

INVESTIGATIVE REPORT

Does Vitamin D Intake During Infancy Promote the Development of Atopic Allergy?

Ove BÄCK¹, Hans K:SON BLOMQUIST², Olle HERNELL² and Berndt STENBERG³

¹Department of Clinical Sciences, Dermatology and Venereology, Lund University, Lund, and Departments of ²Clinical Sciences, Pediatrics and

³Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Dermatology and Venereology and Epidemiology, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

The active metabolite of vitamin D, 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, has immunomodulatory properties in addition to its more established action on bone and calcium metabolism. Recently vitamin D has been proposed as one of several environmental factors responsible for the increase in atopic diseases during the last decades. The objective of this study was to determine whether the estimated dose of dietary vitamin D₃ during the first year of life is associated with atopic diseases up to the age of 6 years. In a prospective birth cohort study 123 six-year-old children were investigated for the cumulative incidence of atopic dermatitis, allergic rhinitis or asthma by means of a postal questionnaire. Their vitamin D₃ intake during infancy was recorded in a previous study and the relationship between lower or higher vitamin D₃ intake and atopic illness later in childhood was assessed. Atopic manifestations were more prevalent in the group with higher intake of vitamin D₃. Although small, this study supports previous investigations suggesting a role of vitamin D intake during infancy in the development of atopic allergy later in childhood. If these findings are confirmed in prospective controlled clinical trials, prevention through modified vitamin D₃ supplementation in infancy could be discussed to reduce the burden of atopic illnesses. **Key words:** *prospective survey; atopic dermatitis; allergic rhinitis; asthma.*

(Accepted May 20, 2008.)

Acta Derm Venereol 2009; 89: 28–32.

Ove Bäck, Department of Dermatology and Venereology, University Hospital, SE-221 85 Lund, Sweden. E-mail: Ove.Back@med.lu.se

The incidence of allergic diseases has been increasing in the westernized world during the last three decades (1). The most likely cause is various changes in environmental exposures. One common hypothesis is related to improved hygiene, with a reduced spectrum of environmental trigger factors of microbial origin confronting the immune system early in life (2). This means a sustained imbalance in the regulation of the immune system between T_H1 and T_H2 cytokine responses, continuing the T_H2 polarization that exists *in utero* (3). Recently a vitamin hypothesis has been put forward, based partly on the

coincidence between the “allergic epidemic” and vitamin D supplementation to reduce the risk of rickets (4, 5). In experimental short-term studies in animals, pharmacological doses of the active metabolite of vitamin D, 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, up-regulate T_H2-type immune responses in an asthma model (6), whereas T_H1-type responses in various autoimmune disease models are down-regulated (7–9). Putative mechanisms involved have been further elucidated, showing that active ligands of the vitamin D receptor induce expression of thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP) in murine epidermal keratinocytes. This cytokine plays a key role in initiating a skin and systemic atopic dermatitis-like phenotype (10).

Epidemiological studies of humans given dietary vitamin D supplementation in infancy, lend support to the findings of the animal studies, suggesting both increased risk of atopy and allergic rhinitis (11) and reduced risk of type 1 diabetes (12) later in life. In this paper we present some data on the cumulative incidence of allergic diseases in 6-year-old children in relation to their average daily intake of vitamin D₃ during the first year of life.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

In 1998, the families of the first 206 babies, born consecutively from January to March at the Department of Obstetrics at the University Hospital in Umeå, were approached with a questionnaire regarding the diet of their infants. This survey was detailed, with 56 questions on breastfeeding, food items, frequency and volumes consumed, including vitamin supplements. The intake of vitamin D₃ from regular diet and supplements was calculated based on the content of vitamin D₃ per 100 ml: breast milk 0.02 µg, infant formula 1.3 µg, milk cereal drinks 1.1–1.4 µg, standard milk 0.02 µg, lower fat milk products 0.38 µg, and industry manufactured porridge 2.6 µg. The content of vitamin D₃ in other food items was estimated according to information provided by the manufacturers and the National Food Administration. In addition, all children were prescribed vitamin A and D supplements containing 1000 IU vitamin A (retinol palmitate) and 400 IU (= 10 µg) vitamin D₃ daily from 6 weeks to 24 months of age. The vitamins were dissolved in 5 drops of sunflower seed oil. The individual vitamin D₃ intake was assessed at 5, 7 and 10 months of age and the intake of every child at these time-points was calculated (13).

