

Original Research Article

MATERNAL VITAMIN D STATUS AND RISK OF PREECLAMPSIA IN ABUJA, NIGERIA.

ABSTRACT

Aim: To determine the relationship between maternal serum 25(OH) D concentrations and development of preeclampsia.

Study design: A cross sectional comparative study.

Place and duration of study: Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Abuja Teaching Hospital, Abuja, between March 2016 and February 2017.

Methodology: We included 55 women with preeclampsia and 55 healthy women. Data obtained included sociodemographic characteristics, clothing style and duration of exposure to sun light. ELISA method was used for evaluation of serum vitamin D levels.

Results: The prevalence of VD deficiency in the population was 15%, while 16.8% and 73% of the participants had insufficient and normal levels respectively. The prevalence of VD deficiency in women with preeclampsia was 20.4% while that in healthy pregnant women was 9.4% ($P=.19$). The mean serum 25-OH-D level of women with pre-eclampsia was significantly lower than that of healthy women (34.5 ± 14.9 vs. 43.5 ± 15.1 , $P = .003$). Preeclamptic women with vitamin D insufficiency delivered at a higher gestational age than those with vitamin D deficiency ($37.67(2.77)$ weeks vs. $33.55(2.38)$ weeks respectively, $P=.007$). In the adjusted analysis of cases with vitamin D deficiency, the odds of developing preeclampsia was not statistically significant [odds ratio (OR) = 3.27, CI = 0.99-10.83, $P=.05$]. However, the odds of developing preeclampsia in women with Vitamin D insufficiency was statistically significant (OR = 3.20, CI = 1.02–10.06, = 0.046).

Conclusion: An association between vitamin D deficiency and preeclampsia was not demonstrated in this study. The results however suggest that maternal vitamin D insufficiency in late pregnancy is an independent risk factor for preeclampsia.

Keywords: Vitamin D, Vitamin D status, preeclampsia, Abuja, Nigeria.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, emerging data have suggested that vitamin D is not only critical for the maintenance of bone health and for calcium and phosphate homeostasis, but also imposes multisystem regulatory effects that modulate overall well-being and health. This is seen in the growing body of literature that suggests that an individual's vitamin D status may adversely impact reproductive functions. Preeclampsia remains a significant contributor to maternal morbidity and mortality^{1, 2} and this has made its primary prevention a subject of active research. With regard to this, efforts have been directed on the use of anti-inflammatory agents and micronutrients, including vitamin D.³

Vitamin D and its active metabolites are now known to act as mediators of immune function in general and as such, more recently, associations between low vitamin D status and increased risk for various non-skeletal morbidities have been recognized^{4, 5, 6}. Studies have suggested that vitamin D deficiency might be a risk factor for preeclampsia⁷ and plausible mechanisms include its role in calcium metabolism, increased production of inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α and decreased function of T-regulatory cells which result in abnormal trophoblastic invasion^{7, 8}.

Vitamin D deficiency has been found in up to 50% of pregnant women and it has also been noted to have increased incidence among persons of African American race⁵. Other factors that have been suggested to affect vitamin D levels include use of sunscreen, decreased sun exposure, insufficient dietary intake, covering dressing style, effect of northern latitude and seasonal changes^{9, 10, 11}.

Although results from studies investigating the link between 25(OH) D levels and adverse pregnancy outcomes are contradictory more studies are beginning to reveal that vitamin D deficiency may be risk factor for preeclampsia^{5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14}. In addition, summaries of evidences^{15, 16} concluded that there was a significant relationship between vitamin D deficiency and increased risk of preeclampsia. Studies from sub-Saharan Africa were however scarce.

In areas like ours, socio-cultural practices, deficient diet and lack of supplementation in the public health clinics may significantly impact vitamin D levels in the pregnant population. All these, coupled with the fact that black women are more likely than white women to develop preeclampsia¹³ justifies the need to carry out this study. Also, because pre-eclampsia is one of the major causes of maternal morbidity and mortality, establishment of this relationship in our environment is pertinent so that specific measures needed to prevent hypovitaminosis D and its attendant complications can be put in place.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study Design

The study was a cross sectional comparative study involving 55 preeclamptic and 55 normotensive women attending antenatal clinic or admitted for delivery in the maternity and labour wards of the University of Abuja Teaching Hospital, Abuja.

