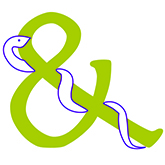
Evidence evaluation report —   
Diet, exercise and weight management in pregnancy

Draft — 1 June 2020



Prepared by Ampersand Health Science Writing for the   
Australian Government Department of Health

**Contents**

1 Process of the review 8

1.1 Research questions 8

1.2 Inclusion and exclusion criteria 9

1.3 Selection of outcomes for GRADE analysis 10

1.4 Quality assessment 11

1.5 Grading of the certainty of the body of evidence 12

2 Dietary advice 13

2.1 **Q1**: What dietary advice should be provided to women in pregnancy, including population-specific groups? 13

2.1.1 Background 13

2.1.2 Dietary patterns 14

2.1.3 Mediterranean diet 15

2.1.4 Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet 16

2.1.5 Vegetarian and vegan diets 16

2.1.6 Fasting 16

2.1.7 Evidence summary 17

2.1.8 Consumer summary 17

2.1.9 Evidence tables 18

2.2 **Q2**: Which foods should be promoted and which avoided during pregnancy? 49

2.2.1 Background 49

2.2.2 Fruit and vegetables 49

2.2.3 Meat 50

2.2.4 Fish 50

2.2.5 Dairy products 51

2.2.6 Carbohydrates 51

2.2.7 Protein 52

2.2.8 Fats 52

2.2.9 Water 52

2.2.10 Sweetened foods and beverages 52

2.2.11 Fast foods 53

2.2.12 Caffeine 53

2.2.13 Potential allergens 53

2.2.14 Evidence summary 54

2.2.15 Consumer summary 55

2.2.16 Evidence tables 56

2.3 **Q3**: What are the harms and benefits of vitamin and mineral supplementation in pregnancy? 92

2.3.1 Vitamins 92

2.3.2 Minerals 97

2.3.3 Evidence statements 101

2.3.4 Evidence tables 103

2.4 **Q4**: What are the harms and benefits of nutritionally based complementary medicines in   
pregnancy? 154

2.4.1 Omega-3 fatty acids 154

2.4.2 Probiotics 156

2.4.3 Herbal preparations 159

2.4.4 Evidence statements 160

2.4.5 Evidence tables 161

3 Physical activity advice 177

3.1 **Q5**: What are the harms and benefits of physical activity during pregnancy? 177

3.1.1 Background 177

3.1.2 Effect on physical fitness and risk of injury 177

3.1.3 Effect on quality of life 177

3.1.4 Effect on common conditions in pregnancy 177

3.1.5 Effect on labour 178

3.1.6 Effect on the infant and child 179

3.1.7 Summary 179

3.1.8 Evidence tables 180

3.2 **Q6**: What physical activities are associated with adverse maternal and perinatal outcomes? 210

3.2.1 Existing guidelines on exercise in pregnancy 210

3.2.2 Any exercise 210

3.2.3 Vigorous exercise 210

3.2.4 Supine exercise 210

3.2.5 Swimming and aqua aerobics 210

3.2.6 Bicycling/horseback riding 211

3.2.7 Occupational activities 211

3.2.8 Evidence summary 212

3.2.9 Evidence tables 213

4 Weight assessment and management 231

4.1 **Q7**: When should maternal weight and height be measured and BMI calculated in pregnant   
women? 231

4.1.1 Review of the IOM guidelines for weight gain in pregnancy 231

4.1.2 Determinants of gestational weight gain 231

4.1.3 Risks associated with low or high gestational weight gain 232

4.1.4 Women’s views on weight gain during pregnancy 234

4.1.5 Health professional’s views on regular weighing as part of pregnancy care 234

4.1.6 Regular weighing 235

4.1.7 Evidence statements 236

4.1.8 Evidence tables 238

4.2 **Q8**: What specific risk assessments are required for pregnant women with high or low BMI at the   
first antenatal visit? 262

4.2.1 Risks associated with pre-pregancy underweight 262

4.2.2 Risks associated with pre-pregnancy healthy weight 262

4.2.3 Risk associated with pre-pregnancy overweight and obesity 262

5 Interventions to prevent excessive weight gain in pregnancy 276

5.1 **Q9**: What lifestyle interventions are effective in preventing excessive weight gain and other   
adverse outcomes in pregnant women? 276

5.1.1 Dietary interventions 276

5.1.2 Exercise interventions 281

5.1.3 Lifestyle counselling on weight gain, diet, exercise and self-monitoring 288

5.1.4 Cost-effectiveness 296

5.1.5 Evidence summary 296

5.1.6 Evidence tables 300

6 Additional considerations 365

6.1 **Q10**: What are the additional needs of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women? 365

6.2 **Q11**: What are the additional considerations for migrant and refugee women? 366

Appendices 367

A Search strategies 367

Dietary advice 367

Physical activity advice (research questions 5, 6 and 9) 392

Weight assessment and management 394

B Assessment of risk of bias in randomised controlled trials 401

Probiotics studies 403

Weight assessment studies 407

Dietary intervention studies 408

Exercise intervention studies 413

Lifestyle counselling intervention studies 434

C Analyses 455

Comparison 1: Probiotics versus placebo 455

Comparison 2: Regular weighing and advice on weight gain versus usual care 458

Comparison 3: Diet versus usual care 459

Comparison 4: Exercise versus usual care 463

Comparison 5: Lifestyle counselling as part of pregnancy care versus usual care alone 470

D Excluded studies 478

Diet (questions 1, 2 and 9) 478

Supplements (question 3) 480

Nutritionally based complementary medicines (question 4) 486

Physical activity (questions 5, 6 and 9) 490

Weight gain and monitoring (question 7) 499

Risk assessments (question 8) 503

Lifestyle counselling (question 9) 506

References 509

**List of tables**

Table 1: Mapping of searches to research questions and type of review 8

Table 2: PICO criteria for inclusion of studies in meta-analyses 9

Table 3: Probiotics — maternal outcomes 10

Table 4: Probiotics — infant outcomes 10

Table 5: Weight monitoring — maternal and infant outcomes 10

Table 6: Interventions to prevent weight gain — maternal outcomes 11

Table 7: Interventions to prevent gestational weight gain — infant outcomes 11

Table 8: Assessment of quality of systematic literature reviews 11

Table 9: Assessment of limitations of randomised controlled trials 12

Table 10: Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — systematic reviews 18

Table 11: Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — RCT 21

Table 12: Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — observational studies 22

Table 13: Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — systematic reviews 33

Table 14: Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — RCT 35

Table 15: Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — observational studies 38

Table 16: Q1 Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet in pregnancy — systematic reviews 43

Table 17: Q1 Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet in pregnancy — observational studies 44

Table 18: Q1 Vegetarian or vegan diets in pregnancy — systematic reviews 45

Table 19: Q1 Vegetarian or vegan diets in pregnancy — observational studies 47

Table 20: Q1 Fasting in pregnancy — systematic review 48

Table 21: Q1 Fasting in pregnancy — observational study 48

Table 22: Q2 Consumption of fruit and vegetables during pregnancy 56

Table 23: Q2 Consumption of meat during pregnancy 63

Table 24: Q2 Consumption of fish during pregnancy 64

Table 25: Q2 Consumption of dairy products during pregnancy 71

Table 26: Q2 Consumption of carbohydrates during pregnancy 74

Table 27: Q2 Consumption of protein during pregnancy 76

Table 28: Q2 Consumption of fats during pregnancy 79

Table 29: Q2 Consumption of sweetened foods and beverages during pregnancy 81

Table 30: Q2 Consumption of fast foods during pregnancy 85

Table 31: Q2 Consumption of water during pregnancy 87

Table 32: Q2 Consumption of caffeine during pregnancy 88

Table 33: Q2 Potential allergens 90

Table 34: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B9 (folic acid) supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 103

Table 35: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B9 (folic acid) supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 113

Table 36: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B6 supplementation in pregnancy — systematic review 115

Table 37: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B12 supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 117

Table 38: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 119

Table 39: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy — RCT 121

Table 40: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin E supplementation — systematic reviews 121

Table 41: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C and vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy —   
systematic reviews 122

Table 42: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C and vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 125

Table 43: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin A supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 125

Table 44: Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin A supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 127

Table 45: Q3 Harms and benefits of multiple micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy —   
systematic reviews 127

Table 46: Q3 Harms and benefits of multiple micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 130

Table 47: Q3 Harms and benefits of iron supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 133

Table 48: Q3 Harms and benefits of iron supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 136

Table 49: Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 139

Table 50: Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 142

Table 51: Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — cost-effectiveness study 143

Table 52: Q3 Harms and benefits of iodine supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 144

Table 53: Q3 Harms and benefits of iodine supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 145

Table 54: Q3 Harms and benefits of zinc supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 147

Table 55: Q3 Harms and benefits of zinc supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 148

Table 56: Q3 Harms and benefits of magnesium supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews 150

Table 57: Q3 Harms and benefits of magnesium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 151

Table 58: Q3 Harms and benefits of selenium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs 152

Table 59: Q4 Use of herbal preparations during pregnancy 161

Table 60: Q4 Supplementation of probiotics during pregnancy — systematic reviews 166

Table 61: Q4 Supplementation of probiotics during pregnancy — RCTs 169

Table 62: Q4 Summary of RCTs included in the probiotics meta-analysis 174

Table 63: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and physical fitness — systematic review 180

Table 64: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and physical fitness — RCTs 181

Table 65: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and quality of life — RCTs 184

Table 66: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and injury — cohort study 186

Table 67: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and incontinence — systematic reviews 187

Table 68: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — systematic reviews 189

Table 69: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — RCT 190

Table 70: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — observational studies 190

Table 71: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and anaemia — RCTs 191

Table 72: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — systematic review 191

Table 73: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — RCT 192

Table 74: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — observational studies 192

Table 75: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and duration of labour — systematic review 193

Table 76: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and duration of labour — RCTs 193

Table 77: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pain during labour — RCTs 200

Table 78: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and perineal tears — RCTs 203

Table 79: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and congenital anomaly — observational studies 206

Table 80: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and macrosomia — observational studies 207

Table 81: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and low birth weight — observational studies 207

Table 82: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and childhood weight 209

Table 83: Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and neurodevelopment of the child 209

Table 84: Q6 Potential adverse effects associated with any exercise — systematic review 213

Table 85: Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy — systematic review 215

Table 86: Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy — RCT 216

Table 87: Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy —   
observational studies 217

Table 88: Q6 Adverse effects associated with supine exercise during pregnancy — systematic review 219

Table 89: Q6 Adverse effects associated with swimming during pregnancy — observational studies 220

Table 90: Q6 Adverse effects associated with bicycling/horseback riding during pregnancy —   
observational studies 221

Table 91: Q6 Adverse effects associated with occupational activities during pregnancy —   
systematic reviews 222

Table 92: Q6 Adverse effects associated with occupational activities during pregnancy —   
observational studies 223

Table 93: Q7 Determinants of gestational weight gain 238

Table 94: Q7 Risks associated with weight gain above or below the IOM guidelines 245

Table 95: Q7 Women’s perceptions and views on weight gain in pregnancy 254

Table 96: Q7 Health professionals’ views on regular weighing in pregnancy 256

Table 97: Q7 Weighing as a stand-alone intervention to reduce weight gain — SLRs 257

Table 98: Q7 Regular weighing and advice on weight gain versus usual care — RCTs 258

Table 99: Q8 Risks associated with low pre-pregnancy BMI — SLRs 263

Table 100: Q8 Risks associated with high pre-pregnancy BMI — SLRs 269

Table 101: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of dietary interventions — maternal outcomes 279

Table 102: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of dietary interventions — infant outcomes 280

Table 103: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of exercise interventions — maternal outcomes 285

Table 104: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of exercise interventions — infant outcomes 287

Table 105: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of lifestyle counselling interventions — maternal outcomes 293

Table 106: Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of lifestyle counselling interventions — infant outcomes 295

Table 107: Q9 Summary of maternal outcomes by intervention 297

Table 108: Q9 Summary of infant outcomes by intervention 298

Table 109: Q9 Outcomes associated with dietary intervention versus usual care in randomised   
controlled trials 300

Table 110: Q9 Outcomes associated with exercise intervention versus usual care in randomised   
controlled trials 305

Table 111: Q9 Outcomes associated with lifestyle counselling interventions versus usual care 327

Table 112: Summary of risk of bias across studies — probiotics 401

Table 113: Summary of risk of bias across studies — weighing 401

Table 114: Summary of risk of bias across studies — dietary interventions 402

Table 115: Summary of risk of bias across studies — exercise interventions 402

Table 116: Summary of risk of bias across studies — lifestyle counselling interventions 402

# Process of the review

This review comprises the results of 19 searches conducted to address 11 research questions. Where possible (ie when a number of comparable randomised controlled trials [RCTs] were identified), meta-analyses were undertaken. The following sections outline the research questions, processes for including and excluding studies, selection of outcomes for GRADE assessment, assessment of study quality and grading of the certainty of the body of evidence. Search strategies are included in Appendix A, assessment of risk of bias of risk of bias in RCTs in Appendix B, analyses for those topics where meta-analysis was conducted in Appendix C and lists of excluded studies in Appendix D.

## Research questions

**Nutrition advice**

Q1 What dietary advice should be provided to women in pregnancy, including population-specific groups?

Q2 Which foods should be promoted and which avoided during pregnancy?

Q3 What are the harms and benefits of vitamin and mineral supplementation in pregnancy?

Q4 What are the harms and benefits of nutritionally based complementary medicines in pregnancy?

**Physical activity advice**

Q5 What are the harms and benefits of physical activity during pregnancy?

Q6 What physical activities are associated with adverse maternal and perinatal outcomes?

**Weight assessment**

Q7 When should maternal weight and height be measured and BMI calculated in pregnant women?

Q8 What specific risk assessments are required for pregnant women with high or low BMI at the first antenatal visit?

**Interventions**

Q9 What lifestyle interventions are effective in preventing excessive weight gain and other adverse outcomes in pregnant women?

**Additional considerations**

Q10 What are the additional considerations for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women?

Q11 What are the additional considerations for migrant and refugee women

1. Mapping of searches to research questions and type of review

| **Question** | **Search** | **Types of studies included** | **Review type** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Question 1 | Diet and pregnancy | Systematic reviews, RCTs, observational studies | Narrative review |
| Question 2 | Diet and pregnancy | Systematic reviews, RCTs, observational studies | Narrative review |
| Question 3 | Folic acid | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| B vitamins | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Vitamin C | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Vitamin E | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Vitamin A | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Multiple micronutrients | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Iron | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Calcium | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Iodine | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Zinc | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Magnesium | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Selenium | Systematic reviews, RCTs, Australian observational studies | Narrative review |
| Question 4 | Omega-3 fatty acids | Recent Cochrane review | Summary of Cochrane review |
| Herbal preparations | Systematic reviews, RCTs, observational studies | Narrative review |
| Probiotics | Systematic reviews of RCTs, RCTs | Meta-analysis |
| Question 5 | Physical activity and pregnancy | Systematic reviews, RCTs, observational studies | Narrative review |
| Question 6 | Physical activity and pregnancy | Systematic reviews, RCTs, observational studies | Narrative review |
| Question 7 | Gestational weight gain | Determinants of gestational weight gain; women’s and health professionals’ views on gestational weight gain: Systematic reviews, observational studies  Risks associated with low or high gestational weight gain: Systematic reviews, RCTs | Narrative review |
| Weight monitoring | Systematic reviews of RCTs, RCTs | Meta-analysis |
| Question 8 | Risk assessments | Systematic reviews of RCTs, RCTs | Narrative review |
| Question 9 | Diet and pregnancy | Systematic reviews of RCTs, RCTs | Meta-analysis |
| Physical activity and pregnancy |
| Question 10 | All searches | All identified studies relevant to Australian context | Narrative review |
| Question 11 |

## Inclusion and exclusion criteria

1. PICO criteria for inclusion of studies in meta-analyses

#### Probiotics

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Population** | **Intervention** | **Comparator** | **Outcomes** | **Study designs** |
| Pregnant women who are apparently healthy in early pregnancy | Probiotic supplement | Placebo or usual care | Health or clinical outcomes, including longer term outcomes for the mother and child | RCTs  Systematic reviews of RCTs |

#### Weight assessment

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Population** | **Intervention** | **Comparator** | **Outcomes** | **Study designs** |
| Pregnant women who are apparently healthy in early pregnancy | Regular weighing as part of antenatal care plus advice on weight gain | Usual care | Health or clinical outcomes, including longer term outcomes for the mother and child | RCTs  Systematic reviews of RCTs |

#### Interventions to prevent gestational weight gain

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Population** | **Intervention** | **Comparator** | **Outcomes** | **Study designs** |
| Pregnant women who are apparently healthy in early pregnancy | Intervention related to changes in diet | Usual care | Health or clinical outcomes, including longer term outcomes for the mother and child | RCTs  Systematic reviews of RCTs |
| Intervention to increase physical activity |
| Combined intervention with dietary and physical activity components |

Exclusion criteria outlined below were applied.

* Not in English
* Duplicate
* Narrative review, opinion piece, letter, editorial
* Wrong setting (ie not antenatal care)
* Wrong intervention
* Wrong study design (question specific; see above)
* Wrong outcomes
* Wrong population
* Wrong comparator
* Systematic literature review with all studies included in another systematic review
* RCT included in a systematic review
* Does not answer research question

The excluded studies are listed in Appendix D.

## Selection of outcomes for GRADE analysis

1. Probiotics — maternal outcomes

| **Outcome** | **Importance** | **Inclusion** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Gestational diabetes | 9 | ☑ |
| Gestational hypertension | 9 | ☑ |
| Pre-eclampsia | 5 | ☑ |
| Bacterial vaginosis | 5 | ☑ |
| Group B streptococcus | 7 | ☑ |
| Caesarean section | 9 | ☑ |

1. Probiotics — infant outcomes

| **Outcome** | **Importance** | **Inclusion** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Perinatal death | 9 | ☑ |
| Preterm birth | 9 | ☑ |
| Small for gestational age | 9 | ☑ |
| Large for gestational age | 9 | ☑ |
| Macrosomia | 9 | ☑ |

1. Weight monitoring — maternal and infant outcomes

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Outcome — Maternal** | **Importance** | **Inclusion** |
| Excess gestational weight gain | 5 | ☑ |
| Mean gestational weight gain (weekly) | 5 | ☑ |
| Gestational diabetes | 9 | ☑ |
| Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy | 5 | ☑ |
| Depression | 7 | ☑ |
| Anxiety | 5 | ☑ |
| Macrosomia | 9 | ☑ |

1. Interventions to prevent weight gain — maternal outcomes

| **Outcome** | **Importance** | **Inclusion** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Mean gestational weight gain | 5 | ☑ |
| Excess gestational weight gain | 5 | ☑ |
| Gestational diabetes | 9 | ☑ |
| Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy | 5 | ☑ |
| Caesarean section | 9 | ☑ |
| Depression (antenatal and postnatal) | 7 | ☑ |
| Postnatal weight retention | 5 | ☑ |

1. Interventions to prevent gestational weight gain — infant outcomes

| **Outcome** | **Importance** | **Inclusion** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Preterm birth | 9 | ☑ |
| Low birthweight | 9 | ☑ |
| Macrosomia | 9 | ☑ |
| Large for gestational age | 9 | ☑ |
| Small for gestational age | 9 | ☑ |
| Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes | 7 | ☑ |
| Early childhood weight | 5 | ☑ |

**Key**: 1 – 3 less important; 4 – 6 important but not critical for making a decision; 7 – 9 critical for making a decision

## Quality assessment

Quality of included studies was assessed using adapted NHMRC criteria for quality assessment of systematic reviews and GRADE criteria for quality assessment of randomised controlled trials and observational studies.

1. Assessment of quality of systematic literature reviews

|  |
| --- |
| **Considerations in assessing quality of systematic reviews** |
| Questions and methods clearly stated |
| Search procedure sufficiently rigorous to identify all relevant studies |
| Review includes all the potential benefits and harms of the intervention |
| Review only includes randomised controlled trials |
| Methodological quality of primary studies assessed |
| Data summarised to give a point estimate of effect and confidence intervals |
| Differences in individual study results are adequately explained |
| Examination of which study population characteristics (disease subtypes, age/sex groups) determine the magnitude of effect of the intervention is included |
| Reviewers’ conclusions are supported by data cited |
| Sources of heterogeneity are explored |

Source: Adapted from NHMRC 2000a; 2000b; SIGN 20041-3.

