

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 condition¹. Food allergies, eczema
68 and asthma are the most common allergic disorders in children¹⁻². 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 Disease 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 time³. 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 believed⁴. 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 studies⁵, 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 children⁶. 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 was to summarise the existing
95 evidence form randomised controlled trials for the association between
96 vitamin supplements during pregnancy and the risk of developing allergic
97 disorders in 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 collaboration⁷:

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 version⁷. 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 studies⁸. 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 arms⁹.

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 Chi² test to measure
186 statistical heterogeneity between effect sizes of included studies ($P < 0.05$)¹⁰. I²
187 statistics were used to quantify the amount of possible variability in effect
188 estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than chance ($I^2 > 30\%$ moderate
189 heterogeneity, $I^2 \geq 75\%$ 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 plots¹¹. 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 $\leq 75\%$ ⁷. We also reported relative risk as a
202 statistical choice in conducting the meta-analyses, as it is easy to interpret¹².

203 **Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity**

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

206 **Sensitivity analysis**

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

209 **Results**

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

214

215 These included trials (including total of 2456 children) were represented by
216 five original papers¹³⁻¹⁷ and four grouped as their companion papers¹⁸⁻²¹.
217 Table 1 shows the characteristics of the included trials, their companion
218 papers and study population. The trials were conducted in United Kingdom,
219 Denmark and United States. The types of vitamin supplementations included
220 were as vitamins C+E¹³, vitamin D^{14,16-17} and crushed vitamin C¹⁵. The
221 duration of intervention and follow-up in the included studies varied from 3.5-4
222 to 7.5 months and 12 to 36 months respectively. In trials that used vitamins C
223 and C+E, a higher blood concentration of vitamins was observed in those
224 assigned antioxidants^{13&15}. In trials that used vitamin D, level of maternal 25-
225 hydroxyvitamin D measured either at third trimester or after delivery and was
226 significantly higher in the treatment versus comparison group^{14, 16&17}. The
227 most frequently reported outcomes were wheeze and eczema. As expected
228 with systematic reviews there were differences between the included trials in
229 terms of type of the population, supplementation used and the comparators.
230 We have therefore described the results of individual studies narratively and
231 only conducted meta-analysis when there was no evidence of statistical
232 heterogeneity. The definition and diagnosis method of the outcomes in each
233 study are presented in online repository.

234

235 **Vitamin C studies**

236 **Greenough et al. (2010)¹³ study**

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

242 addition of tartaric acid and citric acid along gelatin capsules of sunflower
243 seed oil. Compliance with the intervention was measured by counts of
244 returned pills. Primarily this study was designed to prevent the risk of fetal
245 growth restriction and premature delivery in the women¹⁸ and the extended
246 follow-up at 2 years has assessed the efficiency of the vitamin intervention on
247 respiratory outcomes in children.

248

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

258

259 **McEvoy et al. (2014)¹⁵ study**

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

266

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

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

279

280 **Vitamin D studies**

281 **Goldring et al. (2013)¹⁴ study**

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

289

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

302

303 **Chawes et al. (2016)¹⁶ study**

304 The study was conducted in Denmark between 2008 to 2010. The studied
305 sample were unselected pregnant women. Women were supplemented with
306 daily vitamin D₃ (2,400IU) tablets, from 24 gestation weeks to one week after
307 delivery. Women in the control arm received tablets containing no active
308 substance. In addition, women assigned to both intervention and control arms

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

311

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

327

328 **Litonjua et al. (2016)¹⁷ study**

329 The study was conducted in U.S.A between 2009 to 2011. The study sample
330 were women with a history of atopy. Women were supplemented with daily
331 vitamin D₃ (4,000IU) tablets, between 10-18 gestation weeks until delivery.
332 The nature of the placebo capsules was not reported. Women in both study
333 arms also received a multivitamin with 400IU of vitamin D. Adherence to the
334 intervention was measured by electronic medication container caps.

335

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

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343 a significant statistical difference between the intervention and control group
344 (43/405 vs. 50/401, MD=-1.7, 95% CI=-3.4-0.0, p=0.02).

345

346 **Meta-analyses of vitamin D studies**

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

357

358 **Risk of bias in included trials**

359 The risk of bias figures and authors’ judgments are presented in online
360 repository. Only one trial was deemed to have low risk of bias across all
361 domains¹⁷. Of the 5 trials, most had adequate random sequence generation
362 (n=3), allocation concealment (n=3) and performance bias (n=3). All trials
363 were rated as having a low risk of bias for blinding of outcome assessment
364 and selective outcome reporting. Completeness of outcome data was rated as
365 having high risk of bias for one trial¹³ since the study had a high loss to follow-
366 up and the authors acknowledged the fact that the study was an unplanned
367 extended follow-up of the original trial for measuring allergic outcomes in
368 children. The original trial was primarily designed to assess the efficacy of
369 vitamins C and E supplementation on developing pre-eclampsia in women at
370 increased risk.

