

1 **Prenatal intake of vitamins and allergic outcomes in the offspring: a**  
2 **systematic review and meta-analysis**

3

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22 **Abstract**

23 **Background:** Allergic diseases have seen a rise worldwide with children  
24 suffering the highest burden. Thus early prevention of allergic diseases is a  
25 public health priority.

26 **Objective:** To synthesise the evidence from randomised controlled trials  
27 (RCTs) assessing the efficacy of vitamin interventions during pregnancy on  
28 developing allergic diseases in offspring.

29 **Methods:** We searched CENTRAL, MEDLINE, SCOPUS, WHO's Int. Clin.  
30 Trials Reg., E-theses and Web of Science. Study quality was evaluated using  
31 the Cochrane's risk of bias tool. Included RCTs had a minimum of 1-month  
32 follow-up post gestation.

33 **Results:** A total of five RCTs met the inclusion criteria, including 2456  
34 children that used vitamins C+E (one study), vitamin C (one study) and  
35 vitamin D (three studies) compared with placebo/control. Two studies were  
36 judged to have a high risk of bias for performance bias or high rate of loss to  
37 follow-up. All were rated as low risk of bias for blinding of outcome  
38 assessment. We did not perform meta-analysis with vitamin C or C+E studies  
39 due to high heterogeneity between the two included studies. However we did  
40 conduct a meta-analysis with trials on vitamin D (including 1493 children) and  
41 the results showed an association between prenatal intake of vitamin D and  
42 the risk of developing recurrent wheeze in offspring (RR=0.812, 95 %  
43 CI=0.67-0.98).

44 **Conclusion:** The current evidence suggests that prenatal supplementation of  
45 vitamin D, might have a beneficial effect on recurrent wheezing in children.  
46 Longer-term follow-up of these studies are needed to ascertain whether this  
47 observed effect is a sustained. There is lack of evidence on the effect of other  
48 vitamins for prevention of respiratory and/or allergic outcomes.

- **What is already known about this topic?**

Few observational studies suggest that vitamin deficiency is associated with developing higher prevalence of allergic diseases in children; however we need robust evidence from randomised controlled trials to determine if this is the case.

- **What does this article add to our knowledge?**

This systematic review indicates that prenatal intake of vitamin D may protect against development of recurrent childhood wheeze. As early childhood wheeze is not necessarily the same as asthma, longer-term follow-ups of these trials are required to establish the efficacy of vitamin D in prevention of actual asthma in later childhood.

- **How does this study impact current management guidelines?**

Consumption of higher doses of vitamin D during pregnancy needs to be considered in pregnancy management policies. However the effective dose could vary depending on the baseline level of vitamin-D in different regions.

49

50 **Key words:** Vitamins; Allergic outcomes; Asthma; Wheeze; Wheezing;  
51 Respiratory outcomes; Eczema; Offspring; Clinical trial; Intervention; Efficacy;  
52 Effectiveness; Systematic review; Meta-analysis

53

54 **List of abbreviations:**

55 **WHO:** World Health Organisation

56 **WHO's Int. Clin. Trials. Reg.:** World Health Organisation International  
57 **Clinical Trials Registration**

58 **RCT:** Randomised Clinical Trial

59 **SPT:** Skin Prick Test

60 **sIgE:** specific Immunoglobulin E

61 **DARE:** Database of Reviews of Effectiveness

62 **RR:** Relative Risk or Risk Ratio

63 **CI:** Confidence Interval

64 **ISI:** Institute for Scientific Information

65 **Introduction**

66 In the last two decades allergic diseases have seen a rise worldwide with  
67 children suffering the highest burden of the condition<sup>1</sup>. Food allergies, eczema  
68 and asthma are the most common allergic disorders in children<sup>1-2</sup>. Due to the  
69 increasing burden of allergic diseases they are a key focus for public health.