Six years later a follow-up survey was performed regarding the cumulative incidence of clinical symptoms of allergy by means of a validated postal questionnaire. This survey used relevant questions from the international ISAAC study (14), adapted as described (15). The questionnaire also included questions on past or present allergic disease of the parents. It was sent to the 175

Table I. Number and percentage of subjects with different manifestations of atopic illnesses in children with "low" ($n = 61$) or "high" ($n = 62$) daily intake of vitamin D₃ during infancy

	Vitamin D intake		<i>p</i> -value
	Low dose ($\leq 13.0 \mu\text{g}$) <i>n</i> (%)	High dose ($> 13.1 \mu\text{g}$) <i>n</i> (%)	
AD	5 (8)	18 (29)	0.005
AR	7 (11)	11 (18)	0.445
AA	2 (3)	6 (10)	0.273
AD or AR or AA	12 (20)	25 (40)	0.018

AD: atopic dermatitis; AR: allergic rhinitis; AA: allergic asthma.

families who had participated fully in the previous diet survey, and answers were received from 123 families after one reminder. The children were ranked according to their individual daily intake of vitamin D₃ (arithmetic mean of the intake at 5, 7 and 10 months). Subsequently, the cohort ($n = 123$) was divided in half; one half with "lower" ranks, range 0.6–13.0 μg ($n = 61$) and the other half with "higher" ranks, range 13.2–25.1 μg ($n = 62$), of daily vitamin D₃ intake. The study was approved by the regional ethics committee in Lund and performed according to the Declaration of Helsinki after obtaining written informed consent.

Differences in the proportions of allergic diseases between the "lower" and "higher" vitamin D₃ intake groups were assessed with Fisher's exact test (two-tailed). Risk assessments were performed with uni- and multi-variate logistic regression analysis with SPSS software, version 14.0. Interaction according to an additive model was calculated with the synergy index (S), as suggested by Rothman (16). The 95% confidence interval (CI) for S was calculated as suggested by Hosmer & Lemeshow (17). Interaction according to a multiplicative model was analysed in SPSS, version 14.0, with a standard procedure available in logistic regression analysis.

RESULTS

The questionnaires revealed that 37 of the 123 children had had atopic dermatitis (AD) or allergic rhinitis or asthma during the period from infancy to 6 years of age. AD was reported by 23, allergic rhinitis by 18 and asthma by 8 children. The combination of AD and rhinitis was found in 5, rhinitis and asthma in 2, AD and asthma in one and finally AD, rhinitis and asthma in 2 children. In the group of children with a high intake of vitamin D₃, both AD and the combination of AD, or rhinitis or asthma were more common than in the low intake group (Table I). When the average vitamin D₃ intake was used as a continuous predictor in logistic

regression analysis with adjustment for family history of atopic illnesses, the relative risk (odds ratio; OR) was 1.18 (95% CI 1.05–1.32), indicating that OR of having AD increased by 18% for each unit (1 μg) of daily vitamin D₃ dose. As the children were growing from 5 to 10 months of age and hence also their daily intake of food and vitamin D₃ increased, we expressed their daily vitamin intake per kilogram body weight and used it as a risk indicator for development of atopic illness in logistic regression analyses. In Table II the OR for AD is approximately 2.4 in all age groups, suggesting that a high intake at 5 months of age could have influenced the development of AD later in life with no further risk added by continuous high vitamin D₃ intake. Table II further suggests that high vitamin D₃ intake in infancy does not increase the risk of atopic respiratory illness up to the age of 6 years.