1. Assessment of limitations of randomised controlled trials

| **Study limitation** | **Explanation** |
| --- | --- |
| Lack of allocation concealment | Those enrolling patients are aware of the group (or period in a crossover trial) to which the next enrolled patient will be allocated (a major problem in “pseudo” or “quasi” randomised trials with allocation by day of week, birth date, chart number, etc.). |
| Lack of blinding | Patient, caregivers, those recording outcomes, those adjudicating outcomes, or data analysts are aware of the arm to which participants are allocated. |
| Incomplete accounting of patients and outcome events | Loss to follow-up and failure to adhere to the intention-to-treat principle in superiority trials; or in noninferiority trials, loss to follow-up, and failure to conduct both analyses considering only those who adhered to treatment, and all patients for whom outcome data are available.  The significance of particular rates of loss to follow-up, however, varies widely and is dependent on the relation between loss to follow-up and number of events. The higher the proportion lost to follow-up in relation to intervention and control group event rates, and differences between intervention and control groups, the greater the threat of bias. |
| Selective outcome reporting | Incomplete or absent reporting of some outcomes and not others on the basis of the results. |
| Other limitations | Stopping trial early for benefit. Substantial overestimates are likely in trials with fewer than 500 events and large overestimates are likely in trials with fewer than 200 events. Empirical evidence suggests that formal stopping rules do not reduce this bias.  Use of unvalidated outcome measures (e.g. patient-reported outcomes)  Carryover effects in crossover trial  Recruitment bias in cluster-randomised trials |

Source: Schünemann et al 20134.

## Grading of the certainty of the body of evidence

Assessing the certainty of a body of evidence using GRADE involves consideration of the following five domains: risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision and publication bias.

For an evidence base drawn from RCTs, the grading of the certainty of the body of evidence starts at ‘high’. An evidence base drawn from observational studies starts as ‘low’. In both cases, the evidence can be downgraded for each of the five domains depending on whether the limitation is considered serious (downgrade one level) or very serious (downgrade two levels). Evidence can also be upgraded when the effect is large (upgrade one level) or very large (upgrade two levels), where confounders would reduce the effect or where there is a dose-response effect.

# Dietary advice

## **Q1**: What dietary advice should be provided to women in pregnancy, including population-specific groups?

### Background

Australian cross-sectional studies have identified low levels of awareness of dietary guidelines during pregnancy among women and limited dietary counselling by health professionals.

* Results from a web-based questionnaire (n=116),5 showed that pregnancy nutrition knowledge was associated with education (p<0.05) and income (p<0.05). Only 2% of pregnant women achieved nutrition knowledge scores over 80%. Few women (30%) received nutrition advice during their pregnancy.
* Another Australian web-based survey (n=857)6 found that only some women met the recommendations for fruit (56%), dairy (29%) and other core food groups (<10%). None of the women met the recommendations for all five food groups. Women who were born overseas and who were less physically active pre-pregnancy were less likely to adhere to the fruit and dairy recommendations. Women who smoked during pregnancy, were overweight pre-pregnancy and had lower household incomes were also less likely to meet the fruit recommendations; and women living in metropolitan areas were less likely to meet the vegetable recommendations. Sixty-one per cent believed their diet during this pregnancy was healthy.
* In a study using data from the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (n=1,999),7 half of pregnant women met 2013 Australian Dietary Guidelines for fruit but low percentages reached guidelines for dairy (22%), meat and alternatives (10%), cereals (2.5%) and vegetables (1.7%).
* A Victorian study comparing the dietary intake of pregnant women to the 2013 Australian Dietary Guidelines (n=1,570)8 found that only some women met the recommended daily servings for fruit (65.7%), dairy products (55.2%), meat/meat alternatives (31.1%), vegetables (10.3%) and grain foods (1.8%) and that most women (83.8%) regularly consumed up to 2.5 serves of discretionary foods per day. Only one woman met the minimum recommended daily servings for all five food groups. Women were more likely to consume an inadequate diet if they were obese (aOR 2.13, 95% CI 1.53 to 2.95) and less likely to consume an inadequate diet if they had a university degree (aOR 0.63, 95% CI 0.50 to 0.78).
* In another Victorian study that assessed pregnancy nutrition recommendation knowledge and nutrition education practices of antenatal care providers (n=202)9 women reported receiving limited nutrition advice and clinicians reported that they provided limited nutrition advice due to time constraints, limited nutrition knowledge and a lack of nutrition training.
* In a cross-sectional study in New South Wales (n=326), only some women were aware of the recommended number of serves for fruit and vegetables (46.6%), bread and cereals (34.4%) and protein (28.8%)10 and demonstrated poor adherence to guidelines.11 Knowledge of selected recommendations increased the likelihood of consumption of fruit (OR 8; 95%CI 2.3 to 27.7), vegetables (OR 9.1; 95%CI 2.6 to 31.3) and bread and cereals (OR 6.8; 95%CI 3.4 to 13.7).11

Identifying women with an 'unhealthy' dietary pattern in early pregnancy affords the opportunity for a dietary intervention which may positively affect both maternal and infant health. An Irish cohort study12 found that women with a 'health conscious' dietary pattern were older and had lower BMI and higher education than those with an 'unhealthy' dietary pattern. A study in New Zealand also found that a ‘health conscious’ dietary pattern was associated with increasing age, better self-rated health, lower pre-pregnancy BMI and not smoking.13

Women tended to continue the dietary pattern they followed in the first trimester into subsequent trimesters — 'unhealthy' dietary patterns were continued by 72% of women in the second trimester and 56.6% in the third trimester and 'health conscious' dietary patterns were continued by 66.9% of women in the second trimester and 48.6 % in the third trimester.12

A review interventions targeting improving nutrition-related outcomes for pregnant Indigenous women residing in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development countries,14 found that programs with statistically significant results for low birthweight employed the following nutrition activities: individual counselling/education; delivery by senior Indigenous woman, peer counsellor or other Indigenous health worker; community-wide interventions; media campaigns; delivery by non-Indigenous health professional; and home visits.

### Dietary patterns

A range of studies have compared the outcomes associated with highest versus lowest tertiles or quartiles of specific dietary patterns.

#### Gestational diabetes

A systematic review (without meta-analysis)15 suggested that a dietary pattern rich in fruit, vegetables, whole grains, and fish and low in red and processed meat, refined grains and high-fat dairy was beneficial in reducing risk of gestational diabetes.

An RCT16 found an association between increased risk of gestational diabetes and a dietary pattern high in chocolate, chips, green vegetables, potatoes, processed meat and meat products, root vegetables, sweetened beverages, artificially sweetened beverages and hot potato chips (OR 2.05; 95% CI 1.23, 3.41).

Cohort studies have found associations between increased risk of gestational diabetes and dietary patterns:

* high in protein and low in carbohydrate intake (aOR 1.83; 95%CI 1.21 to 2.79; P trend=0.007; n=2,755)17
* high in refined grains, fats, oils and fruit juice (aOR 4.9; 95%CI 1.4 to 17.0; n=166)18
* high in nuts, seeds, fat and soybean and low in milk and cheese (aOR 7.5; 95%CI 1.8 to 32.3; n=166)18
* high in added sugar and organ meats and low in fruits, vegetables and seafood (aOR 22.3; 95%CI 3.9 to 127.4; n=166)18

A dietary pattern low in protein and high in carbohydrates was associated with a lower risk of gestational diabetes (aOR 0.54; 95%CI 0.36 to 0.83; P trend=0.010; n=2,755).17

A dietary pattern high in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, low-fat dairy, breakfast bars, and water was negatively associated with maternal insulin (µU/mL: ß -0.12; 95%CI -0.23 to -0.01; n=513) and HOMA-IR (ß -0.13; 95%CI -0.25 to -0.00; n=513) but not glucose (ß 0.86; 95%CI -2.64 to 0.92; n=513).19

Case-control studies have found an increased risk of gestational diabetes associated with dietary patterns:

* high in sweets, jams, mayonnaise, soft drinks, salty snacks, solid fat, high-fat dairy products, potatoes, organ meat, eggs, red meat, processed foods, tea and coffee (aOR 1.68, 95%CI 1.04 to 2.27; n=368)20.
* high in mayonnaise, soft drinks, pizza, sugar (aOR 2.838, 95% CI 1.039 to 7.751; p=0.042; n=204)21

A dietary pattern high in leafy green vegetables, fruits, poultry, fish was associated with a lower risk of gestational diabetes (aOR 0.284, 95%CI 0.096 to 0.838; p=0.023; n=204).21

#### Gestational hypertension

A systematic review (without meta-analysis)22 suggested a beneficial effect of a diet rich in fruit and vegetables on pre-eclampsia, although not all the results were statistically significant.

A large cohort study (n=55,139)23 found that a dietary pattern characterised by high consumption of fish and vegetables was associated with a lower risk of gestational hypertension (OR 0.86; 95%CI 0.77 to 0.95) and pre-eclampsia (OR 0.79; 95%CI 0.65 to 0.97) while a dietary pattern characterised by high consumption of potatoes (including hot potato chips), mixed meats, margarine and white bread increased risk of gestational hypertension (OR 1.18; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.33) and pre-eclampsia (OR 1.40; 95% CI 1.11 to 1.76).

An Australian cohort study (n=1,907),24 found that women with the highest Australian Recommended Food Score had the lowest risk of developing gestational hypertension (OR 0.4; 95 % CI 0.2 to 0.7).

#### Depression

A cross-sectional study (n=1,744)25 found an association between lower risk of depression and high intake of green and yellow vegetables, other vegetables, mushrooms, pulses, seaweed, potatoes, fish, sea products, miso soup and shellfish (aRR 0.56; 95%CI 0.43 to 0.73, p<0.0001). Another cross-sectional study (n=167)26 found a significant path between an ‘unhealthy’ diet at around 16 weeks gestation and depressive symptoms at the same time point (β 0.16, p<0.05, 95%CI 0.02 to 0.30); higher ‘unhealthy’ dietary pattern scores were related to higher depressive symptoms. A third cross-sectional study (n=253)27 found that antenatal diet quality as measured by intake of food groups associated with a healthy diet was not associated with postpartum depressive symptoms at 12 months postpartum.

#### Fetal growth and preterm birth

A narrative systematic review28 found that diets higher in vegetables, fruits, whole grains, nuts, legumes and seafood and lower in red and processed meats and fried foods were associated with a lower risk of preterm birth and spontaneous preterm birth.

A systematic review of observational studies29 found that dietary patterns:

* high in vegetables, fruits, wholegrains, low-fat dairy, and lean protein foods-were associated with lower risk of preterm birth (OR 0.79; 95% CI 0.68 to 0.91) and a weak trend towards a lower risk of small-for-gestational-age (OR 0.86; 95%CI 0.73 to 1.01)
* high in refined grains, processed meat and foods high in saturated fat or sugar-were associated with lower birth weight (MD -40 g; 95%CI -61 to -20 g) and a trend towards a higher risk of preterm birth (OR 1.17; 95%CI 0.99 to 1.39).

An RCT (n=1,032)16 found no clear increases or decreases in risk of large for gestational age, small for gestational age or macrosomia for any dietary pattern.

A cohort study (n=59,949)30 observed a consistent dose-response association between a dietary pattern high in meat and fats and low in fruits and vegetables and induced preterm birth (aOR 1.66, 95%CI 1.30 to 2.11) but no clear association with spontaneous preterm birth (aOR 1.18, 95%CI 0.99 to 1.39).

A cohort study (n=66,000)31 found that a “prudent” dietary pattern characterised by high intake of vegetables, fruits, oils, water as beverage, whole grain cereals and fibre-rich bread was associated with significantly reduced risk of preterm birth for the highest versus the lowest third (HR 0.88; 95%CI 0.80 to 0.97). The "traditional" (Norwegian; fish, potatoes) pattern was also associated with reduced risk of preterm birth for the highest versus the lowest third (HR 0.91, 0.83 to 0.99). A further analysis (n=65,904),32 found that the high prudent pattern was associated with increased risk of small for gestational age (OR 1.25; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.54) and decreased risk of large for gestational age (OR 0.84; 95%CI 0.75 to 0.94), while the high traditional group was associated with decreased risk of small for gestational age (OR 0.92; 95% CI 0.84 to 0.99) and increased risk of large for gestational age (OR 1.12; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.24). In the same study, the "main meal" pattern was associated with a reduced risk of preterm birth (HR 0.90; 95%CI 0.81 to 0.99; p for trend=0.028).33

A cohort study (n=1,051)34 found no association between diet quality and preterm birth (ß 0.91; 0.75 to 1.11) or birth weight (ß -2.00; -22.57 to 18.57).

In an Australian cohort study (n=1,907),24 women with the highest Australian Recommended Food Score had the lowest odds of having a baby of low birth weight (OR 0.4; 95%CI 0.2 to 0.9).

In a cohort study (n=862)35 increased diet quality appeared linearly associated with a reduced likelihood of small for gestational age (P-trend=0.03), although each quartile comparison did not reach statistical significance

#### Childhood outcomes

Results of a systematic review36 indicated a small positive association between better maternal diet quality during pregnancy and child functioning (p<0.0001).

Cohort studies found associations between:

* higher BMI-for-age z score at birth and high intake of white bread, red and processed meats, fried chicken, French fries, and vitamin C-rich drinks versus high intake of fruits, vegetables, baked chicken, whole-wheat bread, low-fat dairy and water (ß -0.41; 95% CI: -0.79 to -0.03; n=389)37
* reduced risk of developing allergen sensitisation at both 18 months (aOR 0.7; 95%CI0.5 to 0.9; n=735) at 36 months (aOR 0.7; 95%CI0.6 to -0.9; n=735) and high intake of seafood and noodles.38

A cohort study (n=2,695)39 found that associations between maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and body composition of the child at age 6 years are to a large extent explained by sociodemographic and lifestyle factors of mother and child. A cohort study (n=2,592)40 suggested that there are no consistent independent associations of maternal dietary patterns with offspring cardiometabolic health at 6 years.

### Mediterranean diet

The Mediterranean diet is generally characterised by a high intake of fruit, vegetables, nuts, cereals and olive oil, a moderate intake of fish and poultry, and low intakes of dairy products, red and processed meats and sweets.

Systematic reviews have found associations between adherence to the Mediterranean diet in pregnancy and reduced risk of gestational diabetes (OR 0.57; 95%CI 0.41 to 0.79; 10 observational studies; n=124,959)41 and wheeze in the infant in the first 12 months (OR 0.92; 95%CI 0.88 to 0.95; 3 studies).42

An RCT comparing the Mediterranean diet with additional extra virgin olive oil and pistachios with a standard diet with limited fat intake (n=874)43 found a clear difference in risk of gestational diabetes (aRR 0.75; 95%CI 0.57 to 0.98; p=0.039). The intervention group also had reduced rates of insulin-treated gestational diabetes, preterm birth, emergency caesarean section, perineal trauma, and small and large for gestational age newborns (all p<0.05).

Post-hoc analysis of the RCT44 found a linear association between high, moderate, and low adherence to the Mediterranean diet and a lower risk of gestational diabetes, urinary tract infections, preterm birth and small-for-gestational-age (all p < 0.05). Sub-analysis of results for normoglycaemic women45 found that high versus low adherence was associated with a significantly lower risk of urinary tract infections, emergency caesarean-section, perineal trauma, large-for-gestational-age and small-for-gestational-age (all p<0.05).

Observational studies were consistent in finding an association between adherence to the Mediterranean diet and lower risk of small for gestational age46 and preterm birth,47 although one study only found an association between reduced risk of preterm birth among women who were overweight or obese.48

Studies into childhood growth found an association between maternal Mediterranean diet score and lower waist circumference, 49,50 skinfold thickness49 and risk of accelerated growth51 but were inconsistent about the effect on BMI z-score.49,50 Studies into child cardiometabolic risk were also inconsistent, with one study finding a potential protective effect49 and another finding no association with child cardiometabolic risk.51

Observational studies did not find an association between adherence to the Mediterranean and childhood wheeze,52,53 rhinitis,53 dermatitis53 or eczema.52

### Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet

The DASH diet is characterised by high intake of vegetables, fruits and low-fat dairy foods and moderate amounts of whole grains, fish, poultry and nuts.

A systematic review54 found that, in the absence of gestational weight gain advice, fasting glucose improved in DASH-style diets compared to standard care (MD -0.47; 95%CI -0.73 to -0.21; 3 studies; n=99; moderate certainty). However, a small cohort study (n=513) found no association between DASH score and fasting glucose (ß 0.29; 95%CI -1.46 to 2.04).

Cohort studies found that greater adherence to the DASH diet was:

* not associated with reductions in risk of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (OR 1.00; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.03), gestational diabetes (OR 1.01; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.06), preterm birth (OR 0.99; 95%CI 0.95 to 1.03), small for gestational age (OR 0.97; 95%CI 0.93 to 1.02) or large for gestational age (OR 0.99; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.02)
* negatively associated with maternal triglycerides (mg/dL) (ß 0.11; 95%CI 0.19 to 0.02), insulin (ß 0.07; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.04), HOMA-IR (ß 0.06; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.06) or cholesterol (ß 2.93; 95%CI 13.95 to 8.08)19
* associated with decreased odds of preterm birth (aOR for quartile 4 vs quartile 1: 0.59; 95% CI 0.40 to 0.85).37

### Vegetarian and vegan diets

A narrative review of vegetarian and vegan diets in pregnancy found inconsistency in results on birthweight, similar duration of pregnancy between vegan-vegetarian and omnivorous diets and a suggestion of risk of vitamin B12 and iron deficiency with vegan-vegetarian diets.55 Another review found lower zinc intakes among vegetarian versus non-vegetarian women.56 However, neither group met the recommended daily allowance for zinc and there were no differences in serum/plasma zinc or in functional outcomes associated with pregnancy.56

A cohort study57 found that a plant-based dietary pattern was inversely associated with birth weight (ß -67.6 g per 1-unit increase; P<0.001). An interaction with non-white ethnicity and birth weight was observed — among white Europeans, maternal consumption of a plant-based diet was associated with lower birth weight (ß -65.9 g per 1-unit increase; P<0.001), increased risk of small-for-gestational age (OR 1.46; 95% CI 1.08 to 1.54; P=0.005) and reduced risk of large-for-gestational age (OR 0.71; 95% CI 0.53 to 0.95; P=0.02). Among South Asians, maternal consumption of a plant-based diet was associated with a higher birth weight (ß +40.5 g per 1-unit increase; P=0.01), partially explained by cooked vegetable consumption.

### Fasting

A systematic review58 found that fasting during Ramadan did not increase the risk of preterm birth (OR 0.99, 95% CI 0.72 to 1.37; 5 studies) or low birth weight (OR 1.05; 95%CI 0.87 to 1.28; 8 studies).

### Evidence summary

Australian cross-sectional studies have identified low levels of awareness of dietary guidelines during pregnancy among women and limited dietary counselling by health professionals.

Studies investigating outcomes associated with dietary patterns were heterogeneous in the patterns that they identified. However, dietary patterns associated with positive outcomes were generally characterised by high intake of fruits, vegetables, legumes, wholegrains, fish, seafood, lean meats, low-fat dairy and water. Dietary patterns associated with poorer outcomes included those high in sweetened foods and beverages, foods high in saturated fats (eg fried foods), red and processed meats and refined grains.

Outcomes positively affected by a healthy dietary pattern and negatively affected by an unhealthy dietary pattern included gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension and antenatal depression. The evidence was inconsistent on the association between dietary pattern in pregnancy and preterm birth, fetal and childhood growth, cardiometabolic health and childhood wheeze.

Systematic reviews into vegan-vegetarian diets found inconsistency in results on birthweight, similar duration of pregnancy between vegan-vegetarian and omnivorous diets and a suggestion of risk of iron, zinc and vitamin B12 deficiency with vegan-vegetarian diets.

A systematic review found that fasting during Ramadan did not increase the risk of preterm birth or low birth weight.

### Consumer summary

Dietary patterns characterised by high intake of fruits, vegetables, legumes, wholegrains, fish, seafood, lean meats, low-fat dairy and water are associated with positive pregnancy outcomes (including lower risk of gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, depression, preterm birth and low birth weight). Dietary patterns high in sweetened foods and beverages, foods high in saturated fats (eg fried foods), red and processed meats and refined grains are associated with poorer outcomes (eg gestational diabetes, depression).

Women with vegan-vegetarian diets may be at risk of iron, zinc and vitamin B12 deficiency.

Fasting during Ramadan does not appear to increase the risk of preterm birth or low birth weight.