70

71 The Developmental Origins of Health and Diseases theory proposes that  
72 development is not dictated by a hard-wired genetic programme, instead the  
73 organism responds to the surrounding environment and the risk of many  
74 diseases is set during this time<sup>3</sup>. It has become increasingly evident that there  
75 is an important role for environmental factors in the onset of complex  
76 conditions such as allergic diseases and that the role of fixed genetic variation  
77 is far less than previously believed<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, new approaches towards  
78 disease prevention with an emphasis on early interventions i.e. pre-pregnancy  
79 and/or during pregnancy need to be widely investigated. Current evidence  
80 suggests that the role of maternal diet during pregnancy on subsequent  
81 disease development is a priority area for future studies<sup>5</sup>, as many of the  
82 immune modulatory processes may start in-utero.

83

84 The role of environmental and life-style factors on developing allergies has  
85 been examined in a number of epidemiological studies. A systematic review  
86 has investigated the association of nutrient deficiencies on the risk of  
87 development of asthma and allergic diseases in children<sup>6</sup>. This review  
88 included 62 observational studies and indicated that vitamins A, D, and E;  
89 zinc; fruits and vegetables; and a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy may  
90 prevent asthma and wheeze. However, this review was based on  
91 observational studies which carry a high risk of bias and there is a need for  
92 secondary research based on summary of more robust interventional studies.

93

94 The purpose of this systematic review is to summarise the existing  
95 randomised controlled trials evidence of the association between vitamin  
96 supplements during pregnancy and the risk of developing allergic disorders in  
97 the offspring.

98 **Methods**

99 **Criteria for considering studies for this review**

100 **Types of studies**

101 Only randomised controlled trials (RCT) (including cluster randomised  
102 controlled trials and quasi-randomised controlled trials) with a minimum  
103 follow-up of one month postnatally were included. The review considered  
104 studies which documented clinical outcome data and used any types of  
105 vitamins. No language restriction was applied.

106 **Types of participants**

107 Pregnant women and their offspring, regardless of their location were  
108 considered as the target group for this systematic review. High risk  
109 populations were not excluded.

110 **Types of interventions**

111 Studies that used any vitamin supplementation during pregnancy, irrespective  
112 of dose, formulation or mode of delivery and composition e.g. oil, tablet.

113 Trials were also included if the intervention(s) had been extended after  
114 pregnancy either during breast-feeding or with the infants or both.

115 **Outcomes of interest**

116 Trials were included if they had reported clinical outcomes of allergy in the  
117 offspring, either as a primary or secondary endpoint. Allergic outcomes were  
118 defined as: asthma, wheeze, rhinitis, eczema, food allergy and positive skin  
119 prick test (to any allergen) and elevated specific IgE. Outcomes included were  
120 those, which had utilised a validated method as opposed to parental reports.

121 **Search strategy for identification of studies**

122 A comprehensive search strategy, including all the relevant synonyms for the  
123 main concepts, was developed covering the main bibliographic databases  
124 (online repository). Trials were identified through systematic searches within  
125 three main electronic databases, as advised by the Cochrane collaboration<sup>7</sup>:

126 a. Cochrane Library (current issue) including:

- 127 • Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR)
- 128 • CENTRAL (trials)
- 129 • DARE

130 b. MEDLINE (EBSCOhost)

131 c. SCOPUS

132 When searching MEDLINE, the subject-specific terms were combined with the  
133 Cochrane Highly Sensitive Search Strategy for identifying randomised trials in  
134 MEDLINE: sensitivity-maximising version<sup>7</sup>. We adapted the preliminary  
135 search strategy for MEDLINE (EBSCOhost) for use in the other databases  
136 when relevant. The last search for literature was conducted in January 2016.

137 The clinical trials registry and WHO platform were searched for ongoing and  
138 recently completed trials. Conference proceedings were identified through the  
139 ISI Web of Science and, for retrieving theses the British Library E-Theses  
140 Online Service was searched. No language or publication status restrictions  
141 were imposed. References of included studies were crosschecked for  
142 additional studies.