50 **Study Location**

51 University of Abuja Teaching Hospital is a government owned tertiary institution situated in Gwagwalada, a high
52 population density area in Abuja, Nigeria's Federal capital territory. Abuja is located between latitudes 8°25' and 9°25' north
53 of the equator and experiences three weather conditions annually. This includes a warm, humid rainy season an intense
54 dry season and a short harmattan season which comes in between. The rainy season begins from April and ends in
55 October, with daytime temperatures reaching 28 °C (82.4 °F) to 30 °C (86.0 °F). In the dry season, daytime temperatures
56 can reach as high as 40 °C (104.0 °F).

57 **Study subjects**

59 Cases were women with a diagnosis of preeclampsia in the third trimester and admitted for delivery. Exclusion Criteria
60 included those with pre-gestational hypertension, renal disease, diabetes mellitus, multiple gestation, patients on
61 anticonvulsants, antiretroviral therapy or those with weight greater than 90kg. The control patients were excluded by the
62 same criteria and comprised of normal healthy pregnant women who had given consent. They were matched according to
63 parity (nulliparous vs multiparous) and gestational age (within 1 week).

64 **Data Collection**

65 Data was collected with the aid of a proforma and included information on sociodemographic characteristics, parity and
66 gestational age. Information on duration of sun exposure and clothing style to reflect percentage body surface area
67 exposed and was also obtained. Examination and investigations carried out were weight, blood pressure, urinalysis and
68 serum vitamin D levels.

69 **Preeclampsia** was defined as systolic blood pressure persistently 140 mm Hg or higher and/or diastolic blood pressure
70 persistently 90 mm Hg or higher for the first time after 20 weeks gestation with proteinuria.

71 **Proteinuria** was defined as a urine sample of 1+ protein or more. 1+ of protein was confirmed by a catheter specimen.

72 **Sun exposure** was considered adequate when a person is exposed for more than 15min while the type of clothing worn
73 reflected the body surface area exposed. According to the rule of nines, the head and neck sun skin exposure accounts
74 for 9%, each arm for 9%, each leg for 18%, and the front and back torso for 18% each.

75 **Specimen Collection**

76 Non fasting blood samples were collected by venipuncture using regular red-top vacutainers. These were allowed to clot
77 and serum separated by centrifugation at room temperature. These were stored at -20°C till time of analysis.

78 **Laboratory method description**

79 Serum vitamin D levels was measured with the Calibiotech, Inc. 25-hydroxy (25-OH) Vitamin D enzyme linked
80 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit, a solid phase ELISA which is based on the principle of competitive binding. Microtitre
81 wells coated with anti-Vitamin D antibody were incubated with Vitamin D standards, controls, patient samples (serum),
82 and vitamin D-Biotin conjugate (biotin-labeled vitamin D) at room temperature for 90 minutes. During this incubation, a
83 fixed amount of the biotin-labeled vitamin D competes with the endogenous Vitamin D in the patient's sample, standard,
84 or quality control serum for a fixed number of binding sites on the anti-Vitamin D antibody impregnated wells. A wash step
85 was then undertaken and bound Vitamin D-Biotin is detected with Streptavidin-HRP (Horseradish Peroxidase) by the

86 addition of the latter. Streptavidin-HRP conjugate immunologically bound to the well progressively decreases as the
87 concentration of Vitamin D in the specimen increases and vice versa. Unbound SA-HRP conjugate was then removed by
88 decanting the contents of the wells and the wells are washed. Next, a solution of Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) Reagent
89 was added and incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes, leading to the generation of a blue color. The color
90 development was stopped with the addition of a stop solution, and the absorbance measured spectrophotometrically at a
91 wavelength of 450 nm using a microplate reader. The concentration of the standard against the absorbance was plotted,
92 to produce a standard curve and the values of the sample were read off the curve. The color intensity is inversely
93 proportional to the concentration of 25(OH)D in a patient's sample. The assay measured both Vitamin D2 and D3.
94

95 The sensitivity of the test kit was 0.67ng/ml while its intra-assay mean according to the guideline of the kit for high and low
96 human standards was 8.1ng/ml with CV = 3.87%, 25.3ng/ml with CV = 6.36% and 35.9ng/ml with CV = 4.62%. The inter-
97 assay mean was 7.9ng/ml with CV = 4.55%, 23.4ng/ml with CV = 6.95% and 37.6ng/ml with CV = 5.38%.

98
99 Vitamin D deficiency was defined by levels less than 20 ng/ml, while levels between 20 ng/ml and 29 ng/ml were regarded
100 as insufficient and greater than or equal to 30 ng/ml were normal 25-OH-D concentrations^{17, 18}.

102 **Outcome measures**

103 The primary outcome measure was vitamin D deficiency in both groups while secondary outcome was gestational age at
104 delivery among patients with preeclampsia and vitamin D deficiency.