### Evidence tables

1. Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Borge et al 201736 | 18 studies  63,861 women | **Aim**: To provide a quantitative summary of the literature exploring the relationship between maternal diet quality during pregnancy and child cognitive and affective outcomes.  **Methods**: Relevant studies were identified through a systematic literature search in relevant databases. All studies investigating maternal diet quality during pregnancy in relation to child cognitive or affective functioning in children of elementary school age or younger were assessed for inclusion. | The results indicated a small positive association between better maternal diet quality during pregnancy and child functioning. The overall summary effect size was Hedges’ g=0.075 (p<0.0001) adjusted for publication bias (unadjusted g=0.112 (p=0.0001)). | Child diet was not systematically controlled for in the majority of the studies. |
| Chia et al 201929  SLR of observational studies | 25 studies  167,507 women | **Aim:** Findings on the relations of maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth and offspring birth size remain inconclusive. We aimed to systematically review and quantify these associations.  **Methods**: We searched MEDLINE, Embase, CENTRAL, and CINAHL up to December 2017. Summary effect sizes were calculated with random effects models and studies were summarised narratively if results could not be pooled. | Healthy dietary patterns-characterised by high intakes of vegetables, fruits, wholegrains, low-fat dairy, and lean protein foods-were associated with lower risk of preterm birth (OR for top compared with bottom tertile: 0.79; 95% CI: 0.68 to 0.91; I2=32%) and a weak trend towards a lower risk of small-for-gestational-age (OR: 0.86; 95%CI: 0.73 to 1.01; I2=34%).  Unhealthy dietary patterns-characterised by high intakes of refined grains, processed meat, and foods high in saturated fat or sugar-were associated with lower birth weight (MD -40 g; 95% CI: -61, -20 g; I2=0%) and a trend towards a higher risk of preterm birth (OR: 1.17; 95%CI: 0.99 to 1.39; I2=76%).  No consistent associations with birth weight or small- or large-for-gestational-age were observed. |  |
| Raghavan et al 201928 | 11 gestational age:  1 RCT  7 cohort  21 birthweight:  2 RCTs  19 cohorts | **Aim:** To assess the relationships between dietary patterns before and during pregnancy and 1) gestational age at birth and 2) gestational age- and sex-specific birth weight.  **Methods**: Literature was searched from January 1980 to January 2017 in 9 databases including PubMed, Embase, and Cochrane. Two analysts independently screened articles using predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria. Data were extracted from included articles and risk of bias was assessed. Data were synthesised qualitatively, a conclusion statement was drafted for each question, and evidence supporting each conclusion was graded. | Limited but consistent evidence suggests that certain dietary patterns during pregnancy are associated with a lower risk of preterm birth and spontaneous preterm birth. These protective dietary patterns are higher in vegetables; fruits; whole grains; nuts, legumes, and seeds; and seafood (preterm birth, only), and lower in red and processed meats, and fried foods.  No conclusion can be drawn on the association between dietary patterns during pregnancy and birth weight outcomes. Although research is available, the ability to draw a conclusion is restricted by inconsistency in study findings, inadequate adjustment of birth weight for gestational age and sex, and variation in study design, dietary assessment methodology, and adjustment for key confounding factors. |  |
| Schoenaker et al 201422 | 16 studies | Aim**:** To synthesise evidence from observational studies of reproductive-aged women on the association between dietary factors and HDP.  **Methods**: MEDLINE and EMBASE were searched to identify studies published until the end of May 2014. Studies were included if they were observational studies of reproductive-age women and reported results on dietary factors (energy, nutrients, foods or overall dietary patterns, alone or in combination with dietary supplements) and gestational hypertension and/or pre-eclampsia. Studies were excluded if they reported on supplements not in combination with dietary intake, or examined a biomarker of dietary intake. Random effects meta-analyses were performed on calculated weighted mean differences (WMD) of dietary intake between cases and non-cases, and effect estimates were pooled. | A few studies examining foods and dietary patterns suggested a beneficial effect of a diet rich in fruit and vegetables on pre-eclampsia, although not all the results were statistically significant. | Studies could not be pooled in a meta-analysis because of differences in the foods or patterns examined or different units of exposure. |
| Schoenaker et al 201615 | 21 studies | **Aim**: To synthesise evidence from observational studies on the associations between dietary factors and GDM.  **Methods**: Medline and Embase were searched for articles published until January 2015. We included observational studies of reproductive-aged women that reported on associations of maternal dietary intake before or during pregnancy, including energy, nutrients, foods, and dietary patterns, with GDM. All relevant results were extracted from each article. The number of comparable studies that adjusted for confounders was insufficient to perform a meta-analysis. | A limited number of prospective cohort studies adjusting for confounders indicated associations with a higher risk of GDM for replacing 1-5% of energy from carbohydrates with fat and for high consumption of cholesterol (>/=300 mg/day), heme iron (>/=1.1 mg/day), red and processed meat (increment of 1 serving/day), and eggs (>/=7 per week). A dietary pattern rich in fruit, vegetables, whole grains, and fish and low in red and processed meat, refined grains, and high-fat dairy was found to be beneficial. The current evidence is based on a limited number of studies that are heterogeneous in design, exposure and outcome measures. | The number of comparable studies that adjusted for confounders was insufficient to perform a meta-analysis. |

1. Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Flynn et al 201616  UPBEAT  United Kingdom  RCT | 1,032 women | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of a behavioural intervention of diet and physical activity advice on dietary patterns in obese pregnant woman participating in the UPBEAT study, and to explore associations of dietary patterns with pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: Diet was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) at baseline (15(+0)-18(+6) weeks' gestation), post intervention (27(+0)-28(+6) weeks) and in late pregnancy (34(+0)-36(+0) weeks). Dietary patterns were characterised using factor analysis of the baseline FFQ data, and changes compared in the control and intervention arms. Four dietary patterns were identified.  ‘Fruit and vegetables’ — high intakes of bananas, citrus fruit, dried fruit, fresh fruit, green vegetables, pulses, root vegetables, salad vegetables, tropical fruit and yoghurt.  ‘African/Caribbean’ — high loadings on red meat, cassava, white meat, rice including pilau, fried or jollof rice, plantain and fish.  ‘Processed’ — high intakes of chocolate, crisps, green vegetables, potatoes, processed meat and meat products, root vegetables, squash and fizzy drinks, sugar free squash and fizzy drinks and chips.  ‘Snacks’ — high loadings on biscuits, cookies, cakes, pastries, chocolate, full fat cheese and sweets. | In the adjusted model, baseline scores for the African/Caribbean (quartile 4 compared with quartile 1: OR 2.46; 95% CI 1.41 to 4.30) and Processed (quartile 4 compared with quartile 1: OR 2.05; 95% CI 1.23, 3.41) patterns in the entire cohort were associated with increased risk of gestational diabetes.  There were no clear increases or decreases in risk for other outcomes (pre-eclampsia, LGA, SGA, macrosomia) for any dietary pattern. |  |

1. Q1 Dietary patterns in pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Baskin et al 201726  Australia  Cross-section | 167 women | **Aim:** To explore the predictive role of antenatal diet quality for antenatal and postnatal depressive symptoms.  **Methods**: Pregnant women completed the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale at time 1 [T1, mean weeks gestation=16.70±0.91], time 2 (T2, mean weeks gestation=32.89±0.89) and time 3 (T3, mean weeks post-partum=13.51±1.97) and a food frequency questionnaire at T1 and T2. Diet quality was determined by extracting dietary patterns via principal components analysis. Two dietary patterns were identified: 'healthy' (including fruit, vegetables, fish and whole grains) and 'unhealthy' (including sweets, refined grains, high-energy drinks and fast foods). Associations between dietary patterns and depressive symptoms were investigated by path analyses. | Examination of beta weights (β) revealed that ‘healthy’ dietary pattern scores at T1 positively predicted ‘healthy’ dietary pattern scores at T2 (β =0.30, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.14 to 0.46). Similarly depressive symptoms at T1 positively predicted depressive symptoms at both T2 (β =0.48, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.34 to 0.62) and T3 (β =0.40, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.25 to 0.55). There were no significant paths between a ‘healthy’ dietary pattern and depressive scores.  Examination of beta weights revealed that ‘unhealthy’ dietary pattern scores at T1 positively predicted ‘unhealthy’ dietary pattern scores at T2 (β =0.24, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.08 to 0.40). Similarly, depressive symptoms at T1 positively predicted depressive symptoms at both T2 (β =0.49, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.35 to 0.63) and T3 (β =0.37, p<0.01, 95%CI 0.22 to 0.52). There was one significant path between an ‘unhealthy’ diet at T2 and depressive symptoms at T2 (β =0.16, p<0.05, 95%CI 0.02 to 0.30); higher ‘unhealthy’ dietary pattern scores were cross-sectionally related to higher depressive symptoms. |  |
| Chia et al 201834  Singapore  Cohort | 1,051 women | **Aim:** To investigate the association of maternal diet quality with the risk of preterm birth, offspring birth size, and adiposity in a multiethnic Asian birth cohort.  **Methods**: Dietary intakes were ascertained at 26-28 wk of gestation with the use of 24-h recalls and 3-d food diaries, from which diet quality (score range: 0-100) was measured by the Healthy Eating Index for pregnant women in Singapore (HEI-SGP). | Maternal diet quality during pregnancy was not associated with preterm birth (ß 0.91; 0.75 to 1.11) or birth weight (-2.00; -22.57 to 18.57). Greater adherence to the HEI-SGP (per 10-point increment in HEI-SGP score) was associated with longer birth length [beta (95% CI): 0.14 (0.03, 0.24 cm)], lower body mass index (in kg/m2) at birth [-0.07 (-0.13, -0.01)], lower sum of triceps and subscapular skinfold thickness [-0.15 (-0.26, -0.05 mm)], lower percentage body fat [-0.52% (-0.84%, -0.20%)], lower fat mass [-17.23 (-29.52, -4.94 g)], lower percentage abdominal superficial subcutaneous adipose tissue [-0.16% (-0.30%, -0.01%)], and lower percentage deep subcutaneous adipose tissue [-0.06% (-0.10%, -0.01%)]. |  |
| Emond et al 201835  United Kingdom  Cohort | 862 women and infants | **Aim**: To examine the relation between maternal diet quality during pregnancy and infant birth size among women enrolled in a prospective birth cohort.  **Methods**: Women 18-45 y old with a singleton pregnancy were recruited at 24-28 wk of gestation from prenatal clinics in New Hampshire. Women completed a validated food frequency questionnaire at enrolment. Diet quality was computed as adherence to the Alternative Healthy Eating Index. Infant birth outcomes (sex, head circumference, weight, and length) were extracted from medical records. | In an adjusted model, increased diet quality appeared linearly associated with a reduced likelihood of SGA (P-trend=0.03), although each quartile comparison did not reach statistical significance. Specifically, ORs for SGA were 0.89 (95%CI 0.37 to 2.15), 0.73 (95%CI 0.28 to 1.89), and 0.35 (95%CI 0.11 to 1.08) for each increasing quartile of diet quality compared to the lowest quartile. Similar trends for SGA were observed among non-smokers (n=756; P-trend=0.07). Also among non-smokers, increased diet quality was associated with lower infant birth weight (P-trend=0.03) and a suggested reduction in macrosomia (P-trend=0.07). |  |
| Englund-Ogge et al 201431  Norway  Cohort | 66,000 | **Aim**: To examine whether an association exists between maternal dietary patterns and risk of preterm delivery.  **Methods**: Pregnant women (singletons, answered food frequency questionnaire, no missing information about parity or previously preterm delivery, pregnancy duration between 22+0 and 41+6 gestational weeks, no diabetes, first enrolment pregnancy). Hazard ratio for preterm delivery according to level of adherence to three distinct dietary patterns interpreted as "prudent" (for example, vegetables, fruits, oils, water as beverage, whole grain cereals, fibre rich bread), "Western" (salty and sweet snacks, white bread, desserts, processed meat products), and "traditional" (potatoes, fish). | After adjustment for covariates, high scores on the "prudent" pattern were associated with significantly reduced risk of preterm birth for the highest versus the lowest third (HR 0.88; 95%CI 0.80 to 0.97). The prudent pattern was also associated with a significantly lower risk of late and spontaneous preterm birth. No independent association with preterm delivery was found for the "Western" pattern. The "traditional" pattern was associated with reduced risk of preterm birth for the highest versus the lowest third (HR 0.91, 0.83 to 0.99). |  |
| Englund-Ogge et al 201733  Norway  Cohort | 66,000 | **Aim:** to examine the associations between meal frequency and glycaemic properties of maternal diet in relation to preterm delivery.  **Methods**: Meal frequency and food intake data were obtained from a validated food frequency questionnaire during mid-pregnancy. Three meal frequency patterns were identified: "snack meal", "main meal", and "evening meal". Pattern scores were ranked in quartiles. Glycaemic index and glycaemic load were estimated from table values. Intakes of carbohydrates, added sugar, and fibre were reported in grams per day and divided into quartiles. | After adjustments, the "main meal" pattern was associated with a reduced risk of preterm birth, with hazard ratios (HRs) of 0.89 (95%CI 0.80 to 0.98) and 0.90 (95%CI: 0.81 to 0.99) for the third and fourth quartiles, respectively, and p for trend of 0.028. This was mainly attributed to the group of women with BMI ≥25 kg/m2, with HRs of 0.87 (95%CI: 0.79 to 0.96) and 0.89 (95% CI: 0.80 to 0.98) for the third and fourth quartiles, respectively, and p for trend of 0.010. There was no association between glycaemic index, glycaemic load, carbohydrates, added sugar, fibre, or the remaining meal frequency patterns and preterm birth. |  |
| Englund-Ogge et al 201932  Norway  Cohort | 65,904 | **Aim:** To assess whether quality of maternal diet affects birth weight and the risk of small for gestational age (SGA) and/or large for gestational age (LGA) babies.  **Methods**: Pregnant women answered a validated food frequency questionnaire at mid-pregnancy. Three maternal dietary patterns were extracted based on characteristics of food items in each pattern. From these we created four non-overlapping groups: "high prudent," "high Western," "high traditional," and "mixed". | Compared to the high Western group, the high prudent group was associated with lower birth weight (beta-ultrasound z-scores -0.041 (95%CI -0.068 to -0.013)) and the high traditional group with higher birth weight (beta-ultrasound 0.067 (95%CI 0.040 to 0.094)) for all three growth standards. The high prudent pattern was associated with increased SGA risk (SGA-ultrasound OR 1.25 (95%CI: 1.02 to 1.54)) and decreased LGA risk (LGA-population OR 0.84 (95%CI: 0.75 to 0.94)), while the high traditional group on the contrary was associated with decreased SGA (SGA-customised OR 0.92 (95% CI: 0.84 to 0.99)) and increased LGA risk (LGA population OR 1.12 (95%CI 1.02 to 1.24)). |  |
| Gresham et al 201624  Australia  Cohort | 1,907 women | **Aim:** To assess whether diet quality before or during pregnancy predicts adverse pregnancy and birth outcomes in a sample of Australian women.  **Methods**: The Dietary Questionnaire for Epidemiological Studies was used to calculate diet quality using the Australian Recommended Food Score (ARFS) methodology modified for pregnancy. A national sample of Australian women, aged 20-25 and 31-36 years, who were classified as preconception or pregnant when completing Survey 3 or Survey 5 of the ALSWH, respectively. The women with biologically plausible energy intake estimates were included in regression analyses of associations between preconception and pregnancy ARFS and subsequent pregnancy outcomes. | Women with the highest ARFS had the lowest odds of developing gestational hypertension (OR=0.4; 95 % CI 0.2 to 0.7) or having a baby of low birth weight (OR=0.4; 95 % CI 0.2 to 0.9), which remained significant for gestational hypertension after adjustment for potential confounders. |  |
| Ikem et al 201923  Denmark  Cohort | 55,139 | **Aim**: To examine the association between midpregnancy dietary patterns and pregnancy-associated hypertension.  **Methods**: Diet was assessed using a validated semi-quantitative 360-item food frequency questionnaire and dietary patterns were derived using factor analysis. | Seven dietary patterns were characterised in the population, of which two were associated with PAH. The Seafood diet characterised by high consumption of fish and vegetables was inversely associated with the odds of developing gestational hypertension (OR 0.86; 95%CI 0.77 to 0.95)] and pre-eclampsia (PE) (OR 0.79; 95%CI 0.65 to 0.97). The Western diet characterised by high consumption of potatoes (including French fries), mixed meat, margarine and white bread increased the odds of developing GH (OR 1.18; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.33) and PE (OR 1.40; 95% CI 1.11 to 1.76). No association was seen with severe PE. |  |
| Leermakers et al 201740  Netherlands  Cohort | 2,592 mother-child pairs | **Aim:** To assess the associations between different dietary patterns during pregnancy and offspring cardiometabolic health among mother-child pairs.  **Methods**: Maternal diet was assessed in early pregnancy with a food-frequency questionnaire. We identified three a posteriori-dietary patterns, namely a 'Vegetable, fish and oil', 'Nuts, soy and high-fibre cereals' and 'Margarine, snacks and sugar'-pattern. An a priori-pattern was created based on the 'Dutch Healthy Diet Index'. Cardiometabolic health (pulse wave velocity, blood pressure, insulin, HDL-cholesterol and triglycerides) was measured at the child's age of 6 years. | In the crude models, the 'Vegetable, fish and oil', 'Nuts, soy and high-fibre cereals' and 'Dutch Healthy Diet Index' seemed beneficial, as higher adherence to these patterns was significantly associated with lower blood pressure and lower pulse wave velocity. After adjustment for other socio-demographic and lifestyle factors, most associations disappeared, except for lower pulse wave velocity with the 'Vegetable, fish and oil'-dietary pattern (-0.19 SD (95% CI -0.33 to -0.06), highest quartile of adherence vs. lowest quartile). No associations were found between maternal dietary patterns and offspring blood lipids or insulin levels. CONCLUSIONS: Our results suggest that there are no consistent independent associations of maternal dietary patterns with offspring cardiometabolic health at 6 years. |  |
| Loo et al 201738  Singapore  GUSTO  Cohort | 735 children | **Aim**: To examine the role of maternal diet during pregnancy on immune tolerance and the development of allergic diseases in the offspring.  **Methods**: We examined the relation between maternal dietary patterns assessed using 24 hr recalls and food diaries at 26-28 weeks of pregnancy and the subsequent development of allergic outcomes in the offspring. Exploratory factor analysis was used to characterise maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy. During repeated visits in the first 36 months of life, questionnaires were administered to ascertain allergic symptoms, namely, eczema, rhinitis and wheezing. At ages 18 and 36 months, we administered skin prick testing to inhalant and food allergens. | Of the three maternal dietary patterns that emerged, the Seafood and Noodle (SfN) pattern was associated with a reduced risk of developing allergen sensitisation at both 18 months (OR 0.7; 95%CI0.5 to 0.9) and 36 months (OR 0.7; 95%CI0.6 to -0.9) after adjustment for family history of allergy, ethnicity, sex and maternal education levels. No associations between Vegetable, Fruit and white Rice and Pasta, Cheese and Processed meat patterns were observed with any of the allergic outcomes in the first 18 and 36 months of life. |  |
| Martin et al 201619  United States  Cohort | 513 women | **Aim:** investigated the association between dietary patterns and cardiometabolic markers (glucose, insulin, insulin resistance (HOMA-IR), triglycerides, and cholesterol) during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Diet was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire. Dietary patterns were derived using latent class analysis (LCA) and the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet. Linear regression was used to examine the dietary patterns-cardiometabolic markers association during pregnancy. | After adjustment for potential confounders including prepregnancy BMI, a diet consistent with Latent Class 3 (fruits, vegetables, whole grains, low-fat dairy, breakfast bars, and water) was negatively associated with maternal insulin (µU/mL: beta -0.12; 95%CI -0.23 to -0.01) and HOMA-IR (beta -0.13; 95%CI -0.25 to -0.00) but not glucose (beta 0.86; 95%CI 2.64 to 0.92), triglycerides (beta 0.01; 95%CI 0.10, 0.08) or cholesterol (beta 5.58; 95%CI 5.63 to 16.79). |  |
| Martin et al 201637  United States  Cohort | 389 mother-child pairs | **Aim:** Toinvestigate the influence of maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy on child growth in the first 3 y of life in 389 mother-child pairs from the Pregnancy, Infection, and Nutrition study.  **Methods**: Dietary patterns were derived with the use of latent class analysis (LCA) based on maternal diet, collected with the use of a food-frequency questionnaire at 26-29 wk gestation. Associations between maternal dietary patterns and child body mass index (BMI)-for-age z score and overweight or obesity were assessed with the use of linear regression and log-binomial regression, respectively. We used linear mixed models to estimate childhood growth patterns in relation to maternal dietary patterns. | Three patterns were identified from LCA: 1) fruits, vegetables, refined grains, red and processed meats, pizza, French fries, sweets, salty snacks, and soft drinks (latent class 1); 2) fruits, vegetables, baked chicken, whole-wheat bread, low-fat dairy, and water (latent class 2); and 3) white bread, red and processed meats, fried chicken, French fries, and vitamin C-rich drinks (latent class 3).  In crude analyses, the latent class 3 diet was associated with a higher BMI-for-age z score at 1 and 3 y of age and a higher risk of overweight or obesity at 3 y of age than was the latent class 2 diet. These associations were not detectable after adjustment for confounding factors. We observed an inverse association between the latent class 3 diet and BMI-for-age z score at birth after adjustment for confounding factors that was not evident in the crude analysis (latent class 3 compared with latent class 2-beta: -0.41; 95% CI: -0.79 to -0.03). |  |
| Miyake et al 201825  Japan  Cross-section | 1,744 women | **Aim:** To examine the association between dietary patterns and depressive symptoms during pregnancy. The current cross-sectional study examined this issue in Japan.  **Methods**: Dietary patterns were derived from a factor analysis of 33 predefined food groups based on a self-administered diet history questionnaire. Depressive symptoms were defined as a Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale score ≥ 16. Adjustment was made for age, gestation, region of residence, number of children, family structure, history of depression, family history of depression, smoking, second-hand smoke exposure, employment, household income, education, and body mass index. | Three dietary patterns were identified: ‘healthy’, characterised by high intake of green and yellow vegetables, other vegetables, mushrooms, pulses, seaweed, potatoes, fish, sea products, miso soup, sugar, and shellfish; ‘Japanese’, characterised by high intake of rice and miso soup; and ‘Western’, characterised by high intake of beef and pork, processed meat, vegetable oil, chicken, eggs, shellfish, and salt-containing seasonings.  The healthy and Japanese patterns were independently inversely associated with depressive symptoms during pregnancy: the adjusted prevalence ratios between extreme quartiles were aRR 0.56 (0.43 to 0.73, p<0.0001) and aRR 0.72 (0.55 to 0.94, p=0.008), respectively. No association was observed between the Western pattern and depressive symptoms during pregnancy. |  |
| Nathanson et al 27  Australia  Cross-section | 253 | **Aim**: To examine the association between consumption of food groups characteristic of a quality diet during pregnancy (that is fruit, vegetable and fish intake) and postnatal depressive symptoms at 12 months postpartum.  **Methods**: Pregnant women were recruited at 10-18 weeks gestation and completed self-report questionnaires assessing fruit, vegetable and fish intake as well as depressive symptoms at early- to mid- pregnancy. Path analyses were conducted to examine whether fruit, vegetable and fish intake during pregnancy were associated with depressive symptom scores at 12 months postpartum. | There were no associations between fruit, vegetable or fish intake in pregnancy and postnatal depressive symptoms. Antenatal diet quality as measured by intake of food groups associated with a healthy diet was not associated with postpartum depressive symptoms at 12 months postpartum. |  |
| Rasmussen et al 201430  Denmark  Cohort | 59,949 women | **Aim**: To extract and visualise dietary patterns from self-reported dietary data collected in mid-pregnancy (25th week of gestation) and examine their associations with spontaneous and induced preterm birth (gestational age<259 days (<37 weeks)).  **Methods**: A total of seven dietary patterns were extracted by principal component analysis, characterised and visualised by color-coded spider plots, and referred to as: Vegetables/Prudent, Alcohol, Western, Nordic, Seafood, Candy and Rice/Pasta/Poultry. | A consistent dose-response association with preterm birth was only observed for Western diet (aOR 1.30; 95%CI 1.13 to 1.49) comparing the highest to the lowest quintile. This association was primarily driven by induced preterm births (aOR 1.66, 95%CI 1.30 to 2.11, comparing the highest to the lowest quintile) while the corresponding odds ratio for spontaneous preterm deliveries was more modest (aOR 1.18, 95%CI 0.99 to 1.39). |  |
| Sedaghat et al 201720  Iran  Case control | 122 cases  266 control | **Aim:** To explore the association between dietary pattern and risk of gestational diabetes.  **Method**: Dietary intake was collected using a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ). GDM was diagnosed using a 100-gram, 3-hour oral glucose tolerance test. Dietary pattern was identified by factor analysis. To investigate the relation between each of the independent variables with gestational diabetes, the odds ratio (OR) was calculated. | Western dietary pattern was high in sweets, jams, mayonnaise, soft drinks, salty snacks, solid fat, high-fat dairy products, potatoes, organ meat, eggs, red meat, processed foods, tea, and coffee. The prudent dietary pattern was characterised by higher intake of liquid oils, legumes, nuts and seeds, fruits and dried fruits, fish and poultry whole, and refined grains. Western dietary pattern was associated with increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus before and after adjustment for confounders (OR 1.97, 95%CI 1.27 to 3.04, aOR 1.68, 95%CI 1.04 to 2.27). However, no significant association was found for a prudent pattern. |  |
| Shin et al 201518  United States  Cohort | 249 women | **Aim:** To identify dietary patterns during pregnancy that are associated with GDM risk in pregnant women.  **Methods**: Food items were aggregated into 28 food groups based on Food Patterns Equivalents Database. Three dietary patterns were identified by reduced rank regression with responses including prepregnancy body mass index (BMI), dietary fibre, and ratio of poly- and monounsaturated fatty acids to saturated fatty acid: "high refined grains, fats, oils and fruit juice", "high nuts, seeds, fat and soybean; low milk and cheese", and "high added sugar and organ meats; low fruits, vegetables and seafood". GDM was diagnosed using fasting plasma glucose levels >/=5.1 mmol/L for gestation <24 weeks. | Multivariable AOR (95% CIs) of GDM for comparisons between the highest vs. lowest tertiles were 4.9 (1.4 to 17.0) for "high refined grains, fats, oils and fruit juice" pattern, 7.5 (1.8 to 32.3) for "high nuts, seeds, fat and soybean; low milk and cheese" pattern, and 22.3 (3.9 to 127.4) for "high added sugar and organ meats; low fruits, vegetables and seafood" pattern after controlling for maternal sociodemographic variables, prepregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain, energy intake and log-transformed CRP. |  |
| Van den Broek et al 201539  Denmark  Cohort | 2,695 mother-child pairs | **Aim:** To examine whether maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy are associated with body composition of the child at age 6 years.  **Methods**: Maternal diet was assessed in early pregnancy by a 293-item semiquantitative food-frequency questionnaire. Vegetable, fish, and oil; nuts, soy, and high-fibre cereals; and margarine, snacks, and sugar dietary patterns were derived from principal component analysis. We measured weight and height of the child at age 6 y. Total body fat and regional fat mass percentages of the child were assessed with dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. | In the crude models, statistically significant associations were found for higher adherence to the vegetable, fish, and oil dietary pattern and the nuts, soy, and high-fibre cereals dietary pattern with lower body mass index, lower fat mass index, and lower risk of being overweight, but none of these associations remained significant after adjustment for sociodemographic and lifestyle factors.  We found no associations between the margarine, snacks, and sugar dietary pattern and any of the outcomes. |  |
| Zareei et al 201821  Iran  Case-control | 204 women | **Aim:** To examine the dietary pattern in women with GDM.  **Methods**: Participants' food intakes were assessed using semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire, while their activities evaluated by physical activity questionnaire. Anthropometric indices were measured based on standard instructions, and the body mass index was calculated. The dietary patterns were determined using principal component analysis and its relationship with preeclampsia was tested using logistic regression method. | Unhealthy (high intake of mayonnaise, soda, pizza, sugar, etc) and healthy (high intake of leafy green vegetables, fruits, poultry, fish, etc) dietary patterns were identified. In the unhealthy group, after modifying the effect of confounding variables, a significant relationship was observed between dietary pattern and having gestational diabetes (OR 2.838, 95% CI 1.039 to 7.751). In the healthy group, women in the fourth quartile had 149% and 184% higher chance not to experience gestational diabetes before and after modification with confounders, respectively (OR 0.284, 95%CI 0.096 to 0.838), when compared with women in the first quartile. |  |
| Zhou et al 201817  China  Cohort | 2,755 women | **Aim:** To identify maternal dietary patterns and examine their associations with GDM risk, and to evaluate the contributions of macronutrients intake to these associations.  **Methods**: Dietary intakes were assessed using a validated semi-quantitative FFQ 2 weeks before the diagnosis of GDM. GDM was diagnosed based on the results of a 75-g, 2-h oral glucose tolerance test at 24-28 weeks gestation. We derived five different dietary patterns from a principal component analysis. | The results showed that high fish-meat-eggs scores, which were positively related to protein intake and inversely related to carbohydrate intake, were associated with a higher risk of GDM (quartile 4 vs quartile 1: aOR 1.83; 95%CI 1.21 to 2.79; P trend=0.007) and higher plasma glucose levels. In contrast, high rice-wheat-fruits scores, which were positively related to carbohydrate intake and inversely related to protein intake, were associated with lower risk of GDM (quartile 3 vs quartile 1: aOR 0.54; 95%CI 0.36 to 0.83; P trend=0.010) and lower plasma glucose levels. | GDM |

1. Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pham et al 201941  SLR | 12 studies:  10 cohort  1 cross-section  1 case-control  124,959 women | **Aim:** To review and meta-analyse evidence concerning the effect of the intake of several polyphenol-rich foods on gestational diabetes (GDM) risk.  **Methods**: A systematic literature search was conducted in PubMed, Web of Science and Embase databases for observational studies on the association between dietary intake of foods/diets rich in polyphenols and GDM risk. Inclusion criteria were original research articles with full texts published in peer-reviewed English language journals, which investigated foods within the top 100 richest dietary sources of polyphenols and reported odds ratio/relative risk with their corresponding 95% confidence intervals. The quality of included studies was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale. The intake of polyphenol-rich foods and dietary patterns in relation to GDM were pooled with fixed- and random-effects models. In total, 12 (10 cohort, 1 cross-sectional and 1 case-control) studies were included for the final systematic review, comprising 124,959 participants and including 5,786 women with GDM. | Meta-analyses showed that the risk of GDM was about halved amongst women with the highest score of Mediterranean diet compared to those with the lowest score (OR 0.57; 95%CI 0.41 to 0.79). | GDM |
| Zhang et al 201942 | 18 studies | **Aim:** To evaluate the relationship between high adherence to the Mediterranean diet in pregnancy and childhood and the risk of asthma and wheeze in children.  **Methods**: We conducted searches of PubMed, EMBASE, and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials from inception to 30 October 2018. Observational studies providing risk estimates and corresponding confidence intervals on the association of high adherence to the Mediterranean diet in pregnancy or childhood and the risk of asthma or wheeze in childhood were included. The methodological quality of all included studies was assessed. Summary odds ratios (OR) were calculated using a random-effects model. | The pooled data suggested high adherence to the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy was associated with a reduced incidence of wheeze in the first 12 months (OR 0.92; 95%CI 0.88 to 0.95; P < 0.001). However, there was no significant association between high adherence of the Mediterranean diet in pregnancy and any of the other meta-analysis end points including diagnosed asthma. |  |

1. Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Assaf-Balut et al 201743  Spain  RCT  St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study | Intervention 434  Control 440 | **Aim**: To assess whether a Mediterranean diet can help prevent GDM in unselected pregnant women.  **Methods**: We conducted a prospective, randomised controlled trial to evaluate the incidence of GDM with two different dietary models. All consecutive normoglycaemic (<92 mg/dL) pregnant women at 8-12 gestational weeks (GW) were assigned to Intervention Group: MedDiet supplemented with extra virgin olive oil (EVOO) and pistachios; or Control Group: standard diet with limited fat intake. Primary outcome was to assess the effect of the intervention on GDM incidence at 24-28 GW. Gestational weight gain (GWG), pregnancy-induced hypertension, caesarean section (CS), preterm delivery, perineal trauma, small and large for gestational age (SGA and LGA) and admissions to neonatal intensive care unit were also assessed. Analysis was by intention-to-treat. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: aRR 0.75 (0.57 to 0.98); p=0.039 * Insulin-treated gestational diabetes aRR 0.43 (0.24 to 0.78); p=0.005 * Preterm birth: aRR 0.29 (0.11 to 0.77); p=0.013 * Small for gestational age: aRR 0.21 (0.08 to 0.54); p=0.001 * Large for gestational age: aRR 0.19 (0.07 to 0.57); p=0.003 * Emergency cesarean section: aRR 0.30 (0.14 to 0.63) p=0.001 * Perineal trauma: aRR 0.21 (0.12 to 0.36); p=0.001 |  |
| Assaf-Balut et al 201844  Spain  Post-hoc analysis of St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study | 874 women | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of late first-trimester (>12 gestational weeks) degree of adherence to a MedDiet pattern-based on six food targets-on a composite of materno-foetal outcomes (CMFCs).  **Methods**: The CMFCs were defined as having emergency C-section, perineal trauma, pregnancy-induced hypertension and preeclampsia, prematurity, large-for-gestational-age, and/or small-for-gestational-age. Women were stratified into three groups according to late first-trimester compliance with six food targets: >12 servings/week of vegetables, >12 servings/week of fruits, <2 servings/week of juice, >3 servings/week of nuts, >6 days/week consumption of extra virgin olive oil (EVOO), and ≥40 mL/day of EVOO. High adherence was defined as complying with 5(-)6 targets; moderate adherence 2(-)4 targets; low adherence 0(-)1 targets. | High adherence vs low adherence:   * Gestational diabetes: OR 0.35 (0.18 to 0.67), p=0.002 * Urinary tract infection: 0.19 (0.07 to 0.52), p=0.001   Moderate adherence vs low adherence:   * Preterm birth: 0.30 (0.13 to 0.72), p=0.007 * Small for gestational age: 0.36 (0.17 to 0.77), p=0.009 | GDM |
| Assaf-Balut et al 201945  Spain  Sub-analysis of St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study | 697 women  Intervention 360  Control 337 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of a Mediterranean diet (MedDiet), enhanced with extra virgin olive oil (EVOO) and nuts, on a composite of adverse maternofoetal outcomes of women with normoglycaemia during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Women were randomised (at 8-12th gestational weeks) to: standard-care control group (337), where fat consumption was limited to 30% of total caloric intake; or intervention group, where a MedDiet, enhanced with EVOO and pistachios (40-42% fats of total caloric intake) was recommended. | High adherence vs low adherence among normoglycaemic women:   * Pregnancy-induced hypertension: 13 (3.6) vs 11 (3.3); p=0.484 * Pre-eclampsia: 7 (1.9) vs 4 (1.2); p=0.311 * Urinary tract infection: 17 (4.7) vs 40 (11.9); p=0.001; RR 0.37 (0.20 to 0.66), p=0.001 * Emergency caesarean section: 8 (2.2) vs 25 (7.4); p=0.002; RR 0.28 (0.13 to 0.64) * Perineal trauma: 49 (14.5) vs 13 (3.6; p= 0.001; RR 0.22 (0.12–0.41); p=0.001 * Preterm birth (<37 weeks): 4 (1.1) vs 11 (3.6); p=0.067 * Large for gestational age: 3 (0.8) vs 11 (3.3); p=0.034; RR 0.25 (0.07 to 0.90) * Small for gestational age: 4 (1.1) vs 14 (4.2); p=0.018; RR 0.26 (0.08 to 0.80) |  |

1. Q1 Mediterranean diet in pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Castro-Rodriguez et al 201653  Cohort | 1,000 preschool children | **Aim**: To examine whether some foods and Mediterranean diet (MedDiet) consumed by the mother during pregnancy and by the child during the first years of life can be protective for current wheezing, rhinitis and dermatitis at preschool age.  **Methods**: Questionnaires of epidemiological factors and food intake by the mother during pregnancy and later by the child were filled in by parents in two surveys at two different time points (1.5 yrs and 4 yrs of life). | Maternal adherence to the Mediterranean diet was not a protective factor for wheeze (p=0.892), dermatitis (p=0.145) or rhinitis (p=0.637) in the child. |  |
| Steenweg-de Graaff et al 201459  Netherlands  Cohort | 3,104 children | **Aim**: To assess the links between maternal nutritional factors during pregnancy and foetal brain development and subsequent offspring behaviour.  **Methods**: Within a population-based cohort, we assessed maternal diet using a food frequency questionnaire. Three dietary patterns were derived by means of Principal Component Analysis — The first pattern has been labelled ‘Mediterranean’, because of its high loadings on vegetables, fish & shellfish, vegetable oil, fruit, and eggs, and relatively high negative loading on processed meat. The second pattern, labelled traditional Dutch, was characterised by high intakes of fresh and processed meat and potatoes, a relatively high intake of margarines and a very low intake of soy and diet products. The third pattern, ‘Confectionary’, was high in the consumption of cakes, sugar & confectionary products, tea, cereals, fruit and dairy products. | After adjustment, the Mediterranean diet was negatively associated (0.90, 95% CI: 0.83 to 0.97) and the Traditionally Dutch diet (1.11, 95% CI: 1.03 to 1.21) was positively associated with child externalising problems (problem behaviours directed toward the environment such as aggression, cheating, disobeying rules).  Both low adherence to the Mediterranean diet and high adherence to the Traditionally Dutch diet during pregnancy are associated with an increased risk of child externalising problems. |  |
| Chatzi et al 201749  United States (Viva), Greece (Rhea)  Cohort | 997 mother-child pairs in United States  569 pairs in Greece | **Aim:** To investigate the association between adherence to Mediterranean diet in pregnancy and offspring cardiometabolic traits in two pregnancy cohorts.  **Methods**: We estimated adherence to the Mediterranean diet with an a priori defined score (MDS) of nine foods and nutrients (0 to 9). We measured child weight, height, waist circumference, skin-fold thicknesses, blood pressure, and blood levels of lipids, c-reactive protein and adipokines in mid-childhood (median 7.7 years) in Viva, and in early childhood (median 4.2 years) in Rhea. We calculated cohort-specific effects and pooled effects estimates with random-effects models for cohort and child age. | In Project Viva, the mean (SD, standard deviation) MDS was 2.7 (1.6); in Rhea it was 3.8 (1.7). In the pooled analysis, for each 3-point increment in the MDS, offspring BMI z-score was lower by 0.14 units (95% CI, -0.15 to -0.13), waist circumference by 0.39 cm (95% CI, -0.64 to -0.14), and the sum of skin-fold thicknesses by 0.63 mm (95% CI, -0.98 to -0.28). We also observed lower offspring systolic (-1.03 mmHg; 95% CI, -1.65 to -0.42) and diastolic blood pressure (-0.57 mmHg; 95% CI, -0.98 to -0.16).  Greater adherence to Mediterranean diet during pregnancy may protect against excess offspring cardiometabolic risk. |  |
| Fernandez-Barres et al 201951  Spain  Cohort | 2,195 mother-child pairs  697 children at 4 years | **Aim:** To evaluate the associations between maternal adherence to the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and their offspring's longitudinal body mass index (BMI) trajectories and cardiometabolic risk in early childhood.  **Methods**: We included mother-child pairs from the Infancia y Medio Ambiente (INMA) longitudinal cohort study in Spain. We measured dietary intake during pregnancy using a validated food frequency questionnaire and calculated the relative Mediterranean diet score (rMED). We estimated offspring's BMI z score trajectories from birth to age 4 years using latent class growth analyses. We measured blood pressure, waist circumference, and cardiometabolic biomarkers to construct a cardiometabolic risk score at 4 years (n=697 mother-child pairs). We used multivariable adjusted linear and multinomial regression models. RESULTS: | A higher maternal rMED in pregnancy was associated with a lower risk in offspring of larger birth size, followed by accelerated BMI gain (reference trajectory group: children with average birth size and subsequent slower BMI gain) (relative risk of high vs low rMED score, 0.68; 95% CI, 0.47 to 0.99). rMED score during pregnancy was not associated with the cardiometabolic risk score, its components, or related biomarkers.  Higher adherence to the Mediterranean diet in pregnancy was associated with lower risk of having offspring with an accelerated growth pattern. This dietary pattern was not associated with the offspring's cardiometabolic risk at 4 years. | Child growth |
| Fernandez-Barres et al 201650  Cohort | 1,827 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To evaluate associations between adherence to the Mediterranean diet (MD) during pregnancy and childhood overweight and abdominal obesity risk at 4 years of age.  **Methods**: We analysed mother-child pairs from the Spanish 'Infancia y Medio Ambiente' cohort study. Diet was assessed during pregnancy using a food frequency questionnaire and MD adherence by the relative Mediterranean diet score (rMED). Overweight (including obesity) was defined as an age-specific and sex-specific body mass index ≥85th percentile (World Health Organization referent), and abdominal obesity as a waist circumference (WC) >90th percentile. | There was no association between rMED and body mass index z-score, whereas there was a significant association between higher adherence to MD and lower WC (beta of high vs. low rMED: -0.62 cm; 95% confidence interval: -1.10, -0.14 cm, P for trend=0.009).  Pregnancy adherence to the MD was not associated with childhood overweight risk, but it was associated with lower WC, a marker of abdominal obesity. | Child growth |
| Smith et al 201547  United Kingdom  Case-cohort | 922 LMPT  965 term | **Aim**: To explore the associations between lifestyle factors and late and moderate preterm birth (LMPT: 32(+0)-36(+6) weeks' gestation).  **Methods**: Poisson multivariable regression models were fitted to estimate relative risks (RR) of LMPT birth associated with maternal smoking, alcohol and recreational drug use, and diet. | Women who did not have any aspects of a Mediterranean diet were nearly twice as likely to give birth LMPT compared with those whose diet included ≥ Mediterranean characteristics (aRR 1.81; 95%CI 1.04 to 3.14; p=0.036). | preterm |
| Saunders et al 201448  Guadeloupe  Cohort | 728 women | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of adherence to a Mediterranean diet (MD) during pregnancy on fetal growth restriction (FGR) and preterm birth (PTB) in a population largely of African descent and present dietary patterns similar to MD.  **Methods**: We analysed data for pregnant women who had liveborn singletons without any major congenital malformations. Degree of adherence to MD during pregnancy was evaluated with a semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire based on nine dietary criteria. Multiple logistic regression models were used to analyse birth outcomes while taking potential confounders into account. | Overall there was no association between MD adherence during pregnancy and the risk of PTB (non-stratified by BMI: aOR 0.9; 95%CI 0.8 to 1.0) or FGR (non-stratified by BMI, term births: aOR 1.0; 95%CI 0.8 to 1.2). However, pre-pregnancy BMI was a strong effect modifier and MD adherence was associated with a decreased risk of PTB in overweight and obese women (aOR 0.7, 95%CI 0.6 to 0.9) (P<0.01) but not women with underweight/normal BMI (aOR 1.1; 95%CI 0.9 to 1.3). | preterm |
| Martínez-Galiano et al 201846  Spain  Case-control | 518 case-control pairs | **Aim:** To quantify the effect of a Mediterranean dietary pattern, as well as the consumption of olive oil (OO), on the risk of having a small for gestational age infants (SGA).  **Methods**: Dietary intake during pregnancy was assessed using a validated food frequency questionnaire. Three indices were used to evaluate the adherence to Mediterranean diet (MD) (Predimed, Trichopoulou and Panagiotakos). Crude odds ratios (cOR) and adjusted odds ratios (aOR) and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated using conditional logistic regression models. | Results were stratified by severity of SGA: moderate (percentiles 6–10), and severe (percentiles 5). For moderate, four or more points in the Predimed´s index was associated with a 41% reduction of having SGA compared with women with a score 3, aOR 0.59 (95%CI 0.38 to 0.98); for severe, the reduction in risk was not statistically significant. Similar results were found when the other MD indexes were used. An intake of OO above 5 g/day was associated with a lower risk of SGA (aOR 0.53, 95% CI 0.34 to 0.85); statistical significance was observed for moderate SGA (aOR 0.53, 95% CI 0.30 to 0.96), but not for severe SGA (aOR 0.51, 95% CI 0.24 to 1.07), although the magnitude of ORs were quite similar. Adherence to a MD and OO intake is associated with a reduced risk of SGA. | SGA |
| Alvarez Zallo et al 201852  Europe and Latin America  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Cross-section | 1,087 infants 12-15 months of age | **Aim:** To examine the relationship between different food groups and the adherence to a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and the risk of wheezing and eczema in children aged 12-15 months.  **Methods**: The study of the association of the different food consumption and Mediterranean diet with wheezing, recurrent wheezing and eczema was performed using different models of unconditional logistic regression to obtain adjusted prevalence odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). | No association was found between a good adherence to the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and the development of wheezing (p=0.372), recurrent wheezing (p=0.118) or eczema (p=0.315). | Wheeze |