#### 143 **Data collection and analysis**

##### 144 **Selection of studies**

145 The main reviewer (MV) screened all the search results against the eligibility  
146 criteria and all those which were clearly irrelevant were excluded from further  
147 consideration. Thereafter, a tailored eligibility form was used by MV to  
148 appraise the retrieved studies, abstract and full text for relevance against the  
149 full inclusion criteria. Where there was uncertainty about inclusion of a  
150 particular study, other members of the review team (HM & TD) were consulted  
151 and a consensus was reached about the study eligibility. All the included  
152 studies were discussed and approved by the review team.

##### 153 **Data extraction**

154 MV extracted the data using a tailored data extraction form (online repository).  
155 Detailed information on study characteristics were recorded. Throughout the  
156 data extraction process, any disagreements about the interventions and  
157 outcomes were discussed and resolved within the review team. There was no  
158 blinding to the name of authors, institutions, journals or the outcomes of the  
159 trials during the process. Ten percent of all the extracted data was randomly  
160 selected and double checked by a second reviewer (HM) for accuracy against  
161 the trial reports.

162 **Assessment of risk of bias in included studies**

163 The risk of bias tool described in the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic  
164 Reviews for Interventions was used to appraise the studies<sup>8</sup>. The tool includes  
165 seven domains: random sequence generation, allocation concealment,  
166 blinding of participants and personnel, blinding of outcome assessments,  
167 incomplete outcome data, selective outcome reporting and other bias.

168 **Measurement of treatment effect**

169 Dichotomous data was analysed as risk ratios or relative risk (RR) with 95%  
170 CI and continuous data as mean difference or standardised mean difference,  
171 with 95% CI.

172 **Unit of analysis issues**

173 In trials with more than one intervention arm, multiple pairwise comparisons of  
174 intervention groups versus comparator were avoided. Therefore, data from  
175 different intervention arms were pooled for an overall comparison with the  
176 control or placebo arm. The weight assigned to the control group was  
177 considered as the total number of participants in the comparator group versus  
178 the total number of participants in the combined intervention arms<sup>9</sup>.

179 **Handling missing data**

180 All the relevant reported information for the number of missing participants  
181 was extracted and if undocumented, this was incorporated into the  
182 assessment of risk of bias. No imputed techniques were used for retrieving  
183 missing data.

184 **Assessment of heterogeneity**

185 We used visual inspection of forest plots and also, the Chi<sup>2</sup> test to measure  
186 statistical heterogeneity between effect sizes of included studies (P<0.05)<sup>10</sup>. I<sup>2</sup>  
187 statistics were used to quantify the amount of possible variability in effect  
188 estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than chance (I<sup>2</sup>>30% moderate  
189 heterogeneity, I<sup>2</sup>≥75% considerable heterogeneity).

190 **Assessment of reporting biases**

191 Every effort was made to identify unpublished studies through searching  
192 abstracts and ongoing trials databases. Publication bias was assessed using  
193 funnel plots<sup>11</sup>. The asymmetry was assessed visually in the plots and no  
194 formal statistical tests were conducted. The funnel plot was helpful to explore

195 possible small study biases for some of the primary outcomes (online  
196 repository).

#### 197 **Data synthesis**

198 We used Eppi Reviewer version 4.4.3.0. for conducting meta-analyses using  
199 random-effects model. Dichotomous data were entered as events and the  
200 number of participants. Data were pooled using random-effects model where  
201 heterogeneity was reported as  $\leq 75\%$ <sup>7</sup>. We also reported relative risk as a  
202 statistical choice in conducting the meta-analyses, as it is easy to interpret<sup>12</sup>.  
203 Studies were grouped under one umbrella as “any vitamins” for performing  
204 meta-analyses.

#### 205 **Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity**

206 We performed sub-group analyses based on the type of vitamin and type of  
207 the control group (i.e. placebo versus no treatment).

#### 208 **Sensitivity analysis**

209 We did not conduct any sensitivity analysis because of the small number of  
210 studies that contributed to meta-analyses.



## 211 **Results**

212 The results of the search strategy yielded 341 studies, of which 26 were  
213 selected for full-text assessment (Figure1). We included 5 RCTs comparing at  
214 least one vitamin with a control that met the inclusion criteria for this  
215 systematic review.