105 **Data analyses**

106 Data analysis was done using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (spss) version 20 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL,USA)
107 software. Continuous variables were presented as mean(SD) while categorical variables were presented as proportions.
108 The analysis of categorical variables was done using the Pearsons chi-square test and Fishers exact test while the
109 independent samples *t*-test and ANOVA test were used for comparing continuous variables between groups. Logistic
110 regression was used to determine the relationship between vitamin D status and risk of preeclampsia after adjusting for
111 potential confounders like age, parity and weight. P value less than .05 was considered statistically significant in all of the
112 analysis.
113
114

115 116 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

117 118 **RESULTS**

119

120 Out of the 110 samples obtained, 54 cases and 53 controls were successfully analyzed. Three cases were excluded
 121 because the results were below the detectable range. Overall, the mean serum 25-OH-D level in the study population was
 122 38.98ng/ml with a range of 14.10ng/ml -83.50ng/ml. Also, the overall prevalence of vitamin D deficiency was 15%, while
 123 16.8% and 68.2% of the participants had insufficient and normal levels respectively.

124

125 The characteristics of the study population are shown in Table 1. Women with preeclampsia had significantly higher blood
 126 pressures compared to the healthy women, ($P < .001$). In addition to age and body weight, other baseline characteristics
 127 like gestational age, educational status, religion and occupation were similar between the two groups.

128

129 **Table 1:** Sociodemographic characteristics of study subjects
 130

Characteristics	Pre-eclampsia	Healthy women	P-value
	n=54	n=53	
	Mean (SD) or n (%)	Mean (SD) or n (%)	
Age(yrs)	30.0(4.9)	29.0(4.9)	.27
Parity	2.8(2.1)	2.2(1.3)	.08
1 st preg	21(38.9)	20(37.7)	.90
>1 preg	33(61.1)	33(62.3)	.90
Gestational age (weeks)	35.4(3.4)	35.5(3.5)	.90
Education			
Illiterate	2(3.7)	0(0.0)	.495
Primary	6(11.1)	3(5.7)	.49
Secondary	16(29.6)	13(24.5)	.67
Tertiary	30(55.6)	37(69.8)	.16
Religion			
Christian	41(75.9)	38(71.7)	.62
Muslim	13(24.1)	15(28.3)	.62
Occupation			
civil servant	18(33.3)	18(34.0)	.95
Trader	15(27.8)	11(20.8)	.40
Artisan	2(3.7)	1(1.9)	.57

House wife	13(24.1)	15(28.3)	.62
Unemployed	1(1.9)	2(3.8)	.62
Student	5(9.3)	6(11.3)	.73
Weight (kg)	73.9(9.9)	74.5(9.2)	.78
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	170.2(16.8)	108.7(10.0)	<.001
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	107.2(13.8)	64.5(8.0)	<.001

Table 2 compares the vitamin D status of the two groups. The prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among women with preeclampsia was 20.4% while that of healthy women was 9.4%. This however was not statistically significant ($P = .19$). The prevalence of Vitamin D insufficiency was also similar in both groups (22.2% vs. 11.3%, $P = .21$ respectively). Conversely, the proportion of healthy women with normal serum vitamin D was significantly higher than in women with preeclampsia (79.2% vs. 57.4%, $P = .03$).

Table 2: Comparison of Vitamin D Status of study subjects

Vitamin D status	Pre-eclampsia	Healthy women	P-value
	n=54 n (%)	n=53 n (%)	
Deficient (<20.0 ng/mL)	11(20.4)	5(9.4)	.19
Insufficient (20.0–29.9 ng/mL)	12(22.2)	6(11.3)	.22
Normal levels(\geq30 ng/mL)	31(57.4)	42(79.2)	.03

Table 3 compares serum vitamin D levels and other associated factors in the study subjects. It shows that the mean serum 25-OH-D levels of women with preeclampsia was significantly lower when compared to that of the healthy women (34.5(14.9) vs. 43.5(15.1), $P = .003$). Other factors related to vitamin D status like time of exposure to sunlight and mean body surface area exposed were similar in both groups, $P = .99$ and $P = .19$ respectively. Within the study population, none of the women were taking vitamin D supplements and so this was not included in the table.