1. Q1 Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Ha et al 201754  SLR | 21 studies  1,865 women | **Aim**: To compare the effects of various common diets, stratified by the addition of gestational weight gain advice, on fasting glucose and insulin, haemoglobin A1c (HbA1c), and homeostatic model assessment for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) in pregnant women.  **Methods**: MEDLINE, EMBASE, Cochrane database, and reference lists of published studies were searched through April 2017. Randomised trials directly comparing two or more diets for ≥2-weeks were eligible. Bayesian network meta-analysis was performed for fasting glucose. Owing to a lack of similar dietary comparisons, a standard pairwise meta-analysis for the other glycaemic outcomes was performed. The quality of the pooled effect estimates was assessed using the GRADE tool. | In the absence of gestational weight gain advice, fasting glucose improved in DASH-style diets compared to standard care (MD -0.47; 95%CI -0.73 to -0.21; 3 studies; n=99; moderate certainty). | Most dietary comparisons were underpowered to detect differences in glycaemic outcomes. |

1. Q1 Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet in pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Fulay et al 201860  United States  Cohort | 1,760 women | **Aim**: To examine associations of adherence to the DASH diet with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (HDP) and other pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: We derived a DASH score using data from a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) administered at median 11.1 weeks gestation. We then used multivariable linear regression models that accounted for the woman's age at enrolment, pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI), education, smoking habits, race/ethnicity, gestational weight gain (GWG) up until the time of the FFQ, and total energy intake to examine associations of the DASH score with HDP, gestational diabetes, preterm delivery (<37 weeks), birth size, and GWG from FFQ to delivery. | Overall, the DASH diet score was not associated with reductions in risk of:   * Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: OR 1.00 (0.96 to 1.03) * Gestational diabetes: OR 1.01 (0.96 to 1.06) * Preterm birth: OR 0.99 (0.95 to 1.03) * Small for gestational age: OR 0.97 (0.93 to 1.02) * Large for gestational age: OR 0.99 (0.96 to 1.02)   However, there was a positive association between the DASH diet and subsequent gestational weight gain among women who were obese before pregnancy (0.19 [95%CI 0.05 to 0.34], P≤0.05 kg higher GWG per 1 unit DASH score). |  |
| Martin et al 201619  United States  Cohort | 513 women | **Aim:** investigated the association between dietary patterns and cardiometabolic markers (glucose, insulin, insulin resistance (HOMA-IR), triglycerides, and cholesterol) during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Diet was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire. Dietary patterns were derived using latent class analysis (LCA) and the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet. Linear regression was used to examine the dietary patterns-cardiometabolic markers association during pregnancy. | After adjustment for confounders including prepregnancy BMI, DASH scores within Tertile 3 (higher dietary quality) were negatively associated with maternal triglycerides (mg/dL) (ß 0.11; 95%CI 0.19 to 0.02) but not fasting glucose (ß 0.29; 95%CI 1.46 to 2.04), insulin (ß 0.07; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.04), HOMA-IR (ß 0.06; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.06) or cholesterol (ß 2.93; 95%CI 13.95 to 8.08). |  |
| Martin et al 201537  United States  Cohort | 3,143 | **Aim:** To examine the association between maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and preterm birth.  **Methods**: Dietary intake was assessed at 26-29 wk of gestation by using a food-frequency questionnaire, and patterns were derived by using factor analysis and the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet. Associations between dietary patterns and preterm birth were assessed by logistic regression. | Greater adherence to the DASH diet was associated with decreased odds of preterm birth compared with women in the lowest quartile (aOR for quartile 4 vs quartile 1: 0.59; 95% CI 0.40 to 0.85). | Preterm |

1. Q1 Vegetarian or vegan diets in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Piccoli et al 201555  SLR | 22 studies | **Aim**: To review the literature on vegan–vegetarian diets and pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: PubMed, Embase, and the Cochrane library were searched from inception to September 2013 for pregnancy and vegan or vegetarian Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and freetext terms. We excluded case reports and papers analysing vegan– vegetarian diets in poverty and malnutrition. Searching, paper selection, and data extraction were performed in duplicate. | None of the studies reported an increase in severe adverse outcomes or in major malformations, except one report of increased hypospadias in infants of vegetarian mothers. Five studies reported vegetarian mothers had lower birthweight babies, yet two studies reported higher birthweights. The duration of pregnancy was available in six studies and was similar between vegan–vegetarians and omnivores. The nine heterogeneous studies on microelements and vitamins suggest vegan–vegetarian women may be at risk of vitamin B12 and iron deficiencies. | The high heterogeneity of the studies led to a narrative review. |
| Foster et al 201556 | 6 studies | **Aim**: To explore the relationship between habitual vegetarian diets and dietary zinc intake/status during pregnancy. The association between vegetarian diets and functional pregnancy outcome also is considered.  **Methods**: A literature search was conducted of MEDLINE; PubMed; Embase; the Cochrane Library; Web of Science; and Scopus electronic databases up to September 2014. | The zinc intake of vegetarians was found to be lower than that of non-vegetarian women (-1.38±0.35 mg/day; p<0.001); and the exclusion of low meat eaters from the analysis revealed a greater difference (-1.53±0.44 mg/day; p=0.001).  Neither vegetarian nor non-vegetarian groups met the recommended dietary allowance (RDA) for zinc. In a qualitative synthesis; no differences were found between groups in serum/plasma zinc or in functional outcomes associated with pregnancy. |  |

1. Q1 Vegetarian or vegan diets in pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Zulyniak et al 201757  Canada  Cohort | 3,997 mother-infant pairs | **Aim:** to investigate the influence of maternal diet on birth weight.  **Methods**: Dietary information during pregnancy was collected at 24–28 weeks’ gestation using a validated semiquantitative Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ). We performed principal component analysis (PCA) to identify three dietary patterns: ‘plant-based’, ‘western’ and ‘health-conscious’. | No associations were identified between the Western and health-conscious diet patterns and birth weight; however, the plant-based dietary pattern was inversely associated with birth weight (beta=-67.6 g per 1-unit increase; P<0.001), and an interaction with non-white ethnicity and birth weight was observed.  Ethnically stratified analyses demonstrated that among white Europeans, maternal consumption of a plant-based diet associated with lower birth weight (beta=-65.9 g per 1-unit increase; P<0.001), increased risk of small-for-gestational age (SGA; OR=1.46; 95% CI 1.08 to 1.54;P=0.005) and reduced risk of large-for-gestational age (LGA; OR=0.71; 95% CI 0.53 to 0.95; P=0.02). Among South Asians, maternal consumption of a plant-based diet associated with a higher birth weight (beta=+40.5 g per 1-unit increase; P=0.01), partially explained by cooked vegetable consumption. |  |

1. Q1 Fasting in pregnancy — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Glazier et al 201858 | 22 studies  31,374 women of whom 18,920 were exposed to Ramadan fasting | **Aim**: To determine whether Ramadan fasting by pregnant women affects perinatal outcomes.  **Methods**: Systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies and randomised controlled trials was conducted in EMBASE, MEDLINE, CINAHL, Web of Science, Google Scholar, the Health Management Information Consortium and Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts. Studies from any year were eligible. Studies reporting predefined perinatal outcomes in pregnancies exposed to Ramadan fasting were included. Cohort studies with no comparator group or that considered fasting outside pregnancy were excluded, as were studies assuming fasting practice based solely upon family name. Quality of included studies was assessed using the ROBINS-I tool for assessing risk of bias in non-randomised studies. Analyses were performed in STATA. | * Birth weight: SMD 0.03, 95%CI 0.00 to 0.05; 21 studies. * Preterm birth: OR 0.99, 95% CI 0.72 to 1.37; 5 studies. * Low birth weight: OR 1.05; 95%CI 0.87 to 1.28; 8 studies | Further studies are needed to accurately determine whether Ramadan fasting is associated with adverse maternal or neonatal outcome. |

1. Q1 Fasting in pregnancy — observational study

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Shalit et al 201561  Israel  Cross-section | 744 births | **Aim**: To determine the effect of the Day of Atonement fast (a 25-hour Jewish fast), on preterm birth (<37 weeks).  **Methods**: A comprehensive analysis of all births during the Day of Atonement and during the corresponding day a week earlier, between the years 1988 and 2011, was performed. Data on fasting status was deduced from the ethnicity (as only Jewish parturients fast during the Day of Atonement). Multivariable logistic regression model was used to control for confounders. | Jewish parturients (fasting group) were at significantly higher risk for preterm birth during the Day of Atonement (aOR 1.99; 95%CI 1.03 to 3.83; p=0.041). In the corresponding day, a week before the Day of Atonement, Jewish ethnicity was not found to be a risk factor for preterm delivery (aOR 0.92; 95%CI 0.50 to 1.69; p=0.789). | Fasting status was extrapolated from ethnicity. |

## **Q2**: Which foods should be promoted and which avoided during pregnancy?

### Background

An Australian cross-sectional survey62 found that women’s knowledge of foods to avoid during pregnancy was poor, with 83% of women incorrectly identifying at least one unsafe food as safe to consume. The average knowledge score for foods to avoid during pregnancy was 7.9±3.4 out of a possible score of 12. Women with a higher number of GP visits and those receiving care in a high-risk clinic were more likely to be adherent to guidelines.

A cross-sectional study in the United States found that food security status was associated with the daily intake of fresh fruits (indirect effect -0.039; 95%CI -0.074 to -0.013) and fresh vegetables (indirect effect -0.048; 95%CI ‑0.083 to -0.023).63 As food security worsened, the available variety of fresh fruit and vegetables decreased, which was associated with lower intake.

### Fruit and vegetables

#### Glucose tolerance

A small cohort study (n=180)64 found that high consumption of vegetables was associated with higher 1-hour glucose challenge test (p<0.05).

#### Pre-eclampsia

Analysis of an RCT (n=987)65 found highest versus lowest adherence to a vegetable dietary pattern may be associated with a lower risk of preeclampsia (aRR 0.20; 95%CI 0.04 to 0.98; P for trend=0.041), possibly through reducing development of proteinuria (aRR 0.44; 95%CI 0.24 to 0.80).

In a cohort study (n=28,192)66 women who reported eating organic vegetables 'often' or 'mostly' had a lower risk of pre-eclampsia than those who reported 'never/rarely' or 'sometimes' (aOR 0.79; 95%CI 0.62 to 0.99).

#### Fetal growth

A case-control study (n=1,036)67 found a deceased risk of small-for-gestational age with >420 g/day fruit compared to ≤121 g/day (aOR 0.63; 95%CI 0.40 to 0.98). Total legume intake showed an inverse association with the risk of small for gestational age (trend p=0.02). Total consumption of vegetables was not associated with risk of small for gestational age.

#### Preterm birth

Cohort studies found that:

* higher intake of fruit, vegetables and rice was associated with a lower risk of preterm birth (OR 0.67; 95% CI: 0.50 to 0.91; n=923)68
* low consumption of fruit and vegetables was associated with an increased risk of preterm birth compared with those who reported higher consumption levels (RR 1.31; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.66; p=0.027; n=1,877).47

#### Depression and anxiety

In a small cross-sectional study (n=712),69 low fruit intake was associated with higher prevalence of major depressive disorder (PR 1.43, 95%CI 1.04 to 1.95) and low intake of legumes was associated with generalised anxiety disorder (PR 1.40, 95%CI 1.01 to 1.93). Another cross-sectional study (n=1,745)70 found a lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy associated with higher seaweed consumption (aOR 0.68; 95%CI 0.47 to 0.96) and soy products (aRR 0.63; 95%CI 0.47 to 0.85; p=0.0002).

#### Sleep

A cohort study (n=2,951)71 found that total daily fruit and vegetable consumption was not associated with sleep duration among pregnant women, controlling for confounders (ß -0.0395%CI -0.07 to 0.00).

#### Neural tube defects

A case-control study (n=918)72 found that risk of neural tubes defects was reduced with ≥7 meals/week of fresh fruit (OR 0.32; 95%CI 0.14 to 0.71) or 3-6 meals/week of nuts (OR 0.49; 95%CI 0.31 to 0.79).

#### Childhood allergy and asthma

A cross-sectional study (n=1,087)52 found that high fruit consumption during pregnancy had a protective effect against "wheezing" in 12-month-old infants (OR: 0.44; 95%CI 0.20 to 0.99). A cohort study (n=310)73 found that prevalence of wheeze at 2 years was lower with high versus low intake of cruciferous vegetables (aRR 0.48; 95%CI 0.26 to 0.89) or folate-rich vegetables (aRR 0.47, 95%CI 0.25 to 0.87).

A cohort study (n=897)74 found that asthma was inversely associated with higher daily average intake of vegetables (OR 0.96 per serving/day, 95% CI 0.88 to 1.05).

#### Childhood cancers

A systematic review of case-control studies (2 studies, 413 cases, 490 controls)75 found a lower risk of childhood leukaemia associated with maternal consumption of fruit (OR: 0.81, 95% CI: 0.67 to 0.99); vegetables (OR: 0.51, 95% CI: 0.28 to 0.94) and legumes (OR: 0.76, 95% CI: 0.62 to 0.94).

A case-control study (n=299)76 observed a possible association between childhood retinoblastoma and maternal intake of fruit (OR 0.38, 95%CI 0.14 to 1.02).

### Meat

#### Childhood allergy

In a cohort study (n=1,000),53 low meat consumption (once or twice a week) during pregnancy was protective against wheeze in the child (p=0.039).

#### Childhood cancers

A case-control study (n=199)76 found a positive association between maternal intake of cured meats and childhood retinoblastoma (OR 5.07, 95 % CI 1.63 to 15.70)

### Fish

#### Depression

A cohort study (n=12,418)77 found that, compared with women consuming more than three portions of seafood a week, those consuming no seafood were more likely to have frequent depressive symptoms at 32 weeks of pregnancy (aOR 1.54; 95%CI 1.25 to 1.89).

#### Preterm birth

A cohort study (n=3,279)78 found that, compared with lean fish intake of less than 0.2 servings per month, more than one serving per week was associated with a possible higher risk of preterm birth (RR 1.55; 95% CI 1.04 to 2.30) but was not associated with the other pregnancy complications. The study noted that studies of mechanisms and potential contributing factors (including seafood preparation and nutrient contaminant content) are warranted.

#### Fetal and child growth

Cohort studies have found that:

* although seafood intake was positively associated with increased birth weight, women in the highest quintile of mercury exposure had babies with lower birthweight (MD -34 g; 95%CI -46 g to -22 g) and had an increased risk of giving birth to small-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 1.19; 95%CI 1.08 to 1.30) (n=56,988)79
* compared with fish intake of once per week or less, fish intake more than three times a week was associated with increased risk of rapid infant growth (aOR 1.22; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.42) and increased risk of offspring overweight/obesity at 4 years (aOR 1.14; 95%CI 0.99 to 1.32) and 6 years (aOR 1.22; 95%CI 1.01 to 1.47) compared with an intake of once per week or less (n=26,184)80
* children of mothers who consumed fish ≥1/week during pregnancy had lower mean BMI z scores than children of mothers who never consumed fish (n=1,025) at the ages 4, 7, 8.5, and 11.5 years. After adjustment for maternal covariates (particularly pre-pregnancy BMI), BMI z scores in children were lower at 7 years (MD -0.14 95% CI -0.25 to -0.03) but not at 4, 8.5 or 11.5 years (n=3,684).81

#### Childhood allergy and asthma

A systematic review82 found that maternal fish intake during pregnancy was not associated with lower risk of infant eczema (RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.75 to 1.04; 10 studies), wheeze (RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.83 to 1.07; 8 studies), allergic rhinitis (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.45; 3 studies) or asthma (RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.75 to 1.18; 4 studies).

Cohort studies found:

* no relationship between frequency of maternal intake of fish and infant eczema (p=0.132) (n=650)83
* a higher risk of asthma diagnosis at 18 months among infants of women who ate no fish during pregnancy compared to those who ate fish at least 2 times a week (OR 1.30, 95%CI 1.05 to 1.63, p=0.02) (n=28,936)84
* an inverse association between asthma and higher maternal daily average intake of oily fish (aOR 0.23 per serving/day, 95% CI 0.04 to 1.41) (n=897 mother-child pairs).74

A cross-sectional study (n=1,087) found that maternal consumption of white fish once or twice a week during pregnancy increased the risk of "wheezing" at 12 months (OR: 1.95; 95%CI 1.01 to 3.75).

#### Childhood neurodevelopment

A qualitative systematic review (8 studies)85 suggests that intake of fish during pregnancy is associated with positive foetal neurodevelopmental outcomes, noting that it is important that the type of fish consumed is low in mercury.

Cohort studies found that:

* maternal seafood intake during pregnancy was positively associated with the language and communication scales in the infant(n=38,351)86
* prenatal methylmercury exposure above the 90th percentile (calculated from reported maternal fish intake) was associated with delayed language and communication skills in a generally low exposed population (n=46,750 mother-child pairs).87

#### Conduct problems in the child

In a cohort study (n=5,727)88 mothers of early onset persistent conduct problems children consumed less fish during pregnancy (p<0.01).