216

217 These included trials (including total of 2456 children) were represented by  
218 five original papers<sup>13-17</sup> and four grouped as their companion papers<sup>18-21</sup>.  
219 Table 1 shows the characteristics of the included trials, their companion  
220 papers and study population. The trials were conducted in United Kingdom,  
221 Denmark and United States. The types of vitamin supplementations included  
222 were as vitamins C+E<sup>13</sup>, vitamin D<sup>14,16-17</sup> and crushed vitamin C<sup>15</sup>. The  
223 duration of intervention and follow-up in the included studies varied from 3.5-4  
224 to 7.5 months and 12 to 36 months respectively. In trials that used vitamins C  
225 and C+E, a higher blood concentration of vitamins was observed in those  
226 assigned antioxidants<sup>13&15</sup>. In trials that used vitamin D, level of maternal 25-  
227 hydroxyvitamin D measured either at third trimester or after delivery and was  
228 significantly higher in the treatment versus comparison group<sup>14, 16&17</sup>. The  
229 most frequently reported outcomes were wheeze and eczema. As expected  
230 with systematic reviews there were differences between the included trials in  
231 terms of type of the population, supplementation used and the comparators.  
232 We have therefore described the results of individual studies narratively and  
233 only conducted meta-analysis when there was no evidence of statistical  
234 heterogeneity. The definition and diagnosis method of the outcomes in each  
235 study are presented in online repository.

236

### 237 **Vitamin C studies**

#### 238 **Greenough et al. (2010)<sup>13</sup> study**

239 The study was conducted in the U.K between August 2003 to June 2007. The  
240 studied sample were pregnant women at risk of developing pre-eclampsia.  
241 Women were supplemented with daily vitamins C (1,000mg) tablets and E  
242 (400IU) gelatin capsules, from 16-22 gestation weeks until delivery. Women in  
243 the control group received identical tablets of microcrystalline cellulose with

244 addition of tartaric acid and citric acid along gelatin capsules of sunflower  
245 seed oil. Compliance with the intervention was measured by counts of  
246 returned pills. Primarily this study was designed to prevent the risk of fetal  
247 growth restriction and premature delivery in the women<sup>18</sup> and the extended  
248 follow-up at 2 years has assessed the efficiency of the vitamin intervention on  
249 respiratory outcomes in children.

250

251 The list of the reported outcomes in the study is shown in Table 1. The  
252 outcomes of “asthma” and “eczema” are reported at 1-year age and “recurrent  
253 wheeze” at 2 years. No statistically significant association was observed  
254 between the intervention and control group for prevention of recurrent wheeze  
255 (10/386 vs. 11/366, OR=0.83, 95% CI=0.26-2.59, p=0.66) and asthma  
256 (23/386 vs. 23/366, OR=0.94, 95% CI=0.42-2.11, p=0.85). Additionally the  
257 results did not show a significant association between prenatal intake of  
258 vitamin C+E and prevention of eczema (98/386 vs. 86/366, OR=1.10, 95%  
259 CI=0.70-1.74, p=0.58).

260

#### 261 **McEvoy et al. (2014)<sup>15</sup> study**

262 The study was conducted in U.S.A between March 2007 and January 2011.  
263 The studied sample were smoking pregnant women. Women were  
264 supplemented with daily crushed vitamin C (500mg) gel capsules, from 22<sup>nd</sup>  
265 gestation weeks until delivery. Women in the control group received ground  
266 cornstarch in gel capsules. Adherence was measured by dividing the number  
267 of capsules taken by the total number prescribed in a given period.

268

269 The study reported the efficiency of consumption of vitamin C during  
270 pregnancy on pulmonary function tests and wheezing in children at 1-year  
271 age. The list of the reported outcomes in the study is shown in Table 1. The  
272 results of the unadjusted analysis showed no significant statistical association  
273 between the intervention and control groups for outcome measure defined as  
274 “recurrent wheeze” (9/76 vs. 17/83, RR=0.56, 95% CI=0.27-1.18, p=0.13). A  
275 significant difference was observed for the outcome of “at least 1 episode of  
276 wheezing” between the intervention and control groups (15/76 vs. 31/83,  
277 RR=0.56, 95% CI=0.33-0.95, p=0.03).