371 **Discussion**

372 This is the first systematic review of randomised controlled trials that
373 investigated the association of prenatal intake of vitamins on the risk of
374 developing allergic/respiratory diseases in the offspring. We identified five
375 RCTs with a total of 2456 children. The studies were of unselected pregnant
376 women¹⁶, women with a history of atopy¹⁷, pregnant women at risk of
377 developing pre-eclampsia¹³, different ethnic/race groups¹⁴ and smoking
378 pregnant women¹⁵. Two studies were judged to have a high risk of bias due to
379 their performance bias¹³⁻¹⁴ or high rate of loss to follow-up¹³. All trials were
380 rated having low risk of bias for blinding of outcome assessment. It was not
381 possible to conduct meta-analyses for vitamin C studies due to observed
382 differences between the included trials. Maternal vitamin D consumption
383 during pregnancy was associated with a lower risk of developing recurrent
384 wheeze in offspring, when compared to placebo/control. However we were
385 not able to investigate the efficiency of vitamin D on other allergic outcomes
386 since outcomes were reported differently in the included trials. In all trials,
387 supplementation with vitamins significantly increased the concentration of
388 vitamins in the intervention group compared to the control group by the end of
389 the intervention.

390

391 Observational studies typically report a beneficial effect of higher intake of
392 vitamin D as well as antioxidants during pregnancy on allergic outcomes²²⁻²³.
393 The results from this systematic review proposed a protective effect of
394 prenatal intake of vitamin D during pregnancy for prevention of recurrent
395 wheeze in offspring. However we could not address the effect of prenatal
396 intake of vitamin C or D on other allergic outcomes owing to the observed
397 heterogeneity between the trials.

398

399 It is possible that the follow-up periods of the studies for this review have been
400 too short to detect other allergic outcomes i.e. asthma. For example,
401 wheezing is known as a primary symptom of asthma in early childhood²⁴ and
402 about 40% of childhood wheeze will persist later in life and will eventually
403 develop into asthma by 6 years of age²⁵⁻²⁶, indicating majority of wheeze

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

407

408 There were also some limitations in the studies' design. For example, the
409 trials were statistically underpowered to detect an effect for their primary
410 and/or secondary outcome measures. Significant differences were only
411 observed for some of the secondary outcomes as "at least 1 episode of
412 wheezing"¹⁴, "episodes of troublesome lung symptoms"¹⁶ and "positive sIgE"¹⁷
413 and trials failed to show a beneficial effect for primary allergic outcomes such
414 as wheeze and asthma in children. Also, the trials used different doses of
415 vitamins during pregnancy. The dose of vitamin D varied between 800-4000IU
416 and doses of vitamin C and/or E, varied between 500-1000mg. It is possible
417 to hypothesis that lower doses of vitamins may have failed to reach the
418 desirable level of 25-hydroxyvitamin D or antioxidants in pregnant women to
419 have an influential effect on the fetal immune programming and lung
420 function²⁷⁻²⁹. However this is refuted by studies which have reported similar
421 effect size using higher doses of vitamin D^{16&17}. A previous RCT by
422 addressing the safety and efficacy of vitamin D supplementation during
423 pregnancy showed that a 4000IU vitamin D is a safe approach and was
424 necessary to optimise the circulating concentration of 25-hydroxyvitamin D
425 levels to $\geq 80\text{nmol/L}$ ³⁰. There is limited evidence on the safety of vitamins C
426 and E intake at any stage of pregnancy; however the Institute of Medicine's
427 Food and Nutrition Board have set an upper limit of 2000mg and 1000mg per
428 day for vitamins C and E ingestion respectively during pregnancy in the
429 United States³¹.

430

431 Further, in all trials the intervention was started in the 2nd trimester in
432 pregnancy. However the development of the lungs begins in the first trimester
433 in pregnancy and vitamin D plays an immunomodulatory role in the
434 development of lung and immune system³². Therefore the interventions might
435 have commenced too late in pregnancy or some used too low dose of vitamin
436 D to have a beneficial impact on lung development. Finally, the studies

437 recruited different types of population, which limits the generalisability of the
438 studies. Baseline levels of vitamin D vary in different geographical areas³³ and
439 this issue has not been addressed in the conducted trials. Well-designed trials
440 are necessary to address all these possible confounders among different
441 populations³⁴. Further larger scale research should administer vitamin D
442 earlier in pregnancy or pre-pregnancy and employs appropriate doses of
443 vitamin D to achieve a desirable level of vitamin D in maternal and fetal blood.
444 Furthermore, studies assessing the efficiency of nutrients are required to
445 consider the defined guidelines in their clinical design enabling to test the
446 associated hypothesis in a valid manner³⁵.