Table 3: Comparison of serum vitamin D levels and other associated factors in study subjects

	Pre-eclampsia	Healthy women	
	n=54	n=53	
Characteristics	Mean (SD) or n (%)	Mean (SD) or n (%)	P-value
Serum Vit D(ng/ml)	34.5(14.9)	43.5(15.1)	.003
Sufficient exposure to sunlight			
<15 mins day ⁻¹	2(3.7)	2(3.8)	.99
>15 mins day ⁻¹	52(96.3)	51(96.2)	
%Body surface area exposed	30.1(12.0)	27.1(11.3)	.19

149 Within the categories of vitamin status of women with preeclampsia, there was a statistically significant difference in
150 gestational age (GA) at delivery as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,51) = 5.153, P = .009$). A Tukey post hoc test
151 revealed that women with vitamin D insufficiency delivered at a statistically significant mean higher gestational age than
152 those with vitamin D deficiency (37.67(2.77) weeks vs. 33.55(2.38) weeks respectively, $P = .007$). There was no statistical
153 significant difference in GA at delivery between the deficient and normal groups ($P = .85$). Other characteristics like age,
154 parity, weight and body surface area exposed were similar within these groups (Table 4).
155

156 **Table 4.** Comparison of maternal characteristics by vitamin D status in pregnant women with preeclampsia
157

Characteristics	25(OH)D Deficiency (<20.0 ng/mL) n=11	25(OH)D Insufficiency (20.0– 29.9 ng/mL) n=12	25(OH)D Normal (≥30 ng/mL) n=31	p-value
Age(yrs)	30.1(5.4)	30.7(4.7)	29.7(4.9)	.86
Parity	2.6(2.5)	2.3(1.8)	3.0(2.0)	.53
Gestational age at delivery (weeks)	33.6(2.4)	37.7(2.8)	35.2(3.4)	.009
Weight (kg)	72.6(6.5)	72.5(10.7)	74.9(10.8)	.82
%BSA exposed	31.1(11.9)	28.2(14.43)	30.5(11.5)	.31

158
159 Following adjustment for age, parity and body weight in a bivariate logistic regression analysis, maternal vitamin D
160 deficiency was not associated with the development of preeclampsia [odds ratio (OR) = 3.27, CI = 0.99-10.83, $P = .05$].
161 On the other hand however, women with vitamin D insufficiency had about a three-fold odd of developing preeclampsia
162 and this was statistically significant (OR = 3.20, CI = 1.02–10.06, $P = .046$) (Table 5). Age, parity and weight were not
163 significantly associated with the development of preeclampsia in this study.

164 **Table 5:** Unadjusted and adjusted ORs for Preeclampsia according to vitamin D status

Serum 25(OH)D level (ng/ml)	Pre-eclampsia n=54 n (%)	Healthy women n=53 n (%)	Unadjusted OR(CI)	p-value	Adjusted ^a OR(CI)	P-value
Deficient <20	11(20.4)	5(9.4)	2.98 (0.94-9.46)	0.064	3.27 (0.99-10.83)	.05
Insufficient 20–29.9	12(22.2)	6(11.3)	2.71 (0.92-8.01)	0.072	3.20 (1.02-10.06)	.046

^aAdjusted for Age, Parity, Weight

Discussion

In this study, vitamin D deficiency was defined by a 25-hydroxy vitamin D level of less than 20 ng per milliliter (50 nmol per liter)¹⁸ and using this set point, a prevalence rate of 15% was recorded. This value is low compared to reports of vitamin D deficiency among pregnant women in literature and one possible explanation for this could be that different cut off points have been used by various researchers. Rates of 42%, 61%, 80% and 60–84% have therefore been reported in northern India¹⁹, New Zealand²⁰, Iran²¹ and Netherlands²² using a threshold of 10ng/ml while rates of about 69-80% have been reported in black pregnant women in studies done in the US²³ and Ethiopia²⁴ using higher cut off points.

It has been suggested that geographic latitude and cloud cover are among significant factors that affect ultraviolet radiation and vitamin D synthesis in the skin¹⁷. This may explain the comparatively low prevalence rate recorded in this study, and this is despite the total lack of multivitamin use among the participants. Another factor that may have contributed to this result was their adequate exposure to sunshine which is in abundance in the area the study was undertaken i.e Abuja. Unfortunately, data from similar geographical region and population to help support our findings appear to be sparse and the conflicting result obtained in Ethiopia²⁴ could be attributed to their clothing habit because the study was carried out in a population which practiced purdah.