278 Given the fact that there is high heterogeneity between the studies that  
279 supplemented pregnant women prenatally with vitamin C, we did not perform  
280 meta-analysis for these trials.

281

## 282 **Vitamin D studies**

### 283 **Goldring et al. (2013)<sup>14</sup> study**

284 The study was conducted in the U.K between April and November 2007. This  
285 study recruited pregnant women with multiple ethnicities. The study  
286 introduced two intervention arms, as women were randomised either to  
287 receive a daily dose of ergocalciferol (800IU) or a single oral dose of  
288 cholecalciferol (200,000IU, bolus), from 27 gestation weeks until delivery. The  
289 comparator in this study was defined as “no treatment”. Adherence was  
290 measured by telephone calls during pregnancy.

291

292 This study followed up children to up 3 years of age and this systematic  
293 review only reports the results for the intervention arm of daily vitamin D. The  
294 results of unadjusted analysis for “recurrent wheezing” showed no statistical  
295 significant association between prenatal intake of daily vitamin D and control  
296 group (8/56 vs. 7/50, RR=1.02, 95% CI=0.40-2.61, p=0.97). Furthermore, no  
297 significant association was observed for the outcome measure of “wheeze  
298 with positive asthma predictive index” (6/56 vs. 7/50, RR=0.77, 95% CI=0.28-  
299 2.13, p=0.61) between the study arms. The outcomes of “eczema in the last  
300 year” (11/55 vs. 7/49, RR=1.40, 95% CI=0.59-3.33, p=0.44) and “food allergy  
301 diagnosis” (8/55 vs. 3/49, RR=2.38, 95% CI=0.67-8.46, p=0.16) did not show  
302 a significant statistical association for the prenatal consumption of daily  
303 vitamin D in comparison to control.

304

### 305 **Chawes et al. (2016)<sup>16</sup> study**

306 The study was conducted in Denmark between 2008 to 2010. The studied  
307 sample were unselected pregnant women. Women were supplemented with  
308 daily vitamin D<sub>3</sub> (2,400IU) tablets, from 24 gestation weeks to one week after  
309 delivery. Women in the control arm received tablets containing no active  
310 substance. In addition, women assigned to both intervention and control arms

311 received an extra 400IU dose of vitamin D3, as part of their routine care.  
312 Compliance to the intervention was measured by counts of returned pills.

313

314 The study reported cumulative incidence of the allergic outcomes by 3 years  
315 of age. The results of unadjusted analysis indicated that the risk of developing  
316 recurrent wheeze did not show a significant difference between the  
317 intervention and control group (47/295 vs. 57/286, HR=0.76, 95% CI=0.52-  
318 1.12, p=0.16). Asthma was reported at 3 years of age only and no significant  
319 difference was observed between the intervention and control groups (32/278  
320 vs. 47/271, OR=0.82, 95% CI=0.50-1.36, p=0.45). Furthermore there was not  
321 a significant statistical difference between the study arms for eczema as an  
322 outcome (68/295 vs. 72/286, HR=0.90, 95% CI=0.65-1.26, p=0.55). Children  
323 in the intervention arm reported statistically significant “lower episodes of  
324 troublesome lung symptoms” compared to the control group (5.9 vs. 7.2,  
325 IRR=0.83, 95% CI=0.71-0.97, p=0.02). The cumulative results for SPT and  
326 sIgE outcomes were not statistically different between the intervention and  
327 control group (24/294 vs. 19/283, OR=1.24, 95% CI=0.66-2.31, p=0.51) and  
328 (34/289 vs. 22/278, OR=1.55, 95% CI=0.89-2.73, p=0.13) respectively.