#### Childhood cancer

A systematic review of case-control studies (2 studies)75 found a lower risk of leukaemia among 0-4 year olds associated with maternal consumption of fish (OR 0.27, 95% CI: 0.14 to 0.53).

### Dairy products

#### Depression

A cross-sectional study (n=1,745)89 found that, compared to 4 g of yoghurt a day, 80 g a day was associated with a lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy (aOR 0.69; 95%CI 0.48 to 0.99, P for trend 0.03). No relationships were observed between the intake of all dairy products (aOR 0.93; 95%CI 0.66–1.32; p=0.47), milk (aOR 0.89; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.25; p=039) or cheese (aOR 0.86; 95%CI 0.59–1.24; p=0.58) and depressive symptoms.

#### Neural tube defects

A case-control study (n=918)72 found a lower prevalence of neural tube defects associated with consumption of milk ≥7 times a week (OR 0.59; 95%CI 0.38 to 0.90).

#### Childhood allergy and asthma

Cohort studies have found that:

* higher maternal intake of total dairy products during pregnancy was associated with a reduced risk of infantile eczema (aOR 0.64; 95%CI 0.42 to 0.98), higher intake of cheese was related to a reduced risk of physician-diagnosed infantile asthma (aOR 0.44; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.97) and intake of yogurt during pregnancy was inversely associated with physician-diagnosed infantile atopic eczema (aOR 0.49; 95% CI, 0.20 to 1.16) (n=1,354)89
* higher milk intake during the first trimester was associated with reduced risk of asthma (OR 0.83; 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and allergic rhinitis (OR 0.85; 95%CI 0.74 to 0.97) in the infant (n=1,227)90
* consumption of milk products in the highest quartile during pregnancy was associated with a lower risk of cow’s milk allergy in children (OR 0.56, 95%CI 0.37 to 0.86; P<0.01) (n=6,288)91
* the incidence of babies' eczema was higher in the group with daily butter intake than in those with an intake 2-3 times a week or less (p=0.044) (n=650).83

### Carbohydrates

#### Fetal growth

In an analysis of women who were obese participating in an RCT (n=222),92 maternal intake of digestible carbohydrates was associated with the baby’s relative fat mass in late (P-trend = 0.006) but not early (P-trend = 0.15) pregnancy. A comparison of women in the highest (median: 238 g/d) compared with the lowest (median: 188 g/d) quartile of digestible carbohydrate intake showed a mean adjusted higher value in the baby’s relative fat mass of 2.1% (95% CI 0.6 to 3.7), which corresponded in absolute terms to a 103 g (95% CI: 27 to 179 g) higher fat mass. No association was found between the baby’s infant fat mass and maternal carbohydrate intake among women with well-controlled glucose.

A cohort study (n=1,196)93 found that each additional 10 g/day carbohydrate consumption was associated with an increase of 4 g (95%CI 1 to 7; P=0.003) in birth weight.

#### Childhood allergy

A cohort study (n=1,087) found an association between “wheezing” at 12 months and consumption once or twice a week of cooked potatoes (OR 1.75; 95%CI 1.22 to 2.51) or industrial pastry (OR 1.59; 95%CI 1.13 to 2.24).52 Consumption of pasta never or occasionally during pregnancy was protective against wheeze in the child (p=0.049).53

### Protein

#### Gestational diabetes

A cross-sectional study (n=980)94 a higher total dietary protein intake was associated with a higher risk of gestational diabetes (OR highest vs lowest quartile of intake 2.15; 95% CI 1.27 to 3.62; p=0.016).

#### Fetal and childhood growth

Cohort studies have found:

* no evidence of an association between protein intake and birth weight (MD 9; 95%CI -22.0 to 8) (n=1,196)93
* that each 1‑SD (0.36 g . kg-1 . d-1) increment in second-trimester protein intake corresponded to a -0.10 (95%CI -0.18 to -0.03) change in birth length z score, a ‑0.03 cm/mo (95% CI -0.05 to -0.01 cm/month) change in slope of length growth from birth to <6 months, and a -0.09 cm/year (95% CI: -0.14 to -0.05 cm/year) change in slope of length growth from 6 months to mid childhood (n=1,961)95
* higher maternal protein intake was associated with a higher children's fat-free mass index (beta 0.14; 95 % CI 0.03 to 0.25 for highest vs. lowest quartile of protein intake), but not with children's fat mass index or body mass index (n=2,694 mother-child pairs)96
* lower new born abdominal internal adipose tissue (-0.18 mL; 95%CI -0.35 to -0.001 mL per 1% protein-to-carbohydrate substitution and -0.25 mL; 95%CI ‑0.46 to -0.04 mL per 1% protein-to-fat substitution) (n=320 mother-child pairs).97

### Fats

#### Gestational diabetes

A cohort study (n=55)98 found that women with uncomplicated pregnancies had lower daily fat intake (32.1%) than women who developed gestational diabetes (36.2%) (p=0.0251).

#### Fetal and childhood growth

A cohort study (n=1,196)93 found that an additional 10 g/day fat intake was associated with a lower birth weight (MD -8 g; 95%CI -16 to -0.3; P=0.04).

### Water

A cohort study (n=369)99 found that higher maternal intakes of dietary water was associated with decreased risk of wheeze in the infant (aOR 0.22; 95%CI 0.07 to 0.68; p=0.009).

### Sweetened foods and beverages

#### Gestational weight gain

An RCT (n=342)100 found that, compared with women who consumed foods that contributed to intake of added sugars (eg sweets, snacks, cakes and soft drinks) less than once a week, women consuming these foods twice a day had higher gestational weight gain (MD 5.4 kg; 95% CI 2.1 to 8.7). The results for soft drinks alone were more conflicting, as women with high weight gain tended to favour artificially sweetened soft drinks.

#### Gestational diabetes

A cohort study (n=3,396)101 found an association between consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages and increased risk of incidence gestational diabetes, for the highest (aOR 2.03; 95%CI 1.25 to 3.31) and intermediate categories (aOR 1.67; 95%CI 1.01 to 2.77) versus the lowest category (p for linear trend: 0.006). Consumption of diet soft drinks was not associated with gestational diabetes incidence (aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.52 to 1.31) for the highest versus the lowest category (p for linear trend: 0.258).

A cohort study (n=180)64 found that high consumption of desserts and sweets was associated with higher fasting blood glucose levels (p<0.05).

#### Depression

A cross-sectional study (n=712)69 found a high prevalence of major depressive disorder among women with high intake of sweets and sugars (aPR 1.91; 95%CI 1.19 to 3.07).

#### Child growth

Cohort studies have found that:

* compared with no consumption, daily consumption of artificially sweetened beverages was associated with a 0.20-unit increase in infant BMI z score (adjusted 95% CI, 0.02 to 0.38) and a 2-fold higher risk of infant overweight at 1 year of age (aOR 2.19; 95%CI 1.23 to 3.88) (n=2,686)102
* daily consumption of artificially sweetened beverages was positively associated with large-for-gestational age (aRR 1.57; 95%CI 1.05 to 2.35), BMI z score (adjusted beta 0.59; 95% CI 0.23 to 0.96) and overweight/obesity at 7 years (aRR 1.93; 95%CI 1.24 to 3.01) (n=918 mother-infant pairs).103

#### Childhood allergy

A cohort study (n=8,956)104 found that maternal intake of free sugar was positively associated with atopy (OR for highest versus lowest quintile of sugar intake 1.38, 95% CI 1.06-1.78; per quintile p-trend=0.006) and atopic asthma (OR 2.01, 95% CI 1.23-3.29; per quintile p-trend=0.004).

### Fast foods

#### Gestational diabetes

A cohort study (n=3,048)105 found that, compared to the lowest category of baseline fast food consumption, fast food consumption was associated with a higher risk of incident gestational diabetes for the intermediate (aOR 1.31; 95%CI 0.81 to 2.13) and high (aOR 1.86; 95% CI 1.13 to 3.06) categories (p for trend: 0.007).

#### Childhood allergy and asthma

Cohort studies have found that:

* fast food consumption three or more times a week in pregnancy was associated with a higher prevalence of dermatitis in the child (p=0.005) (n=1,000)53
* daily fast food consumption during pregnancy was associated with increased risk of asthmatic symptoms in the child (RR 4.46; 95%CI 1.36 to 14.6) (n=1,201 mother-infant pairs).106

#### Childhood cancers

A case-control study (n=299)76 found a positive association between maternal intake of fried foods and retinoblastoma in the child (OR 4.89, 95 % CI 1.72 to 13.89).

### Caffeine

#### Fetal growth and preterm birth

A cohort study (n=1,898)107 found no clear differences between women who drank less than one cup of tea a week and those who drank one or more cups of tea per week for preterm birth (aOR 0.99; 95%CI 0.61 to 1.61) or small for gestational age (aOR 1.43; 95%CI 0.83 to 2.46).

A cross-sectional study (n=858)108 found that maternal total caffeine intake was associated with an increased risk of preterm birth (OR per 100 mg/d caffeine increase 1.28; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.58; P=0.03).

#### Childhood brain tumours

A case-control study (n=1,019)109 found an association between childhood brain tumours and any coffee consumption during pregnancy (OR 1.76; 95%CI 1.09 to 2.84) and ≥2 cups per day during pregnancy (OR 2.52; 95% CI 1.26 to 5.04).

#### Childhood behaviour

A cross-sectional study (1,119 mother-child pairs)110 found that children of women in the highest quartile of caffeine consumption had a reduced risk of peer problems (aOR 0.51; 95%CI 0.28 to 0.91).

### Potential allergens

Cohort studies into maternal intake of potential allergens have found:

* higher maternal wheat intake during the second trimester was associated with reduced atopic dermatitis in the infant (OR 0.64; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.90; n=1,227)90
* higher maternal peanut intake (each additional z score) during the first trimester was associated with reduced risk of peanut allergic reaction in the infant (OR 0.53; 95%CI 0.30 to 0.94; n=1,227)90
* peanut/tree nut allergy in the offspring was significantly lower among children of non-allergic mothers who consumed more peanuts/tree nuts in their peripregnancy diet (≥5 times vs <1 time per month: OR 0.31; 95% CI 0.13 to 0.75; P(trend)=0.004; n=8,205)111
* incidence of babies' eczema was significantly lower in the group with everyday intake of natto (fermented soy beans) compared to women eating it 2-3 times a week or less (p=0.020; n=650).83

### Evidence summary

The evidence on specific food components that should be promoted or avoided during pregnancy generally aligns with the findings for question 1. No evidence was identified that contradicts the findings of the systematic review undertaken to inform the *Australian Dietary Guidelines*.

#### Fruit, vegetables and legumes

There is evidence from observational studies that eating vegetables, fruit and legumes during pregnancy is beneficial to both mother and baby. There are possible associations with improvements in glucose tolerance and fetal growth and reductions in risk of neural tube defects, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth, depression and anxiety, allergy or asthma in the child and some childhood cancers.

#### Meat

There is evidence from observational studies that low meat consumption may be protective against wheeze in the child and that limiting intake of cured meats may reduce the risk of some childhood cancers.

#### Fish

There is evidence from systematic reviews of observational studies that higher maternal fish intake may be associated with positive neurodevelopmental outcomes and a reduced risk of childhood leukaemia and does not appear to affect the risk of infant eczema, wheeze, allergic rhinitis or asthma. There is evidence from observational studies that high intake of seafood may be associated with reduced risk of antenatal depression and low birth weight but that high fetal exposure to mercury is associated with low birth weight, small-for-gestational age and delayed language and communication skills.

The evidence on an association between maternal fish intake and preterm birth is insufficient for conclusions to be drawn and findings of observational studies on the effect of maternal seafood intake on child growth are inconsistent.

#### Dairy

There is evidence from observational studies that higher maternal intake of all dairy products is associated with a reduced risk of infantile eczema, higher maternal milk intake is associated with reduced risk of neural tube defects, asthma, allergic rhinitis and cow’s milk allergy in children, higher yoghurt intake is associated with lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy, and daily butter intake may be associated with increased risk of infant eczema.

#### Carbohydrates

There is evidence from analysis of RCT participants that, in obese women with impaired glucose tolerance, a moderate carbohydrate intake during pregnancy is associated with a lower fat mass in their baby at birth. There is evidence from cohort studies that high maternal carbohydrate consumption may be associated with increases in birth weight and with infant wheeze.

#### Protein

There is evidence from observational studies that a higher maternal protein intake may be associated with a higher risk of gestational diabetes, may increase fat-free mass in the infant and reduce new born abdominal adipose tissue and the risk of rapid infant growth.

#### Fats

There is evidence from observational studies that a higher daily fat intake is associated with increased risk of gestational diabetes and lower birth weight.

#### Sweetened foods and beverages

There is evidence from an RCT that higher consumption of foods and drinks that contribute to intake of added sugars is associated with gestational weight gain. There is evidence from observational studies of an association between sugar-sweetened foods and drinks and impaired glucose tolerance and gestational diabetes, major depressive disorder, large for gestational age, increases in infant BMI z score and overweight at 1 year and 7 years of age, and infant atopy and asthma.

#### Fast foods

There is evidence from cohort studies that fast food consumption is associated with an increased risk of gestational diabetes, infant dermatitis and asthma.

#### Caffeine

There is evidence from observational studies that the risk of preterm birth and childhood brain tumours increases with caffeine intake.

#### Potential allergens

There is evidence from observational studies that maternal peanut consumption may reduce the risk of peanut allergy in the infant and higher maternal wheat intake during the second trimester may reduce atopic dermatitis in the infant.

### Consumer summary

The evidence suggests that eating plenty of fruit and vegetables during pregnancy is beneficial to women and their infants. There is evidence to suggest that eating fish during pregnancy is beneficial to women and infants but care needs to be taken to limit intake of mercury. There is some evidence that it may be beneficial to limit intake of meat, cured meats and minimise intake of sugar-sweetened foods and beverages, fast food and caffeine during pregnancy. It appears that consuming potential allergens during pregnancy is not harmful to the infant.

