than a measure that is intrinsically meaningful at the population level. Therefore, understanding the magnitude and patterning of between-individual differences is necessary to assess variation in any health outcome. However, too often the focus on population strategies of BMI across populations are, by themselves, abstract 55 have prioritised between-population differences in isolation from the understanding of within-population processes.10

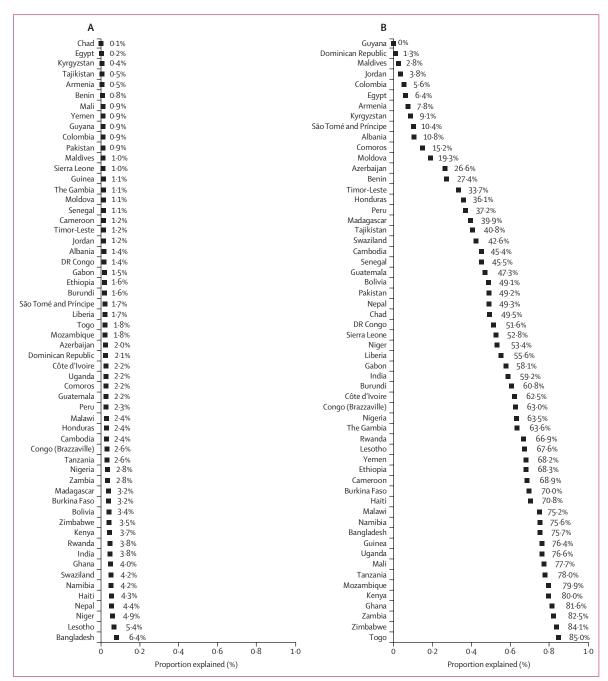


Figure 4: Proportion of variance for body-mass index explained by basic socioeconomic factors

Estimates are from country-specific two-level random intercept models (A) between individuals and (B) between communities. Basic socioeconomic factors were type of residence, education, wealth, and marital status. Exact estimates are reported in the appendix.

substantial average associations with BMI across individuals.26-29 However, our findings indicated that socioeconomic factors have extremely low discriminatory accuracy.7 To put the 2% variance explained by socioeconomic factors in a comparative perspective, the most 55 different populations.¹⁵ However, in the context of BMI, comprehensive evidence to date on genetic studies for BMI suggests that common genetic variation (all

Income and educational attainment are known to have 50 HapMap phase 3 SNPs) can account up to 20% of the phenotypic variance in BMI.30 If betweenindividual variation in health is predominantly a stochastic or chance occurrence, then one can expect a relatively constant within-population variance over time and across studies have found changes in variance accompanied by increase in mean BMI over time12,31 as well as differential

variations within different populations at a given point in 1 9 time.³² Furthermore, our country-specific analysis showed substantial heterogeneity in within-population variation in BMI and percentage explained by socioeconomic factors. 10 Taken together, these findings reiterate the importance of 5 considering within-population variance in health outcomes for its intrinsic value and instrumental relevance in 11 helping to interpret population mean and variance.^{7,11}

The policy implications based solely on betweenpopulation differences are not very straightforward. In 10 our study, between-population variance in BMI was 13 consistently smaller in magnitude but much better explained by socioeconomic factors, indicating their unequal distribution. This outcome might suggest a call for universal strategies affecting overall standards of living 15 15 and education level to intervene on underlying inequalities at the population level. However, just as mean BMI is a population level marker, so is average socioeconomic 16 condition. Thus ultimately, it is always individuals who have weight gain or loss and have actual changes in 20 17 education or income level. Therefore, population-level interventions should concurrently address drivers of within-population differences.11

In summary, the inferential questions targeting within 19 versus between populations are not independent of 25 one another because population health cannot improve without changes in individuals. Future analyses to understand variance in health should simultaneously 21 consider and quantify individuals and populations as distinct but inter-related units of analysis. Further, better 30 understanding of systematic components in withinpopulation and between-population variances can lead to more focused policy efforts and deliberations to benefit individuals and improve overall population health.

Contributors

RK and SVS conceptualised the study and designed the analyses. RK analysed and interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. SVS, IK, and BAC contributed to interpretation of the data and writing. All authors have approved the final content presented in the manuscript. SVS provided overall supervision for the study.

Declaration of interests

All authors declare no competing interests.

References

- Rose G. Sick individuals and sick populations. Int J Epidemiol 2001; 30: 427–32.
- 2 Rose G. The strategy of preventive medicine. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.
- 3 Schwartz S, Diez-Roux R. Commentary: causes of incidence and causes of cases—a Durkheimian perspective on Rose. Int J Epidemiol 2001; 30: 435–39.
- 4 Lewontin R. The analysis of variance and the analysis of causes. Int J Epidemiol 2006; **35**: 520–25.
- 5 Smith GD. Epidemiology, epigenetics and the 'Gloomy Prospect': 5 embracing randomness in population health research and practice. *Int J Epidemiol* 2011; 40: 537–62.
- 6 Rockhill B, Kawachi I, Colditz GA. Individual risk prediction and population-wide disease prevention. *Epidemiol Rev* 2000; 22: 176–80.
- 7 Merlo J. Invited commentary: multilevel analysis of individual heterogeneity—a fundamental critique of the current probabilistic risk factor epidemiology. *Am J Epidemiol* 2014; **180**: 208–12.
- 8 Berkman LF, Kawachi I, Glymour MM. Social epidemiology. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2014.