447

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

459

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

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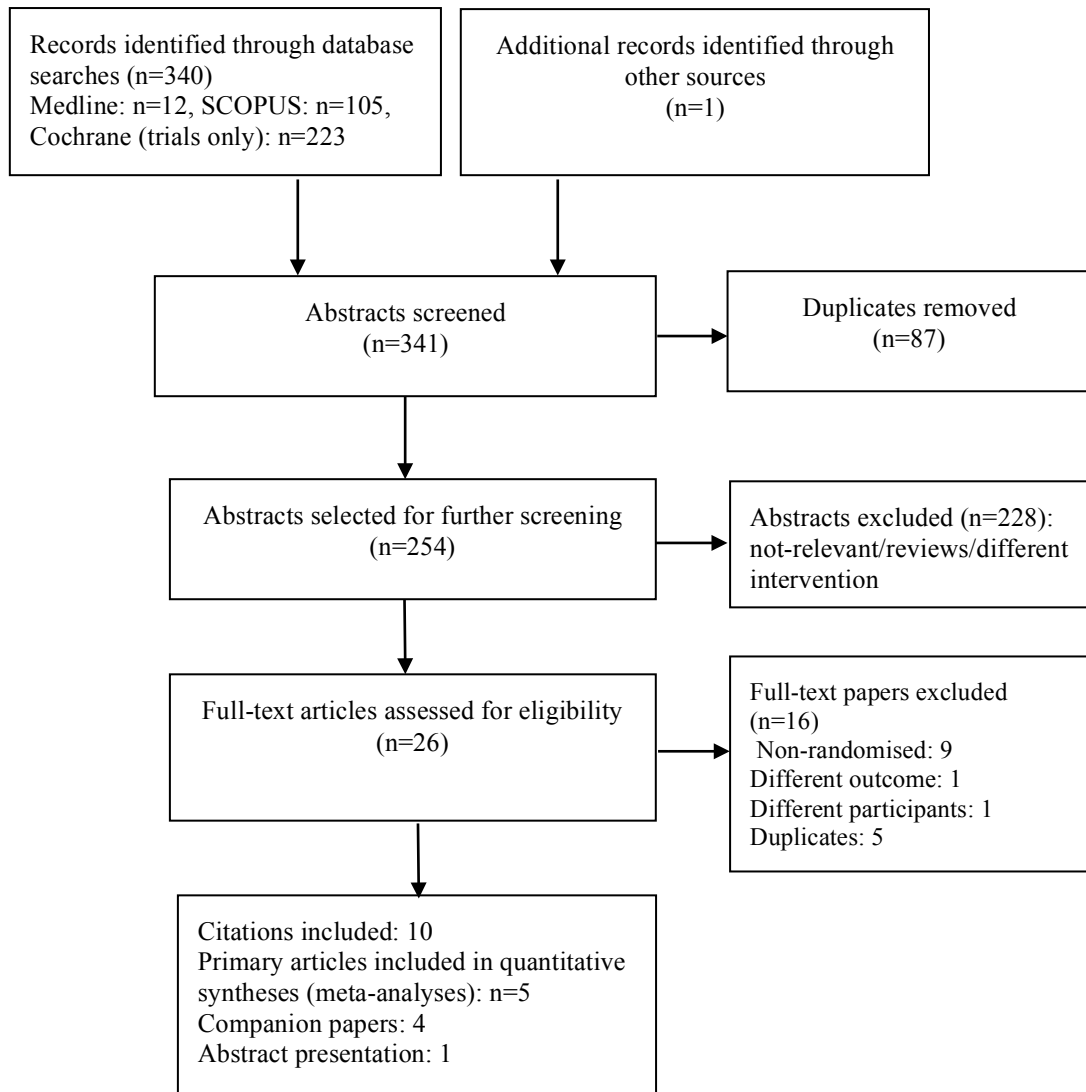
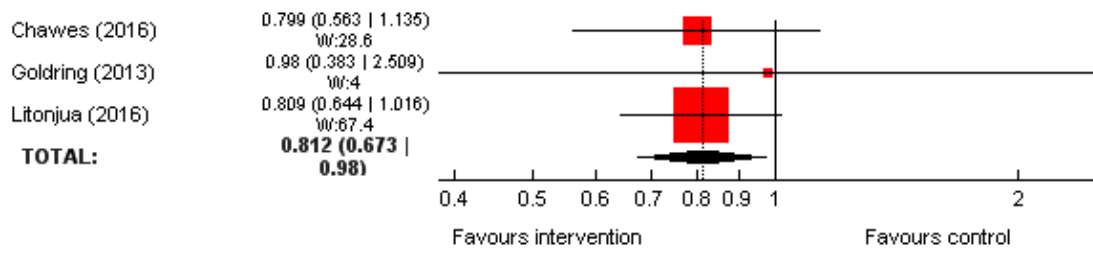


Figure 1: Study flow diagram, following PRISMA criteria

Measure: Binary: risk ratio
Heterogeneity: $Q = 0.163$; $df = 2$; $p = 0.922$; I-squared = 0%; tau-squared = 0
Random effects model: 0.812 (0.673, 0.98)



Outcome	Vitamin D	Placebo	Participants	Study sample
Wheeze-Daily Vitamin D vs. Placebo or no treatment	n/N	n/N		
Goldring2013	7/50	8/56		Unselected
Chawes 2016	47/295	57/286		Unselected
Litonjua 2016	98/405	120/401		Atopic
Subtotal	750	743	1493	

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