### Evidence tables

1. Q2 Consumption of fruit and vegetables during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Soto et al 201564  Puerto Rico  Cohort | 180 | **Aim**: To describe the dietary patterns of pregnant women in northern Puerto Rico and explore associations between diet factors with pregnancy related measurements.  **Methods**: Participants completed a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) around 20-28 weeks of gestation. The following pregnancy related measures were collected from the medical records: haemoglobin, blood glucose, blood pressure and gestational age. Potential associations between diet factors and pregnancy measures were assessed using chi square analysis with SPSS. | High consumption of vegetables was associated with higher 1-hour glucose challenge test (p < 0.05). |  |
| Wang et al 201572  China  Case-control | 459 cases  459 controls | **Aim**: To study the associations between maternal consumption of non-staple food in the first trimester and risk of neural tube defects (NTDs) in offspring.  **Methods**: Logistic regression models were used to examine the associations between maternal consumption of non-staple food in the first trimester and risk of NTDs in offspring. The effects were evaluated by odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) with SAS9.1.3.software. | The ORs for fresh fruit consumption frequency of 1-2, 3-6, ≥7 meals/week were 0.29 (95% CI: 0.12 to 0.72), 0.22 (0.09 to 0.53), and 0.32 (0.14 to 0.71), respectively.  The ORs for nut consumption frequency of 1-2, 3-6, ≥7 meals/week were 0.60 (95% CI: 0.38 to 0.94), 0.49 (0.31 to 0.79), and 0.63 (0.36 to 1.08), respectively. |  |
| Martinez-Galian et al 201867  Spain  Case-control | 518 cases  518 controls | **Aim**: To assess whether certain foods were related to the risk of small for gestational age (SGA).  **Methods**: A food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) comprising 137 items was completed by all participants. The intake of vegetables, legumes and fruits was categorized in quintiles (Q1-Q5). Crude values and adjusted odds ratios (AORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were estimated using conditional logistic regression. The variables for adjustment were as follows: preeclampsia, education, smoking, weight gain per week during pregnancy, fish intake and previous preterm/low birthweight newborns. | Total pulse intake showed an inverse association with the risk of SGA (trend p=0.02).  Women with an intake of fruits above 420 g/day (Q5), compared with women in Q1 (≤121 g/day) showed a decreased risk of SGA (AOR 0.63, 95%CI 0.40 to 0.98).  The total consumption of vegetables was not associated with the risk of SGA. |  |
| Torjusen et al 201466  Norway  Cohort | 28,192 women | **Aim**: To examine associations between organic food consumption during pregnancy and the risk of pre-eclampsia among nulliparous Norwegian women.  Methods: Nulliparous pregnant women answered food frequency questionnaire and general health questionnaire in mid-pregnancy and no missing information on height, body weight or gestational weight gain. Relative risk was estimated as ORs by performing binary logistic regression with pre-eclampsia as the outcome and organic food consumption as the exposure. | Women who reported eating organic vegetables 'often' or 'mostly' had a lower risk of pre-eclampsia than those who reported 'never/rarely' or 'sometimes' (aOR=0.79, 95%CI 0.62 to 0.99).  The lower risk associated with high organic vegetable consumption was evident also when adjusting for overall dietary quality, assessed as scores on a healthy food pattern derived by principal component analysis. |  |
| Ogawa et al 201873  Japan  Cohort | 310 infants | **Aim**: To assess the effect of maternal intake of vegetables during pregnancy on asthma risk in offspring, which has rarely been studied.  **Methods**: We administered a food frequency questionnaire at two periods during the respondents' pregnancy: early and mid to late periods. In addition, a questionnaire including the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood questionnaire was conducted when the offspring were 2 years old. Multivariate Poisson regression adjusting for maternal baseline demographics was used to elucidate the association between maternal vegetable intake and the incidence of wheeze in the offspring. | The prevalence of wheeze in the child at 2 years was lower among women with the highest first trimester intake compared with the lowest intake of:   * Cruciferous vegetables: aRR 0.48; 95%CI 0.26 to 0.89 * Folate-rich vegetables: aRR 0.47, 95%CI 0.25 to 0.87   In trend analysis, a higher maternal intake of cruciferous, folate-rich vegetables, and total vegetables during early pregnancy was less likely to be associated with wheeze in the offspring at 2 years old (p for trend: 0.038, <0.001, and 0.028, respectively). Maternal vegetable intake during mid to late pregnancy was not associated with wheeze in the offspring. |  |
| Miyake et al 201470  Japan  Cross-section | 1,745 women | **Aim**: To investigate the association between seaweed consumption and depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan.  **Methods**: Dietary consumption during the preceding month was assessed using a self-administered diet history questionnaire. Adjustment was made for age; gestation; region of residence; number of children; family structure; history of depression; family history of depression; smoking; second-hand smoke exposure at home and at work; job type; household income; education; body mass index; and intake of fish and yogurt. | After adjustment for possible dietary and non-dietary confounding factors, higher seaweed consumption was independently associated with a lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy:  2nd quartile: aOR 0.72 (0.51 to 1.004)  3rd quartile: aOR 0.71 (0.50 to 1.01)  4th quartile: aOR 0.68 (0.47 to 0.96) |  |
| Viljoen et al 201874  Ireland  Cohort | 897 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To establish whether vegetable, oily fish and vitamin D intake during pregnancy are associated with childhood asthma risk over a 10-year period.  **Methods**: Mother-child pairs with data on nutrient intake during pregnancy and asthma status, respectively, were included in the analysis. Data on socioeconomic and morbidity indicators over 10 years of follow-up on mothers and the index child were collected through self-administered questionnaires. | Asthma was inversely associated with higher daily average intake of vegetables (OR 0.96 per serving/day, 95% CI 0.88 to 1.05). |  |
| Alvarez Zallo et al 201852  Europe and Latin America  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Cross-section | 1,087 infants 12-15 months of age | **Aim:** To examine the relationship between different food groups and the adherence to a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and the risk of wheezing and eczema in children aged 12-15 months.  **Methods**: The study of the association of the different food consumption and Mediterranean diet with wheezing, recurrent wheezing and eczema was performed using different models of unconditional logistic regression to obtain adjusted prevalence odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). | High fruit consumption during the pregnancy had a protective effect against "wheezing" in 12-month-old infants (OR: 0.44 [0.20 to 0.99]). |  |
| Chia et al 201668  Singapore  Cohort | 923 infants | **Aim**: To characterise maternal dietary patterns in Asian pregnant women and examine their associations with the risk of preterm birth and offspring birth size.  **Methods**: At 26–28 wk of gestation, 24-h recalls and 3-d food diaries were collected from women and dietary patterns derived from exploratory factor analysis. Associations were assessed by logistic and linear regressions with adjustment for confounding factors. Results: Three maternal dietary patterns were identified: vegetable, fruit, and white rice (VFR); seafood and noodle (SfN); and pasta, cheese, and processed meat (PCP). | A greater adherence to the VFR pattern (per SD increase in VFR score) was associated with a lower risk of preterm birth (OR 0.67; 95% CI: 0.50 to 0.91), higher ponderal index (b: 0.26 kg/m3 ; 95% CI: 0.06, 0.45 kg/m3), and increased risk of a large-for-gestational-age birth (RR 1.31; 95% CI: 1.06 to 1.62). |  |
| Dessypris et al 201775  SLR of case-control studies | 2 studies | **Aim**: To quantitatively synthesise published data on the association of maternal/child diet with leukaemia risk.  **Methods**: Medline was searched until June 30th, 2016 for eligible articles on the association of childhood leukaemia with consumption of (i) food groups, excluding alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages, and (ii) specific dietary supplements before/during index pregnancy and childhood. | Statistically significant inverse estimates for leukaemia were found (2 studies, 413 cases, 490 controls) for fruit (OR: 0.81, 95% CI: 0.67 to 0.99); vegetables (OR: 0.51, 95% CI: 0.28 to 0.94) and legumes (OR: 0.76, 95% CI: 0.62 to 0.94). |  |
| Duke et al 201771  Cohort  United States | 2,951 women | **Aim**: To determine the association of fruit and vegetable consumption with overall sleep duration among pregnant women.  **Methods**: Data from the 2011 and 2012 Behavioral Risk Factors Surveillance System (BRFSS) were used. All women (n=2951) of childbearing age (18-44 years) who were pregnant and responded to all fruit and vegetable consumption and sleep duration questions were included. Covariates included age, race, education level, exercise, and marital status. Data were analysed using linear and ordinal logistic regression. | Total daily fruit and vegetable consumption was not associated with sleep duration among pregnant women, controlling for confounders [beta=-0.03 (-0.07 to 0.00)]. Orange and green vegetable consumption were both inversely associated with sleep duration [beta=-0.19 (-0.38 to -0.01) and beta=-0.20 (-0.33 to -0.08) respectively]. Ordinal logistic regression found that the odds of meeting or exceeding sleep time recommendations increased slightly with each unit increase in total fruit and vegetable consumption [OR 1.05 (1.003 to 1.092)] and for every unit increase in fruit consumption [OR 1.12 (1.038 to 1.208)]. |  |
| Lombardi et al 201576  United States  Case-control | Cases 163  Controls 136 | **Aim**: To examine the relation between maternal diet and unilateral retinoblastoma.  **Methods**: A case-control study of 163 unilateral RB cases and 136 controls ascertained information on maternal diet during pregnancy using a standardised food frequency questionnaire. Logistic regression was used to assess the relation between retinoblastoma and food groups and dietary patterns. | We observed a negative association between retinoblastoma and intake of fruit (OR 0.38, 95%CI 0.14 to 1.02). A food pattern of high fruits and vegetables and low fried food and sweets was negatively associated with disease (OR 0.75, 95 % CI 0.61 to 0.92). |  |
| Mi et al 201865  China  Analysis of RCT | 987 women | **Aim**: To examine the associations between dietary patterns during pregnancy and the risk of preeclampsia.  **Methods**: We analysed data from a cluster randomized controlled trial among healthy pregnant women in three rural counties in north-western China. Maternal diet during the whole pregnancy was assessed using a 107-item food frequency questionnaire with proportion size administered before delivery. Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to identify common dietary patterns. Preeclampsia was diagnosed by trained clinicians and recorded in delivery records. | After adjusting for calories, other dietary pattern scores and baseline blood pressure, a higher vegetable pattern score was associated with lower risk of preeclampsia (P for trend=0.041; the highest vs lowest quartile, aRR 0.20; 95%CI 0.04 to 0.98). A similar association was also observed for the risk of proteinuria (P for trend=0.015): the highest vs lowest quartiles of the vegetable pattern score, aRR 0.44 (95%CI 0.24 to 0.80). The other four pattern scores were not associated with preeclampsia. |  |
| Paskulin et al 201769  Brazil  Cross-section | 712 women | **Aim:** To evaluate the association between dietary patterns and mental disorders among pregnant women in southern Brazil.  **Methods**: Food intake assessment was performed using the Food Frequency Questionnaire. Dietary patterns were identified by cluster analysis. The Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders (PRIME-MD) was used to evaluate participants' mental health. Poisson regression models with robust variance were fitted to estimate prevalence ratios (PR). | In the adjusted models, there was a high prevalence of major depressive disorder among women with low fruit intake (PR 1.43, 95%CI 1.04 to 1.95). Low intake of legumes was significantly associated with generalised anxiety disorder (PR 1.40, 95%CI 1.01 to 1.93). |  |
| Smith et al 201547  United Kingdom  Case-cohort | 922 LMPT  965 term | **Aim**: To explore the associations between lifestyle factors and late and moderate preterm birth (LMPT: 32(+0)-36(+6) weeks' gestation).  **Methods**: Poisson multivariable regression models were fitted to estimate relative risks (RR) of LMPT birth associated with maternal smoking, alcohol and recreational drug use, and diet. | Low consumption of fruit and vegetables was associated with a 31% increased risk of LMPT compared with those who reported higher consumption levels (RR 1.31; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.66; p=0.027). |  |
| Ozawa et al 201483  Japan  Cohort | 650 mother-baby pairs | **Aim**: To investigate the association between the maternal diet during pregnancy and the risk of eczema in infancy in Japan.  **Methods**: A birth cohort was set up at 2 hospitals in Chiba city. Dietary habits concerning fish, butter, margarine, yogurt and natto (Japanese traditional fermented soy beans) during pregnancy was obtained from mothers just after delivery. The intake frequencies of these foods were classified into four groups: 1) daily, 2) 2-3 times a week, 3) once a week and 4) once a month or less. Diagnosis of eczema at 6 months of age was made by the presence of an itchy rash that persisted more than two months. | For natto, incidence of babies' eczema was significantly lower in the group with everyday intake than those eating it 2-3 times a week or less (p=0.020). |  |
| Miyake et al 2018112  Japan  Cross-section | 1,745 women | **Aim**: To examine the relationship between isoflavones or soybeans and depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan.  **Methods**: Dietary intake during the preceding month was assessed using a self-administered diet history questionnaire. Depressive symptoms were defined by a score of 16 or over in the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale. | Higher intake of total soy products, tofu, tofu products, fermented soybeans, boiled soybeans, miso soup, and isoflavones was independently related to a lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy: The adjusted prevalence ratios (95 % confidence intervals, P for trend) between extreme quartiles were 0.63 (0.47-0.85, 0.002), 0.72 (0.54-0.96, 0.007), 0.74 (0.56-0.98, 0.04), 0.57 (0.42-0.76, <0.0001), 0.73 (0.55-0.98, 0.03), 0.65 (0.49-0.87, 0.003), and 0.63 (0.46-0.86, 0.002), respectively. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of meat during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Castro-Rodriguez et al 201653  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Spain  Cohort | 1,000 preschool children | **Aim**: To examine whether some foods and Mediterranean diet (MedDiet) consumed by the mother during pregnancy and by the child during the first years of life can be protective for current wheezing, rhinitis and dermatitis at preschool age.  **Methods**: Questionnaires of epidemiological factors and food intake by the mother during pregnancy and later by the child were filled in by parents in two surveys at two different time points (1.5 yrs and 4 yrs of life). | Intermediate consumption of meat (1 or 2 times/week) during pregnancy was protective against wheeze in the child (p=0.039). |  |
| Lombardi et al 201576  United States  Case-control | Cases 163  Controls 136 | **Aim**: To examine the relation between maternal diet and unilateral retinoblastoma.  **Methods**: A case-control study of 163 unilateral RB cases and 136 controls ascertained information on maternal diet during pregnancy using a standardised food frequency questionnaire. Logistic regression was used to assess the relation between retinoblastoma and food groups and dietary patterns. | A positive association was seen with intake of cured meats (OR 5.07, 95 % CI 1.63 to 15.70). |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of fish during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Maslova et al 201384  Denmark  Cohort | 28,936 women | **Aim**: To examine the associations of maternal fish intake during pregnancy with child asthma and allergic rhinitis.  **Methods**: Women in the Danish National Birth Cohort (n 28 936) reported their fish intake at 12 and 30 weeks of gestation. Using multivariate logistic regression, we examined the associations of fish intake with child wheeze, asthma and rhinitis assessed at several time points: ever wheeze, recurrent wheeze (>3 episodes), ever asthma and allergic rhinitis, and current asthma, assessed at 18 months (n approximately 22,000) and 7 years (n approximately 17,000) using self-report and registry data on hospitalisations and prescribed medications. | Compared with consistently high fish intake during pregnancy (fish as a sandwich or hot meal ≥2-3 times/week), never eating fish was associated with a higher risk of child asthma diagnosis at 18 months (OR 1.30, 95%CI 1.05 to 1.63, P=0.02), and ever asthma by hospitalisation (OR 1.46, 95% CI 0.99, 2.13, P=0.05) and medication prescription (OR 1.37, 95% CI 1.10, 1.71, P=0.01). A dose-response was present for asthma at 18 months only (P for trend=0.001). We found no associations with wheeze or recurrent wheeze at 18 months or with allergic rhinitis. |  |
| Mesirow et al 201788  United Kingdom  Cohort | 5,727 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To investigate early life diet as a risk factor for early-onset persistent conduct problems (EOP CP).  **Methods**: Mother-child pairs reported intake of fish and processed foods at 32 weeks gestation and, for the child, at 3 years; EOP (n = 666) and Low conduct problem (Low CP, n = 5061) trajectories were measured from 4 to 13 years; hyperactivity and emotional difficulties were assessed in childhood (4-10 years) and early adolescence (12-13 years), in addition to potential confounding factors (family adversity, birth complications, income). | Compared to low conduct problems, mothers of early onset persistent conduct problems children consumed less fish (p<0.01) prenatally. |  |
| Vejrup et al 201479  Norway  Cohort | 56,988 women | **Aim**: To examine the association between calculated maternal dietary exposure to mercury (Hg) in pregnancy and infant birth weight in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study (MoBa).  **Methods**: Exposure was calculated with use of a constructed database of Hg in food items and reported dietary intake during pregnancy. Multivariable regression models were used to explore the association between maternal Hg exposure and infant birth weight, and to model associations with small-for-gestational-age offspring. The study is based on data from MoBa. | Median exposure to Hg was 0.15 mug/kg body weight per week and the contribution from seafood intake was 88 % of total Hg exposure. Women in the highest quintile compared with the lowest quintile of Hg exposure delivered offspring with 34 g lower birth weight (95 % CI -46 g to -22 g) and had an increased risk of giving birth to small-for-gestational-age offspring, adjusted OR = 1.19 (95 % CI 1.08, 1.30). Although seafood intake was positively associated with increased birth weight, stratified analyses showed negative associations between Hg exposure and birth weight within strata of seafood intake. |  |
| Verjup et al 201687  Norway  Cohort | 46,750 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the association between prenatal exposure to methylmercury (MeHg) and language and communication development at three years, adjusting for intake of fish, n-3 long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 LCPUFAs) and co-exposure to dioxins and dioxin like polychlorinated biphenyls (dl-PCBs).  **Methods**: MeHg exposure was calculated from reported fish intake during pregnancy by a FFQ in mid-pregnancy. Children's language and communication skills were measured by maternal report on the Dale and Bishop grammar rating and the Ages and Stages communication scale (ASQ). We estimated odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) using logistic regressions. Median MeHg exposure was 1.3mug/day, corresponding to 0.14mug/kgbw/week. An exposure level above the 90th percentile (>2.6mug/day, >0.29mug/kgbw/week) was defined as the high MeHg exposure. | Results indicated an association between high MeHg exposure and unintelligible speech with an adjusted OR 2.22 (1.31 to 3.72). High MeHg exposure was also associated with weaker communication skills adjusted OR 1.33 (1.03 to 1.70). Additional adjustment for fish intake strengthened the associations, while adjusting for PCBs and n-3 LCPUFA from diet or from supplements had minor impact. In conclusion, significant associations were found between prenatal MeHg exposure above the 90th percentile and delayed language and communication skills in a generally low exposed population. |  |
| Verjup et al 201886  Norway  Cohort | 38,351 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To evaluate the association between prenatal mercury exposure, maternal seafood consumption and child language and communication skills at age five.  **Methods**: Maternal mercury blood concentration in gestational week 17 was analysed in a sub-sample of 2239 women. Prenatal mercury exposure from maternal diet was calculated from a validated FFQ answered in mid-pregnancy. Mothers reported children's language and communications skills at age five by a questionnaire including questions from the Ages and Stages Questionnaire (ASQ), the Speech and Language Assessment Scale (SLAS) and the Twenty Statements about Language-Related Difficulties (language 20). We performed linear regression analyses adjusting for maternal characteristics, nutritional status and socioeconomic factors. | Median maternal blood mercury concentration was 1.03mug/L, dietary mercury exposure was 0.15mug/kgbw/wk, and seafood intake was 217g/wk. Blood mercury concentrations were not associated with any language and communication scales. Increased dietary mercury exposure was significantly associated with improved SLAS scores when mothers had a seafood intake below 400g/wk in the adjusted analysis. Sibling matched analysis showed a small significant adverse association between those above the 90th percentile dietary mercury exposure and the SLAS scores. Maternal seafood intake during pregnancy was positively associated with the language and communication scales. |  |
| Starling et al 201585  SLR | 8 studies | **Aim**: To critically evaluate literature on fish intake in pregnant women, with a focus on the association between neurodevelopmental outcomes in the offspring and maternal fish intake during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Peer-reviewed journal articles published between January 2000 and March 2014 were included. Eligible studies included those of healthy pregnant women who had experienced full term births and those that had measured fish or seafood intake and assessed neurodevelopmental outcomes in offspring. Medline, Scopus, Web of Science, ScienceDirect and the Cochrane Library were searched using the search terms: pregnant, neurodevelopment, cognition, fish and seafood. | Due to heterogeneity in methodology and measured outcomes, a qualitative comparison of study findings was conducted. This review indicates that the benefits of diets providing moderate amounts of fish during pregnancy outweigh potential detrimental effects in regards to offspring neurodevelopment. It is important that the type of fish consumed is low in mercury. |  |
| Van den Berg et al 201681  The Netherlands  Cohort | 3,684 women | **Aim**: To investigate the association between maternal fish consumption during pregnancy and BMI in children.  **Methods**: Maternal fish consumption during pregnancy and the child's body weight and height (up to 11 times) were reported by questionnaire. Generalised estimating equations were used to investigate whether BMI of children differed according to maternal fish consumption during pregnancy. | Children of mothers who consumed fish ≥1/week during pregnancy had statistically significant lower mean BMI z scores than children of mothers who never consumed fish (n=1,025) at the ages 4, 7, 8.5, and 11.5 years. After adjustment for maternal covariates (particularly pre-pregnancy BMI), BMI z scores in children were lower at 7 years (MD -0.14 95% CI -0.25 to -0.03) but not at 4, 8.5 or 11.5 years. |  |
| Viljoen et al 201874  Ireland  Cohort | 897 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To establish whether vegetable, oily fish and vitamin D intake during pregnancy are associated with childhood asthma risk over a 10-year period.  **Methods**: Mother-child pairs with data on nutrient intake during pregnancy and asthma status, respectively, were included in the analysis. Data on socioeconomic and morbidity indicators over 10 years of follow-up on mothers and the index child were collected through self-administered questionnaires. | Asthma was inversely associated with higher daily average intake of oily fish (aOR 0.23 per serving/day, 95% CI 0.04 to 1.41). |  |
| Zhang et al 201782  SLR | 1 RCT  13 cohort studies | **Aim**: To establish the effect of maternal fish intake on allergic disease in the infant.  **Methods**: PubMed, EMBASE, and Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials were searched for randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and prospective cohort studies regarding the effect of fish intake during pregnancy or infancy on allergic outcomes in children. The outcomes of interest were atopy, eczema, allergic rhinitis, wheeze, asthma, and food allergy. | Pooled analysis suggested that maternal fish intake during pregnancy was not associated with lower risk of eczema (RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.75 to 1.04; 10 studies), wheeze (RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.83 to 1.07; 8 studies), allergic rhinitis (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.45; 3 studies) or asthma (RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.75 to 1.18; 4 studies). |  |
| Stratakis et al 201680  Cohort  Belgium, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain and United States | 26,184 women | **Aim**: To examine whether fish intake in pregnancy is associated with offspring growth and the risk of childhood overweight and obesity.  **Methods**: Women with singleton births and their children were followed up at 2-year intervals until the age of 6 years. We estimated offspring body mass index percentile trajectories from 3 months after birth to 6 years of age. We defined rapid infant growth as a weight gain z score greater than 0.67 from birth to 2 years and childhood overweight/obesity at 4 and 6 years as body mass index in the 85th percentile or higher for age and sex. We calculated cohort-specific effect estimates and combined them by random-effects meta-analysis. | Women who ate fish >3 times/week during pregnancy gave birth to infants with higher BMI values from infancy through middle childhood compared with women with lower fish intake (≤3 times/week).  High fish intake during pregnancy (>3 times/week) was associated with increased risk of rapid infant growth (aOR 1.22; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.42) and increased risk of offspring overweight/obesity at 4 years (aOR 1.14; 95%CI 0.99 to 1.32) and 6 years (aOR 1.22; 95%CI 1.01 to 1.47]) compared with an intake of once per week or less.  Interaction analysis showed that the effect of high fish intake during pregnancy on rapid infant growth was greater among girls (aOR 1.31; 95%CI 1.08 to 1.59) than among boys (aOR 1.11; 95%CI 0.92 to 1.34; P=0.02 for interaction). | Findings are in line with the fish intake limit proposed by the US Food and Drug Administration and Environmental Protection Agency |