329

### 330 **Litonjua et al. (2016)<sup>17</sup> study**

331 The study was conducted in U.S.A between 2009 to 2011. The study sample  
332 were women with a history of atopy. Women were supplemented with daily  
333 vitamin D<sub>3</sub> (4,000IU) tablets, between 10-18 gestation weeks until delivery.  
334 The nature of the placebo capsules was not reported. Women in both study  
335 arms also received a multivitamin with 400IU of vitamin D. Adherence to the  
336 intervention was measured by electronic medication container caps.

337

338 The study reported cumulative incidence of the allergic outcomes by 3 years  
339 of age. The outcomes of “asthma or recurrent wheeze” were reported together  
340 and the results showed no significant statistical difference between the  
341 intervention and control groups (98/405 vs. 120/401, HR=0.8, 95% CI=0.6-  
342 1.0, p=0.051). There was also no significant statistical difference in the risk of  
343 developing “eczema with rash” in the study arms (83/405 vs. 89/401, HR=0.9,  
344 95% CI=0.7-1.2, p=0.56). The result for positive sIgE tests at 3 years showed

345 a significant statistical difference between the intervention and control group  
346 (43/405 vs. 50/401, MD=-1.7, 95% CI=-3.4-0.0, p=0.02).

347

#### 348 **Meta-analyses of vitamin D studies**

349 We conducted a meta-analysis for the outcome measure of “recurrent  
350 wheeze” for trials that used vitamin D prenatally in pregnant women. Figure 2  
351 shows the Forest plot for this outcome. Three trials contributed to the meta-  
352 analysis including a total of 1,493 children. No statistical heterogeneity was  
353 observed between the included trials ( $\text{Chi}^2=0.16$ ,  $p=0.92$ ,  $I^2=0\%$ ) (Figure 2).  
354 The results of the present meta-analysis showed an association between  
355 maternal intake of daily vitamin D during pregnancy and a lower risk of  
356 developing recurrent wheeze in offspring (RR=0.812, 95% CI=0.673-0.98).  
357 We also conducted the meta-analysis including only the two recent vitamin D  
358 trials<sup>16&17</sup> and it yielded similar results (Forest plot not shown).

359

#### 360 **Risk of bias in included trials**

361 The risk of bias figures and authors’ judgments are presented in online  
362 repository. Only one trial was deemed to have low risk of bias across all  
363 domains<sup>17</sup>. Of the 5 trials, most had adequate random sequence generation  
364 (n=3), allocation concealment (n=3) and performance bias (n=3). All trials  
365 were rated as having a low risk of bias for blinding of outcome assessment  
366 and selective outcome reporting. Completeness of outcome data was rated as  
367 having high risk of bias for one trial<sup>13</sup> since the study had a high loss to follow-  
368 up and the authors acknowledged the fact that the study was an unplanned  
369 extended follow-up of the original trial for measuring allergic outcomes in  
370 children. The original trial was primarily designed to assess the efficacy of  
371 vitamins C and E supplementation on developing pre-eclampsia in women at  
372 increased risk.

## 373 **Discussion**

374 This is the first systematic review of randomised controlled trials that  
375 investigated the association of prenatal intake of vitamins on the risk of  
376 developing allergic/respiratory diseases in the offspring. We identified five  
377 RCTs with a total of 2456 children. The studies were of unselected pregnant  
378 women<sup>16</sup>, women with a history of atopy<sup>17</sup>, pregnant women at risk of  
379 developing pre-eclampsia<sup>13</sup>, different ethnic/race groups<sup>14</sup> and smoking  
380 pregnant women<sup>15</sup>. Two studies were judged to have a high risk of bias due to  
381 their performance bias<sup>13-14</sup> or high rate of loss to follow-up<sup>13</sup>. All trials were  
382 rated having low risk of bias for blinding of outcome assessment. It was not  
383 possible to conduct meta-analyses for vitamin C studies due to observed  
384 differences between the included trials. Maternal vitamin D consumption  
385 during pregnancy was associated with a lower risk of developing recurrent  
386 wheeze in offspring, when compared to placebo/control. However we were  
387 not able to investigate the efficiency of vitamin D on other allergic outcomes  
388 since outcomes were reported differently in the included trials. In all trials,  
389 supplementation with vitamins significantly increased the concentration of  
390 vitamins in the intervention group compared to the control group by the end of  
391 the intervention.