Since family history is a major risk factor in atopy, the parents were asked about present or past AD, allergic rhinitis or asthma. Out of the 123 children, 41 had no family history of allergic disease, while 55 had one parent and 27 both parents with atopic illness. There was no significant difference with regard to heredity between the groups of low and high intake of vitamin D₃, thus these risk factors were not confounding factors to each other. In multivariate logistic regression analysis, the relative risk (OR) of developing AD until the age of 6 years for those with family history of atopic illness was 2.2 (95% CI 0.7–6.6) and 4.7 (95% CI 1.6–13.8) for those with a high vitamin D₃ intake, when both factors were entered together. Adjusted for average vitamin D₃ intake, family history of atopy in the mother (OR 2.53; 95% CI 0.92–6.9) seemed to be more important than atopy in the father (OR 1.32; 95% CI 0.5–3.52), while atopy in both parents gave an OR of 3.06 (95% CI 0.78–12.0).

In order to illustrate possible effect modification we made a stratified risk analysis of having AD at the age of 6 years with respect to family history of any atopic illnesses and the average dose of vitamin D₃ intake (Fig. 1). It was not possible to make more detailed strata for family history of different atopic illnesses due to the small sample size. These results indicated that a high vitamin D₃ intake is a risk factor of developing AD independently of family history. Family history doubled the OR, high vitamin D₃ intake increased the OR 4.5 times and the combination approximately 10-fold. Fig. 1

Table II. Risk of having atopic dermatitis, atopic respiratory illness or any atopic illness at the age of 6 years expressed as odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval (95% CI) from logistic regression analysis. OR is adjusted for family history of atopic illness

Risk indicator	Atopic dermatitis OR (95% CI)	Atopic respiratory illness OR (95% CI)	Any atopic illness OR (95% CI)
Vitamin D dose per kg at 5 months (continuous variable)	2.43 (1.29–4.57)	0.82 (0.42–1.59)	1.63 (0.95–2.17)
Vitamin D dose per kg at 7 months (continuous variable)	2.31 (1.20–4.45)	0.84 (0.43–1.63)	1.44 (0.83–2.50)
Vitamin D dose per kg at 10 months (continuous variable)	2.44 (1.0–5.95)	1.06 (0.44–2.57)	1.67 (0.79–3.54)
Average vitamin D dose per kg (continuous variable)	3.63 (1.49–8.87)	0.84 (0.37–1.90)	1.87 (0.91–3.82)

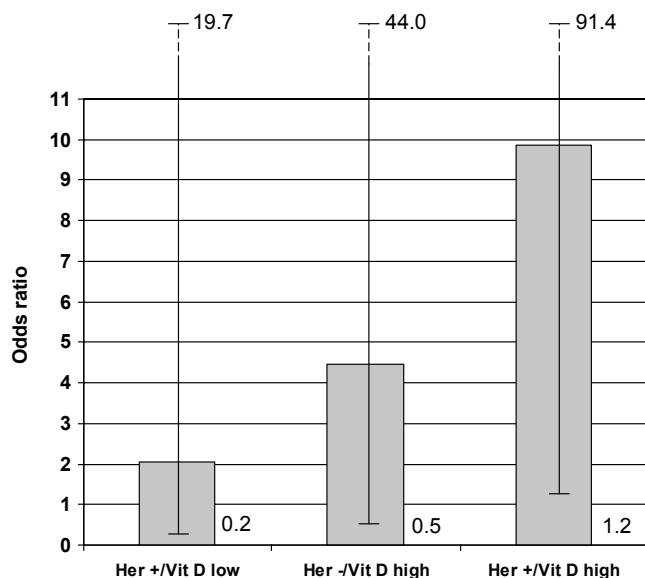


Fig. 1. Risk of having atopic dermatitis at the age of 6 years in relation to the risk factors family history of atopy and intake of vitamin D₃ in infancy expressed as odds ratio (OR) (95% confidence interval). Subjects with no family history and low vitamin D₃ intake constitute the reference category (OR=1). Her: heritage.

also suggested that there was an interaction between family history and vitamin D₃ intake. We therefore analysed possible interaction in both an additive and a multiplicative model. The synergy index was 1.96, indicating an interaction in an additive scale, however not significant (95% CI 0.42–9.01). In the multiplicative model no interaction was found ($p=0.86$).