- Merlo J, Asplund K, Lynch J, Råstam L, Dobson A. Population effects on individual systolic blood pressure: a multilevel analysis of the World Health Organization MONICA project. *Am J Epidemiol* 2004; **159**: 1168–79.
- 10 Mejía-Guevara I, Corsi DJ, Perkins JM, Kim R, Subramanian S. Variation in anthropometric status and growth failure in low-and middle-income countries. *Pediatrics* 2018; published online Feb 22. DOI:10.1542/peds.2017-2183.
- 11 Murray C, Gakidou E, Frenk J. Critical reflection-health inequalities and social group differences: what should we measure? Bull World Health Organ 1999; 77: 537–44.
- 12 Razak F, Corsi DJ, Subramanian SV. Change in the body mass index distribution for women: analysis of surveys from 37 low- and middle-income countries. *PLoS Med* 2013; **10**: e1001367.
- 3 Corsi DJ, Neuman M, Finlay JE, Subramanian S. Demographic and health surveys: a profile. Int J Epidemiol 2012; 41: 1602–13.
- 14 WHO. WHO World Health Survey. http://www.who.int/healthinfo/ survey/en/ (accessed Dec 3, 2017).
 - Krieger N. Who and what is a "population"? Historical debates, current controversies, and implications for understanding "population health" and rectifying health inequities. *Milbank Q* 2012; **90:** 634–81.
 - Swinburn BA, Sacks G, Hall KD, et al. The global obesity pandemic: shaped by global drivers and local environments. *Lancet* 2011; 378: 804–14.
- 7 Kim R, Mohanty SK, Subramanian S. Multilevel geographies of poverty in India. World Development 2016; 87: 349–59.
- 3 The Demographic and Health Surveys Program. DHS overview. https://dhsprogram.com/what-we-do/survey-Types/dHs.cfm (accessed Dec 3, 2017).
- Rutstein SO. The DHS Wealth Index: approaches for rural and urban areas. Calverton, MD: Macro International, 2008.
- 20 Filmer D, Pritchett LH. Estimating wealth effects without expenditure data—or tears: an application to educational enrollments in states of India. *Demography* 2001; 38: 115–32.
- 21 Fink G, Victora CG, Harttgen K, Vollmer S, Vidaletti LP, Barros AJ. Measuring socioeconomic inequalities with predicted absolute incomes rather than wealth quintiles: a comparative assessment using child stunting data from national surveys. *Am J Public Health* 2017; **107**: 550–55.
- 22 Harttgen K, Vollmer S. Using an asset index to simulate household income. *Econ Lett* 2013; **121**: 257–62.
- 23 Lebel A, Kestens Y, Clary C, Bisset S, Subramanian S. Geographic variability in the association between socioeconomic status and BMI in the USA and Canada. *PLoS One* 2014; 9: e99158.
- status and BMI in the USA and Canada. A constrained and the USA and Canada. A constrained and analysis of 206,266 individuals in 70 low-, middle- and high-income countries. *PLoS One* 2017; 12: e0178928.
 - 25 Robert SA, Reither EN. A multilevel analysis of race, community disadvantage, and body mass index among adults in the US. *Soc Sci Med* 2004; **59**: 2421–34.
- ⁴⁰ 26 Jones-Smith JC, Gordon-Larsen P, Siddiqi A, Popkin BM. Cross-national comparisons of time trends in overweight inequality by socioeconomic status among women using repeated cross-sectional surveys from 37 developing countries, 1989–2007. *Am J Epidemiol* 2011; **173**: 667–75.
- Kinge JM, Strand BH, Vollset SE, Skirbekk V.
 Educational inequalities in obesity and gross domestic product: evidence from 70 countries. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 2015; 69: 1141–46.
 - 28 McLaren L. Socioeconomic status and obesity. Epidemiol Rev 2007; 29: 29–48.
 - 29 Subramanian SV, Finlay JE, Neuman M. Global trends in body-mass index. *Lancet* 2011; 377: 1915–16.
- ⁵⁰ 30 Locke AE, Kahali B, Berndt SI, et al. Genetic studies of body mass index yield new insights for obesity biology. *Nature* 2015; 518: 197.
 - 31 Krishna A, Razak F, Lebel A, Smith GD, Subramanian S. Trends in group inequalities and interindividual inequalities in BMI in the United States, 1993–2012. Am J Clin Nutr 2015; 101: 598–605.
 - 32 Kim R, Kawachi I, Coull BA, Subramanian SV. Patterning of individual heterogeneity in body mass index: evidence from 57 low-and middle-income countries. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2018; published online Jan 22. DOI:10.1007/s10654-018-0355-2.

55