392

393 Observational studies typically report a beneficial effect of higher intake of  
394 vitamin D as well as antioxidants during pregnancy on allergic outcomes<sup>22-23</sup>.  
395 The results from this systematic review proposed a protective effect of  
396 prenatal intake of vitamin D during pregnancy for prevention of recurrent  
397 wheeze in offspring. However we could not address the effect of prenatal  
398 intake of vitamin C or D on other allergic outcomes owing to the observed  
399 heterogeneity between the trials.

400

401 It is possible that the follow-up periods of the studies for this review have been  
402 too short to detect other allergic outcomes i.e. asthma. For example,  
403 wheezing is known as a primary symptom of asthma in early childhood<sup>25</sup> and  
404 about 40% of childhood wheeze will persist later in life and will eventually  
405 develop into asthma by 6 years of age<sup>26</sup>, indicating majority of wheeze during

406 infancy are in fact acute respiratory infection. Therefore, extended follow-up of  
407 these trials could help to provide a clearer answer as to whether the vitamin D  
408 intervention is beneficial for asthma prevention.

409

410 There were also some limitations in the studies' design. For example, the  
411 trials were statistically underpowered to detect an effect for their primary  
412 and/or secondary outcome measures. Significant differences were only  
413 observed for some of the secondary outcomes as "at least 1 episode of  
414 wheezing"<sup>14</sup>, "episodes of troublesome lung symptoms"<sup>16</sup> and "positive sIgE"<sup>17</sup>  
415 and trials failed to show a beneficial effect for primary allergic outcomes such  
416 as wheeze and asthma in children. Also, the trials used different doses of  
417 vitamins during pregnancy. The dose of vitamin D varied between 800-4000IU  
418 and doses of vitamin C and/or E, varied between 500-1000mg. It is possible  
419 to hypothesis that lower doses of vitamins may have failed to reach the  
420 desirable level of 25-hydroxyvitamin D or antioxidants in pregnant women to  
421 have an influential effect on the fetal immune programming and lung  
422 function<sup>27-29</sup>. However this is refuted by studies which have reported similar  
423 effect size using higher doses of vitamin D<sup>16&17</sup>. A previous RCT by  
424 addressing the safety and efficacy of vitamin D supplementation during  
425 pregnancy showed that a 4000IU vitamin D is a safe approach and was  
426 necessary to optimise the circulating concentration of 25-hydroxyvitamin D  
427 levels to  $\geq 80\text{nmol/L}$ <sup>30</sup>. There is limited evidence on the safety of vitamins C  
428 and E intake at any stage of pregnancy; however the Institute of Medicine's  
429 Food and Nutrition Board have set an upper limit of 2000mg and 1000mg per  
430 day for vitamins C and E ingestion respectively during pregnancy in the  
431 United States<sup>31</sup>.

432

433 Further, in all trials the intervention was started in the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester in  
434 pregnancy. However the development of the lungs begins in the first trimester  
435 in pregnancy and vitamin D plays an immunomodulatory role in the  
436 development of lung and immune system<sup>32</sup>. Therefore the interventions might  
437 have commenced too late in pregnancy or some used too low dose of vitamin  
438 D to have a beneficial impact on lung development. Finally, the studies

439 recruited different types of population, which limits the generalisability of the  
440 studies. Baseline levels of vitamin D vary in different geographical areas<sup>33</sup> and  
441 this issue has not been addressed in the conducted trials. Well-designed trials  
442 are necessary to address all these possible confounders among different  
443 populations<sup>34</sup>. Further larger scale research should administer vitamin D  
444 earlier in pregnancy or pre-pregnancy and employs appropriate doses of  
445 vitamin D to achieve a desirable level of vitamin D in maternal and fetal blood.  
446 Furthermore, studies assessing the efficiency of nutrients are required to  
447 consider the defined guidelines in their clinical design enabling to test the  
448 associated hypothesis in a valid manner<sup>35</sup>.