DISCUSSION

We have previously estimated the average daily dietary intake of vitamin D₃, including natural food, fortified complementary food and vitamin supplements, in Swedish infants and found it to be above the recommended daily allowance of 10 µg (13). Considering that the transformation rate of dietary vitamin D₃ to the active hormone is less well known, that the relative contribution of endogenous synthesis of vitamin D₃ is difficult to estimate, and that the therapeutic window and timetable for various metabolic effects of vitamin D₃ is hardly studied at all in children, we investigated the association between the dietary intake in infancy from 5 to 10 months and the cumulative incidence of atopic manifestations later in childhood.

Although we have a limited number of individuals in this study and no control group unexposed to vitamin D₃ supplementation, this is to some extent compensated by the rather strict estimate of the individual intake of vitamin D₃. There is a significant association between a high intake of vitamin D₃ during infancy and AD later in childhood. Earlier studies have shown that allergic sensitization to peanuts from vitamin D preparations

containing peanut oil has been described, with a 9-fold increased risk of sensitization during combined exposure to vitamin D and peanut oil (18). The risk increased in children receiving the oily vitamin D preparation in the neonatal period (19). In addition breastfeeding for the first 4 months has been shown to reduce the risk of childhood eczema at the age of 4 years (20). Breastfeeding usually implies a low vitamin D₃ intake, while replacement with infant formula and milk cereal drinks, fortified with vitamin D₃, gives a considerably higher intake.

Our results are compatible with animal studies, where the active vitamin D hormone, 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, promoted an immune response with interleukin (IL)-4- and IL-13-driven IgE production in mice genetically non-biased for T_H2-type responses (6). Furthermore, prospective studies in a large human birth cohort showed that vitamin D supplementation during the first year of life was associated with higher prevalence of atopy and allergic rhinitis at the age of 31 years (11). This cohort was supplemented with 2000 IU of vitamin D per day, a dose probably higher than the dose received by our children. Likewise, register studies reveal that early infant multivitamin supplementation was associated with increased risk of food allergy and asthma (21). Maternal vitamin D status during pregnancy has also been shown to be of importance, since mothers with high 25-(OH)D₃ concentrations in serum in late pregnancy delivered children with increased risk of eczema at 9 months and asthma at 9 years compared with mothers with low concentrations (22). Taken together, it is possible that the vitamin D₃ intake during infancy could be one of several environmental factors potentially involved in the “allergic epidemic”.

When different atopic manifestations were compared it seemed that AD was comparatively more prevalent than allergic rhinitis and asthma. This finding could be explained by the fact that the investigated children were only 6 years of age, when mucosal allergy with asthma and allergic rhinitis still may not have developed. Although there was a trend for respiratory allergy to be associated with high intake of vitamin D₃, the association did not reach statistical significance. It cannot be excluded that families with allergic parents were more interested in participating in the study, and that there could be a selection bias in returning the questionnaires. This possible bias influences the cumulative incidence figure, but does not affect the associations shown, given that there is no association between vitamin D₃ intake and proneness to respond in the survey. We cannot exclude an interaction between the effect of family history of atopy and that of vitamin D₃ intake. The precision of our interaction analyses was low due to a small sample size.