With regard to the factors determining amount of serum vitamin D, it seems that effect of latitude, sun exposure and dietary supplementation all have a role to play. This suggestion may seem plausible because the mean serum level of vitamin D in our study was similar to that of the study done in North Carolina⁸ (34.5ng /ml vs. 30 ng/ml). The study in northern Carolina was conducted in a higher altitude area but reported regular intake of supplements while our study was conducted in a low altitude region, among women who did not take supplements but were adequately exposed to sunshine. On the other hand, a study which was conducted in the middle-east²⁵, where about two thirds of the population

189 had insufficient sun exposure and also reported low supplement intake recorded significantly lower serum vitamin D levels
190 (18.1ng/ml) among women with preeclampsia. This highlights the role of vitamin D supplementation, and to further
191 support this are the results of a systematic review and metaanalysis on Vitamin D and development of preeclampsia. The
192 report concluded that low maternal serum 25(OH) D concentrations increased pre-eclampsia risk and that vitamin D
193 supplementation lowers this risk ¹⁶.

194 Another major finding of this study was that women who developed preeclampsia had significantly lower maternal serum
195 25(OH) D compared with healthy women with uncomplicated pregnancies. This is despite suggestions that since the
196 amount of vitamin D is dependent on sunlight exposure, diet and vitamin D supplementation, there are no significant
197 changes in the level of serum vitamin D during pregnancy⁷. Results of some other studies also confirm this^{7,8,12,25} and
198 thus, buttress the important role of vitamin D in the etiology of preeclampsia.

199
200 In order to determine the relationship between vitamin D deficiency and preeclampsia at the point of delivery, the women
201 were categorized based on their serum vitamin D levels. Our findings revealed that there was no relationship between
202 vitamin D deficiency and preeclampsia. However, vitamin D insufficiency was found to be a risk factor for preeclampsia.
203 This result shows a reversal of the overall findings of similar studies with similar prevalence rates ^{7,8,12,25}, and reasons for
204 this may not be so clear. The study by Abedi et al⁷ in Iran had a similar sample size with this study and also had samples
205 taken at delivery but pertinent differences with this study are the fact that it was done in an area of greater latitude and in
206 a population where less than half of the women had sufficient exposure to sunshine. These differences seem to be
207 reflected in their mean serum vitamin D levels which were much lower than what was obtained in this study (17.48 vs.
208 34.5 ng/ml respectively). Similar differences were also noted in the study by Bodner et al.¹² who also recorded a mean
209 level of 18.16ng/ml. Differences may also have been due to different cut off points used for defining vitamin D deficiency
210 in these studies. Our results however were similar to that obtained in a few other studies^{13,26,27}. Take for instance, the
211 study done by Ringrose et al.¹³ did not find any relationship between serum vitamin D status and preeclampsia even
212 though the study was done in a high latitude location and third trimester samples obtained. Their serum vitamin D levels
213 were also lower than that obtained in this study (24.68 vs. 34.5ng/ml). Overall results can therefore be said to vary and
214 reason for this may likely be linked to prevailing factors earlier described. There is therefore the need for more studies to
215 be carried out in populations with similar socio-demographic and geographic characteristics like ours so that we will have
216 more data to compare with.

217
218 This study showed that preeclamptic women who had vitamin D deficiency delivered at a lower gestational age than those
219 who were not. This result may be explained by reports of increased production of inflammatory cytokines in pregnancies
220 complicated by vitamin D deficiency thereby suggesting a possible role for vitamin D in preventing spontaneous preterm
221 birth through anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory effects²⁸. Baker et al.²⁹ tested but failed to prove this hypothesis,
222 but this may have been due to the fact that they had used first trimester samples. There were no differences in other
223 maternal characteristics demonstrated between preeclamptic women with and without vitamin D deficiency in this study
224 and this may have been due to the fact that the two groups were matched by parity and gestational age and women

225 above 90kg were also excluded. Studies that did not match their groups were able to establish significant relationship
226 between serum vitamin D levels and BMI^{7, 13}, age^{7,25} and socioeconomic status²⁵.

228 4. CONCLUSION

229
230 Our study showed that maternal vitamin D deficiency in the third trimester was not associated with preeclampsia. The
231 results however suggest that maternal vitamin D insufficiency in late pregnancy is an independent risk factor for
232 preeclampsia. I recommend that further large, well designed studies and trials be carried out in our environment so as to
233 further corroborate these results. In addition, following results of meta-analysis of studies on vitamin D supplementation
234 alongside recommendations by the Royal college of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists (RCOG)³⁰, Vitamin D
235 supplementation in pregnancy could be considered as a safe and effective means of preventing preeclampsia.

240 COMPETING INTERESTS

241
242 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
243
244

245 ETHICAL APPROVAL (WHERE EVER APPLICABLE)

246
247 Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Abuja Teaching Hospital ethical board (Approval no.
248 UAH/HREC/480).

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