449

450 To date, no other systematic review has evaluated the efficacy of prenatal  
451 vitamins on the prevention of allergic and/or respiratory outcomes in children.  
452 The result from the current evidence is promising that prenatal intake of  
453 vitamin D could protect childhood wheeze. The role of maternal consumption  
454 of vitamins during pregnancy on the risk of developing other allergic outcomes  
455 and sensitisation needs to be investigated in larger well-designed trials.  
456 Further it will be important for future research to examine the impact of the  
457 timing of the intervention and the optimum dose of vitamins. We were unable  
458 to perform any meta-analyses on the timing or dose of intervention and study  
459 populations due to the small number of trials that could contribute to meta-  
460 analyses.

461

462 The current evidence suggests that prenatal intake of daily vitamin D might  
463 protect against recurrent childhood wheeze; however there is currently lack of  
464 evidence that prenatal intake of vitamins can prevent any other  
465 allergic/respiratory outcomes.



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## **Figure legends**

**Figure 1: Study flow diagram, following PRISMA criteria**

**Figure 2: Forest plot for daily vitamin D intake vs. placebo or no treatment as the control for prevention of recurrent wheeze in offspring**

**Table 1. Characteristics of included trials and study population for Vitamins and prevention of respiratory and/or allergic outcomes in offspring**

Primary article	Companion articles+	Country, enrolment period	No. of participants**	Age at last F-U	Sample: high risk of Atopy	Intake of intervention From/until	Duration of intervention (months)*	Vitamin product	Placebo	Total daily dose	Outcomes reported
Greenough 2010 <sup>13</sup>	Poston 2006	U.K. 2003-05	2404 mothers	2yrs.	No	From the 2nd trimester of pregnancy to delivery	6-6.5	Vitamin C & E	Microcrystalline cellulose with addition of tartaric & citric acid + sunflower seed oil	1000mg Vit C & 400 IU RRR a-tocopherol, daily	-Wheeze -Eczema -Asthma -Cough -Breathing difficulty
Goldring 2013 <sup>14</sup>	Yu 2009	U.K. 2007-not mentioned	180 mothers	3yrs.	No	27wks to delivery	3months + 1week	Vitamin D (cholecalciferol) <b>or</b> Vitamin D (ergocalciferol)	No treatment	Single oral dose of 200,000 IU (bolus) or 800 IU daily	-Wheeze -Eczema -Food allergy -Rhinitis -Atopy -URTI <sup>#</sup> -LRTI <sup>##</sup> -Inhaled bronchodilator or steroid
McEvoy 2014 <sup>15</sup>	McEvoy 2013 (conference abstract)	U.S.A 2007-11	179 mothers	1yr	No	22wks to delivery	4-4.5	Crushed vitamin C	Ground cornstarch	500 mg, daily	-Wheeze -Breathing difficulty
Chawes 2016 <sup>16</sup>	Bisgaard 2013	Denmark 2008-2010	623	3yrs	No	24wks to 1w after delivery	3.5-4 + 1week	Vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol)	Tablets containing no active substance	2400 IU, once a day	-Persistent wheeze -Asthma -URTI <sup>#</sup> -LRTI <sup>##</sup> -Episodes of lung symptoms

											-SPT -sIgE
Litonjua 2016 <sup>17</sup>	Litonjua 2014	USA 2009-2011	880	3yrs	Yes	Between 10-18wks to delivery	5-7.5	Vitamin D & placebo	Not mentioned	4000 IU, daily	-Wheeze or asthma -Eczema with rash -LRTI <sup>##</sup> -Total IgE (mean) -Sensitisation (aeroallergens) -sIgE

<sup>#</sup>URTI=Upper Respiratory Tract Infection

<sup>##</sup>LRTI=Lower Respiratory Tract Infection