More recent investigations lend strong support to the vitamin D hypothesis. Thus it has been demonstrated

that epithelial cells in skin and airways upon proper stimulation express and produce TSLP. This is a cytokine which induce myeloid dendritic cells to prime naïve T helper cells to produce the proallergic cytokines IL-4, IL-5, IL-13 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)- α , while down-regulating IL-10 and interferon (IFN)- γ , thus constituting a subgroup of inflammatory T_H2 cells. TSLP is also highly expressed in keratinocytes from patients with AD and promotes the activation and migration of Langerhans' cells (23). Therefore TSLP is considered a master switch for allergic inflammation (24). TSLP may be induced in murine keratinocytes by selective ablation of retinoid X receptors α and β , but also by topical application of physiologically active vitamin D receptor ligands, which will result in an AD-like skin condition (10). Furthermore, this is a skin inflammation independent of T and B cells, possibly explaining why a proportion of patients with severe AD may have normal serum IgE levels. Here we have a pathway through which vitamin D and retinoic acid could be involved in AD and other atopic diseases.

However, active metabolites of vitamin D may also induce expression of antimicrobial peptides in human keratinocytes, monocytes and neutrophils with corresponding secretion of antimicrobial activity against human pathogens (25, 26). Since there is an association between both clinical and subclinical vitamin D deficiency and severe lower respiratory tract infections in young children (27, 28), adequate vitamin D intake may reduce the burden of infections, thereby diminishing the stimulation of T_H1-mediated immune responses. In this respect the hygiene hypothesis and the vitamin hypothesis may work synergistically.

However, the role of vitamin D and its metabolites on the pre- and post-natal maturation of epithelial and lymphoid tissues involved in the development of allergic manifestations in the skin and airways is still controversial, suggesting both enhancing and protective mechanisms (5, 29). If breastfeeding with a comparatively modest transfer of vitamin D₃ from mother to child is considered physiological, then early supplementation with vitamin D before weaning may jeopardize the development of a balanced T_H1/T_H2 immune response. Careful controlled clinical trials, addressing the vitamin D status through serum 25-(OH)D₃ levels, together with timing and dosing of vitamin D₃ supplementation, are needed to elucidate when and how vitamin D is involved in the allergic epidemic in relation to other perinatal medical and public health risk factors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to Hans Stenlund, PhD, for statistical advice and to the Edvard Welander, the Finsen and the Vardal Foundations for financial support.

REFERENCES

- Åberg N, Hesselmar B, Åberg B, Eriksson B. Increase of asthma, allergic rhinitis and eczema in Swedish school-children between 1979 and 1991. *Clin Exp Allergy* 1995; 25: 815–819.
- Prescott SL, King B, Strong TL, Holt PG. The value of perinatal immune responses in predicting allergic disease at 6 years of age. *Allergy* 2003; 58: 1187–1194.
- Holt PG, Upham JW, Sly PD. Contemporaneous maturation of immunologic and respiratory functions during early childhood: implications for development of asthma prevention strategies. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2005; 116: 16–24.
- Wjst M, Dold S. Genes, factor X and allergens: what causes allergic disease. *Allergy* 1999; 54: 757–759.
- Wjst M. The vitamin D slant on allergy. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 2006; 17: 477–483.
- Matheu V, Bäck O, Mondoc E, Issazadeh-Navikas S. Dual effects of vitamin D-induced alteration of Th1/Th2 cytokine expression: enhancing IgE production and decreasing airway eosinophilia in murine allergic airway disease. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2003; 112: 585–592.
- Lemire JM, Archer DC. 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 prevents the in vivo induction of murine experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. *J Clin Invest* 1991; 87: 1103–1107.
- Cantorna MT, Hayes CE, DeLuca HF. 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol inhibits the progression of arthritis in murine models of human arthritis. *J Nutr* 1998; 128: 68–72.
- Overbergh L, Decallonne B, Waer M, Rutgeerts O, Valckx D, Casteels KM, et al. 1- α ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 induces an autoantigen-specific T-helper 1/T-helper 2 immune shift in NOD mice immunized with GAD65 (p524–543). *Diabetes* 2000; 49: 1301–1307.
- Li M, Hener P, Zhang Z, Kato S, Metzger D, Chambon P. Topical vitamin D3 and low-calcemic analogs induce thymic stromal lymphopoietin in mouse keratinocytes and trigger an atopic dermatitis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; 103: 11736–11741.
- Hyppönen E, Sovio U, Wjst M, Patel S, Pekkanen J, Hartikainen AL, et al. Infant vitamin D supplementation and allergic conditions in adulthood: Northern Finland birth cohort 1966. *N Y Acad Sci* 2004; 1037: 84–95.
- Hyppönen E, Läärä E, Reunanen A, Järvelin MR, Virtanen SM. Intake of vitamin D and risk of type 1 diabetes: a birth-cohort study. *Lancet* 2001; 358: 1500–1503.
- Blomquist HK, Frängsmyr A, Hernell O, Stenberg B, Bäck O. Dietary intake of vitamin D during the second half of infancy in Swedish infants. *Scand J Nutr* 2004; 48: 173–177. Available from: www.tandf.co.uk.
- International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood (ISSAC) steering committee. Worldwide variation in prevalence of symptoms of asthma, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis, and atopic eczema: ISAAC. *Lancet* 1998; 351: 1225–1232.
- Rönmark E, Lundbäck B, Jönsson E, Platts-Mills T. Asthma, type-I allergy and related conditions in 7- and 8-year-old children in Northern Sweden: prevalence rates and risk factor pattern. *Resp Med* 1998; 92: 316–324.
- Rothman KJ, editor. *Modern Epidemiology*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1986.
- Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S. Confidence interval estimation of interaction. *Epidemiology* 1992; 3: 452–456.
- De Montis G, Gendrel D, Chemillier-Truong M, Dupont C. Sensitisation to peanut and vitamin D oily preparations. *Lancet* 1993; 341: 1411.

19. De Montis G, Truong M, Toussaint B, Berman D, Toudoire C. Peanut sensitization and oily solution vitamin preparations. *Arch Pediatr* 1995; 2: 25–28.
20. Kull I, Böhme M, Wahlgren C-F, Nordvall L, Pershagen G, Wickman M. Breast-feeding reduces the risk for childhood eczema. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2005; 116: 657–661.
21. Milner JD, Stein DM, McCarter R, Moon RY. Early infant multivitamin supplementation is associated with increased risk for food allergy and asthma. *Pediatrics* 2004; 114: 27–32.
22. Gale CR, Robinson SM, Harvey NC, Javaid MK, Jiang B, Martyn CN, et al. Maternal vitamin D status during pregnancy and child outcomes. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2008; 62: 68–77.
23. Soumelis V, Reche PA, Kanzler H, Yuan W, Edward G, Homey B, et al. Human epithelial cells trigger dendritic cell-mediated allergic inflammation by producing TSLP. *Nat Immunol* 2002; 7: 673–680.
24. Liu YJ. Thymic stromal lymphopoietin: master switch for allergic inflammation. *J Exp Med* 2006; 203: 269–273.
25. Wang TT, Nestel FP, Bourdeau V, Nagai Y, Wang Q, Liao J, et al. Cutting edge: 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D3 is a direct inducer of antimicrobial peptide gene expression. *J Immunol* 2004; 173: 2909–2912.
26. Weber G, Heilborn JD, Chamorro Jimenez CI, Hammarsjö A, Törmä H, Stähle M. Vitamin D induces the antimicrobial protein hCAP18 in human skin. *J Invest Dermatol* 2005; 124: 1080–1082.
27. Muhe L, Lulseged S, Mason KE, Simoes EAF. Case-control study of the role of nutritional rickets in the risk of developing pneumonia in Ethiopian children. *Lancet* 1997; 349: 1801–1804.
28. Wayse V, Yousafzai A, Mogale K, Filteau S. Association of subclinical vitamin D deficiency with severe acute lower respiratory infection in Indian children under 5 y. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 2004; 58: 563–567.
29. Litonjua AA, Weiss ST. Is vitamin D deficiency to blame for the asthma epidemic? *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2007; 120: 1031–1035.