| Emmett et al 201577  United Kingdom  Cohort | 12,418 | **Aim:** To determine the effect of seafood consumption on depressive symptoms in pregnancy.  **Methods:** All publications covering diet during pregnancy that stemmed from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children were reviewed. Diet was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire. Socioeconomic background, maternal mental health, and the health and development of the offspring were assessed using a variety of methods, such as direct measurement, self-completion questionnaires, and assays of biological samples. | Compared with women consuming seafood frequently (> 3 portions per week providing > 1.5 g/week n-3 LC-PUFA), those consuming none were more likely to have frequent depressive symptoms at 32 weeks of pregnancy (aOR 1.54; 95%CI 1.25 to 1.89). |  |
| Ozawa et al 201483  Cohort  Japan | 650 mother-baby pairs | **Aim**: To investigate the association between the maternal diet during pregnancy and the risk of eczema in infancy in Japan.  **Methods**: A birth cohort was set up at 2 hospitals in Chiba city. Dietary habits concerning fish, butter, margarine, yogurt and natto during pregnancy was obtained from mothers just after birth. The intake frequencies of these foods were classified into four groups: 1) daily, 2) 2-3 times a week, 3) once a week and 4) once a month or less. Diagnosis of eczema at 6 months of age was made by the presence of an itchy rash that persisted more than two months. | No relationship between frequencies of the maternal intake of fish and the onset rate of the babies' eczema was observed (p=0.132). |  |
| Dessypris et al 201775  SLR of case-control studies | 9 studies | **Aim**: To quantitatively synthesise published data on the association of maternal/child diet with leukaemia risk.  **Methods**: Medline was searched until June 30th, 2016 for eligible articles on the association of childhood leukaemia with consumption of (i) food groups, excluding alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages, and (ii) specific dietary supplements before/during index pregnancy and childhood. | A statistically significant inverse estimate for leukaemia was found for maternal fish intake (OR 0.27, 95% CI: 0.14 to 0.53, among the 0-4 year old; 2 studies). |  |
| Mohanty et al 201678  United States  Cohort | 3,279 | **Aim**: To investigate associations of maternal periconceptional shellfish, lean fish and fatty fish intake with risk of pregnancy complications.  **Methods**: In this prospective cohort study, we collected information on intake of seafood subtypes using food frequency questionnaire. We categorised seafood intake into frequencies of 1 serving/week. We ascertained gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, gestational diabetes and preterm birth diagnoses from medical records. Using generalised linear models with a log link, the Poisson family and robust standard errors, we estimated risk ratios and 95 % confidence intervals across seafood intake categories. | Lean fish intake of >1 servings/week (vs <0.2 servings/month) was associated with a 1.55-fold higher risk of preterm birth (95 % CI 1.04 to 2.30) and was not associated with the other pregnancy complications.  Higher intake of seafood (total or other subtypes) was not associated with pregnancy complications (separately or combined). | Studies of mechanisms and potential contributing factors (including seafood preparation and nutrient/ contaminant content) are warranted. |
| Alvarez Zallo et al 201852  Europe and Latin America  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Cross-section | 1,087 infants 12-15 months of age | **Aim:** To examine the relationship between different food groups and the adherence to a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and the risk of wheezing and eczema in children aged 12-15 months.  **Methods**: The study of the association of the different food consumption and Mediterranean diet with wheezing, recurrent wheezing and eczema was performed using different models of unconditional logistic regression to obtain adjusted prevalence odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). | The consumption once or twice a week of white fish during pregnancy increased the risk of "wheezing" at 12 months (OR: 1.95 [1.01 to 3.75]). |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of dairy products during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Tuokkola et al 201691  Finland  Cohort | 6,288 | **Aim**: To study the associations between maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation and cow's milk allergy (CMA) in offspring.  **Methods**: Maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation was assessed by a validated, 181-item semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire. Register-based information on diagnosed CMA was obtained from the Social Insurance Institution and completed with parental reports. The associations between maternal food consumption and CMA were assessed using logistic regression, comparing the highest and the lowest quarters to the middle half of consumption. | Consumption of milk products in the highest quartile during pregnancy was associated with a lower risk of cow’s milk allergy in children (OR 0.56, 95%CI 0.37 to 0.86; P<0.01).  When stratified by maternal allergic rhinitis and asthma, there was evidence of an inverse association between high use of milk products and CMA in offspring of non-allergic mothers (OR 0.30, 95%CI 0.13 to 0.69, P<0.001). |  |
| Miyake et al 201589  Japan  Cross-section | 1,354 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the association between maternal intake of dairy foods, calcium, and vitamin D during pregnancy and childhood allergic disorders in Japanese children aged 23 to 29 months.  **Methods**: Maternal intake during pregnancy was assessed with a validated diet history questionnaire administered between April 2007 and March 2008. Wheeze and eczema, defined according to criteria of the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood, and physician-diagnosed asthma and atopic eczema were assessed via a questionnaire completed by mothers. | Higher maternal intake of total dairy products during pregnancy was significantly associated with a reduced risk of infantile eczema between extreme quartiles (aOR 0.64; 95%CI 0.42 to 0.98).  Higher maternal intake of cheese during pregnancy was significantly related to a reduced risk of physician-diagnosed infantile asthma between extreme quartiles (aOR 0.44; 95%CI 0.18 to 0.97).  Maternal intake levels of yogurt during pregnancy were significantly inversely associated with physician-diagnosed infantile atopic eczema between extreme quartiles (aOR 0.49; 95% CI, 0.20 to 1.16). |  |
| Wang et al 201572  China  Case-control | 459 cases  459 controls | **Aim**: To study the associations between maternal consumption of non-staple food in the first trimester and risk of neural tube defects (NTDs) in offspring.  **Methods**: Logistic regression models were used to examine the associations between maternal consumption of non-staple food in the first trimester and risk of NTDs in offspring. The effects were evaluated by odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) with SAS9.1.3.software. | Compared with consumption frequency of <1 meal/week, the ORs for neural tube defects with milk consumption frequency of 1-2, 3-6, ≥7 meals/week were 0.50 (95% CI: 0.28 to 0.88), 0.56 (0.32 to 0.99), and 0.59 (0.38 to 0.90), respectively. |  |
| Bunyavanich et al 201490  United States  Cohort | 1,227 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the associations between maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during early pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma.  **Methods**: Using food frequency questionnaires administered during the first and second trimesters, we assessed maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during pregnancy. In mid-childhood (mean age 7.9 years), we assessed food allergy, asthma, allergic rhinitis, and atopic dermatitis by questionnaire and serum-specific IgE levels. We examined the associations between maternal diet during pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma. We also examined the cross-sectional associations between specific food allergies, asthma, and atopic conditions in mid-childhood. | Higher milk intake during the first trimester was associated with reduced asthma (OR 0.83; 95% CI 0.69 to 0.99) and allergic rhinitis (OR 0.85; 95%CI 0.74 to 0.97). |  |
| Miyake et al 201589  Japan  Cross-section | 1,745 women | **Aim:** To examine the relationship between the intake of dairy products and calcium and the prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Dietary intake during the preceding month was assessed using a self-administered diet history questionnaire. Scores of 16 or higher on the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale denoted depressive symptoms. Adjustment was made for age, gestation, region of residence, number of children, family structure, history of depression, family history of depression, smoking, second-hand smoke exposure at home and at work, job type, household income, education, and body mass index. In our analyses regarding dairy products in general, adjustment was also made for fish intake; in our analysis regarding calcium, adjustment was also made for the intake of saturated fatty acids, eicosapentaenoic acid plus docosahexaenoic acid, and vitamin D. | Higher intake of yogurt was independently related to a lower prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy: the adjusted odds ratio between extreme quartiles (80 vs 4 g/day) was 0.69 (95% CI 0.48 to 0.99, P for trend=0.03). No relationships were observed between the intake of all dairy products (aOR 0.93; 95%CI 0.66–1.32; p=0.47), milk (aOR 0.89; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.25; p=039) or cheese (aOR 0.86; 95%CI 0.59–1.24; p=0.58) and depressive symptoms during pregnancy. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of carbohydrates during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Alvarez Zallo et al 201852  Europe and Latin America  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Cohort | 1,087 infants 12-15 months of age | **Aim:** To examine the relationship between different food groups and the adherence to a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and the risk of wheezing and eczema in children aged 12-15 months.  **Methods**: The study of the association of the different food consumption and Mediterranean diet with wheezing, recurrent wheezing and eczema was performed using different models of unconditional logistic regression to obtain adjusted prevalence odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals. | The consumption once or twice of cooked potatoes (OR: 1.75 [1.22 to 2.51]) and industrial pastry (OR: 1.59 [1.13 to 2.24]), and the consumption more than three times a week of industrial pastry (OR: 1.47 [1.01 to 2.13]) during pregnancy increased the risk of "wheezing" at 12 months. |  |
| Castro-Rodriguez et al 201653  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Spain  Cohort | 1,000 preschool children | **Aim**: To examine whether some foods and Mediterranean diet (MedDiet) consumed by the mother during pregnancy and by the child during the first years of life can be protective for current wheezing, rhinitis and dermatitis at preschool age.  **Methods**: Questionnaires of epidemiological factors and food intake by the mother during pregnancy and later by the child were filled in by parents in two surveys at two different time points (1.5 yrs and 4 yrs of life). | Consumption of pasta never or occasionally (p=0.049) during pregnancy were protective against wheeze in the child. |  |
| Renault et al 201592  Analysis of RCT participants  Denmark | 222 | **Aim**: To examine the association between carbohydrate intake in obese pregnant women and their offspring's body composition.  **Methods**: Secondary analyses were performed in an observational setting of pregnant women with a pregestational BMI ≥30 participating in a randomized controlled trial. Diet was assessed at gestational weeks 11-14 and 36-37 by using a semiquantitative food-frequency questionnaire. Body composition in the offspring was assessed at birth by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Relative fat mass (%) was the primary outcome. Absolute measures (total fat, abdominal fat, and lean body mass) were secondary outcomes. | Maternal intake of digestible carbohydrates was associated with the offspring's relative fat mass in late (P-trend = 0.006) but not early (P-trend = 0.15) pregnancy. A comparison of mothers in the highest (median: 238 g/d) compared with the lowest (median: 188 g/d) quartile of digestible carbohydrate intake showed a mean adjusted higher value in the offspring's relative fat mass of 2.1% (95% CI 0.6% to 3.7%), which corresponded in absolute terms to a 103 g (95% CI: 27 to 179 g) higher fat mass. Abdominal fat mass was also higher.  In a strata of women with well-controlled glucose (2-h glucose values ≤6.6 mmol/L), no association between carbohydrate intake and offspring fat mass was observed, but the associations became significant and increased in strength with higher intolerance (strata with 2-h glucose values between 6.7-7.7 and ≥7.8 mmol/L). |  |
| Sharma et al 201893  United Kingdom  Cohort | 1,196 | **Aim:** Toinvestigate the association between maternal dietary macronutrient intakes and their sub-components such as saccharides and fatty acids and birth weight.  **Methods**: Women were interviewed in each trimester. Dietary information was collected twice using a 24-h dietary recall about 8-12 weeks and 13-27 weeks of gestation. | Multiple linear regression models adjusted for alcohol and smoking in trimester 1, showed that each additional 10 g/d carbohydrate consumption was associated with an increase of 4 g (95 % CI 1, 7; P=0.003) in birth weight.  Maternal diet in trimester 2 suggested that higher intakes of glucose (10 g/d) and lactose (1 g/d) were both associated with higher birth weight of 52 g (95 % CI 4, 100; P=0.03) and 5 g (95 % CI 2, 7; P<0.001) respectively. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of protein during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sharma et al 201893  United Kingdom  Cohort | 1,196 | **Aim:** Toinvestigate the association between maternal dietary macronutrient intakes and their sub-components such as saccharides and fatty acids and birth weight.  **Methods**: Women were interviewed in each trimester. Dietary information was collected twice using a 24-h dietary recall about 8-12 weeks and 13-27 weeks of gestation. | There was no evidence of an association between protein intake and birth weight (MD 9; 95%CI -22.0 to 8). |  |
| Chen et al 201697  Singapore  Cohort | 320 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To investigate the relation between maternal macronutrient intake and neonatal abdominal adiposity measured by using MRI in a multiethnic Asian mother-offspring cohort.  **Methods**: The macronutrient intake of mothers was ascertained by using a 24-h dietary recall at 26-28 wk gestation. Neonatal abdominal adiposity was assessed by using MRI in week 2 of life. Mother-offspring dyads with complete macronutrient intake and adiposity information were included in the analysis. Associations were assessed by both substitution and addition models with the use of multivariable linear regressions. | A higher-protein, lower-carbohydrate or -fat diet during pregnancy was associated with lower abdominal internal adipose tissue (IAT) in the neonates [beta (95% CI): -0.18 mL (-0.35 to -0.001 mL) per 1% protein-to-carbohydrate substitution and -0.25 mL (-0.46 to -0.04 mL) per 1% protein-to-fat substitution]. |  |
| Pang et al 201794  Singapore  Cross-section | 980 women | **Aim**: To examine the associations of dietary protein intake from different food sources during pregnancy with the risk of GDM in a multiethnic Asian population.  **Methods**: Protein intake was ascertained from 24-h dietary recall and 3-d food diaries at 26-28 wk gestation. GDM was defined as fasting glucose >/=7.0 mmol/L and/or 2-h postload glucose >/=7.8 mmol/L at 26-28 wk gestation. We evaluated the association of dietary protein intake with GDM risk by substituting carbohydrate with protein in an isocaloric model with the use of multivariable logistic regression analysis. | After adjustment for potential confounders, a higher total dietary protein intake was associated with a higher risk of GDM; the OR comparing the highest with the lowest quartile of intake was 2.15 (95% CI 1.27 to 3.62; P-trend = 0.016).  Higher intake levels of both animal protein (OR 2.87; 95% CI: 1.58, 5.20; P-trend = 0.001) and vegetable protein (OR 1.78; 95% CI: 0.99, 3.20; P-trend = 0.009) were associated with a higher risk of GDM.  Among the animal protein sources, higher intake levels of seafood protein (OR: 2.17; 95% CI: 1.26, 3.72; P-trend = 0.023) and dairy protein (OR: 1.87; 95% CI: 1.11, 3.15; P-trend = 0.017) were significantly associated with a higher GDM risk. |  |
| Tielemans et al 201796  The Netherlands  Cohort | 2,694 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine whether protein intake during pregnancy is associated with offspring body composition at the age of 6 years and whether associations differ for animal protein and vegetable protein.  **Methods**: Energy-adjusted protein was measured in pregnancy using a food-frequency questionnaire and analysed in quartiles. At a mean age of 6.1 +/- 0.4 years, we measured children's body mass index, and fat-free mass index and fat mass index using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Outcomes were standardized for age and sex. BMI was used to classify children's overweight status. | After adjustment for sociodemographic and lifestyle factors, a higher maternal protein intake was associated with a higher children's fat-free mass index (beta 0.14; 95 % CI 0.03 to 0.25 for highest vs. lowest quartile of protein intake], but not with children's fat mass index or body mass index. Comparable associations were found for animal protein and vegetable protein. Maternal protein intake was not associated with children's overweight. |  |
| Switowski et al 201695  United States  Cohort | 1,961 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine associations of maternal protein intake during pregnancy with offspring linear growth.  **Methods**: We assessed first- and second-trimester diet with the use of food-frequency questionnaires and analysed protein intake as grams per kilogram prepregnancy weight per day. We used research measures of offspring length at birth and in infancy (approximately 6 mo), early childhood (approximately 3 y), and midchildhood (approximately 7 y), as well as clinical growth measures obtained from after birth through midchildhood. We calculated sex-specific birth length z scores for gestational age with the use of international reference data. We used mixed models with repeated length measures to predict individual length gain velocities for birth to <6 mo and 6 mo to 7 y of age, then used these velocities as outcomes in adjusted linear regression models with maternal protein intake as the main predictor. | After adjusting for maternal sociodemographics, gestational weight gain, maternal and paternal height, and child sex, gestational age, and breastfeeding duration, each 1‑SD (0.36 g . kg-1 . d-1) increment in second-trimester protein intake corresponded to a -0.10 (95% CI -0.18 to -0.03) change in birth length z score, a -0.03 cm/mo (95% CI -0.05 to -0.01 cm/mo) change in slope of length growth from birth to <6mo, and a -0.09 cm/y (95% CI: -0.14 to -0.05 cm/y) change in slope of length growth from 6 mo to midchildhood. Results were similar for first-trimester intake. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of fats during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sharma et al 201893  United Kingdom  Cohort | 1,196 | **Aim:** Toinvestigate the association between maternal dietary macronutrient intakes and their sub-components such as saccharides and fatty acids and birth weight.  **Methods**: Women were interviewed in each trimester. Dietary information was collected twice using a 24-h dietary recall about 8-12 weeks and 13-27 weeks of gestation. | An additional 10 g/d fat intake was associated with a lower birth weight of 8 g (95 % CI 0, 16; P=0.04). |  |
| Mizgier et al 201998  Poland  Cohort | 55 women | **Aim:** To show the relationship between maternal eating habits and the risk of developing gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).  **Methods**: Nutrition was evaluated using a three-day food record and food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) and nutrition of 12 months before pregnancy was assessed only by means of the FFQ. The women were divided into groups: H – with uncomplicated pregnancy (n=42) and GDM – with gestational diabetes mellitus (n=13), based on oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) results performed between 24 and 28 weeks. | Significant differences were found between groups H and GDM in terms of daily fat intake (32.1 versus 36.2%) and dietary reference values (standards) for total fat, monosaturated fatty acids (MUFA), and polysaturated fatty acids (PUFA). In the GDM group, the coverage of standards for total fat, saturated fatty acids (SFA) and MUFA exceeded the recommended values. Higher intake of energy from total fat and saturated fatty acid in the first half of pregnancy and before pregnancy may contribute to an increased risk of developing GDM. |  |
| Ozawa et al 201483  Cohort  Japan | 650 mother-baby pairs | **Aim**: To investigate the association between the maternal diet during pregnancy and the risk of eczema in infancy in Japan.  **Methods**: A birth cohort was set up at 2 hospitals in Chiba city. Dietary habits concerning fish, butter, margarine, yogurt and natto during pregnancy was obtained from mothers just after delivery. The intake frequencies of these foods were classified into four groups: 1) daily, 2) 2-3 times a week, 3) once a week and 4) once a month or less. Diagnosis of eczema at 6 months of age was made by the presence of an itchy rash that persisted more than two months. | No relationship between frequencies of the maternal intake of margarine (p=0.368) during pregnancy and the onset rate of the babies' eczema were observed  For butter consumption, the incidence of babies' eczema was significantly higher in the group with daily intake than in those with an intake 2-3 times a week or less (p=0.044). |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of sweetened foods and beverages during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Soto et al 201564  Puerto Rico  Cohort | 180 | **Aim**: To describe the dietary patterns of pregnant women in northern Puerto Rico and explore associations between diet factors with pregnancy related measurements.  **Methods**: Participants completed a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) around 20-28 weeks of gestation. The following pregnancy related measures were collected from the medical records: haemoglobin, blood glucose, blood pressure and gestational age. Potential associations between diet factors and pregnancy measures were assessed using chi square analysis with SPSS. | High consumption of desserts and sweets was associated with higher levels of fasting blood glucose levels (p < 0.05). |  |
| Zhu et al 2017103  Denmark  Cohort | 918 mother-child dyads | **Aim**: To investigate intake of artificially sweetened beverages (ASBs) and sugar-sweetened beverages (SSBs) during pregnancy in relation to offspring growth through age 7 years among high-risk children born to women with gestational diabetes.  **Methods**: Maternal dietary intake was assessed by a food frequency questionnaire during pregnancy. Offspring body mass index z-scores (BMIZ) and overweight/obesity status were derived using weight and length/height at birth, 5 and 12 months and 7 years. Linear regression and Poisson regression with robust standard errors were used, adjusting for major risk factors. | Compared to never consumption, daily ASB intake during pregnancy was positively associated with offspring large-for-gestational age (aRR 1.57; 95%CI 1.05 to 2.35 at birth), BMIZ (adjusted beta 0.59; 95% CI 0.23 to 0.96) and overweight/obesity (aRR 1.93; 95%CI 1.24 to 3.01) at 7 years. Per-serving-per-day substitution of ASBs with water during pregnancy was related to a lower overweight/obesity risk at 7 years (aRR 0.83; 95% CI 0.76 to 0.91), whereas SSB substitution with ASBs was not related to a lower risk (aRR 1.14; 95%CI 1.00, 1.31). |  |
| Renault et al 2015100  RCT  Denmark | 342 | **Aim**: To evaluate improvements and relevance of different dietary factors targeted with respect to gestational weight gain in a 3-arm Randomised Controlled Trial (n=342) among obese pregnant women with BMI30 kg/m2.  **Methods**: Randomisation 1:1:1 to either hypocaloric Mediterranean type of diet and physical activity intervention (D+PA); physical activity intervention alone (PA); or control (C). Diet was assessed at baseline (weeks 11–14) and endpoint (weeks 36–37) using a validated food frequency questionnaire. | Foods that contributed to intake of added sugars, including sweets, snacks, cakes, and soft drinks were strongly associated with weight gain, with women consuming sweets 2/day having 5.4 kg (95% CI 2.1-8.7) greater weight gain than those with a low (<1wk) intake.  The results for soft drinks were more conflicting, as women with high weight gain tended to favour artificially sweetened soft drinks. |  |
| Paskulin et al 201769  Brazil  Cross-section | 712 women | **Aim:** To evaluate the association between dietary patterns and mental disorders among pregnant women in southern Brazil.  **Methods**: Food intake assessment was performed using the Food Frequency Questionnaire. Dietary patterns were identified by cluster analysis. The Primary Care Evaluation of Mental Disorders (PRIME-MD) was used to evaluate participants' mental health. Poisson regression models with robust variance were fitted to estimate prevalence ratios (PR). | In the adjusted models, there was a high prevalence of major depressive disorder among women with high sweets and sugars intake (PR 1.91, 95%CI 1.19 to 3.07). |  |
| Azad et al 2016102  Canada  Cohort | 3,033 mother-infant dyads  2,686 infants at 1 year | **Aim**: To determine whether maternal consumption of artificially sweetened beverages during pregnancy is associated with infant body mass index.  **Methods**: Healthy pregnant women completed dietary assessments during pregnancy, and their infants' BMI was measured at 1 year of age. Statistical analysis for this study used data collected after the first year of follow-up and maternal consumption of artificially sweetened beverages and sugar-sweetened beverages during pregnancy, determined by a food frequency questionnaire. | Compared with no consumption, daily consumption of artificially sweetened beverages was associated with a 0.20-unit increase in infant BMI z score (adjusted 95% CI, 0.02 to 0.38) and a 2-fold higher risk of infant overweight at 1 year of age (aOR 2.19; 95%CI 1.23 to 3.88). These effects were not explained by maternal BMI, diet quality, total energy intake, or other obesity risk factors. There were no comparable associations for sugar-sweetened beverages. |  |
| Bedard et al 2017104  United Kingdom  Cohort | 8,956 children aged 7-9 years | **Aim:** To study the relationship between maternal intake of free sugar (which comprise sugars [monosaccharides and disaccharides] added to foods or drinks by the manufacturer, cook or consumer, and sugars naturally present in honey, syrups and unsweetened fruit juices) during pregnancy and respiratory and atopic outcomes in the offspring in a population-based birth cohort, the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children.  **Methods**: We analysed associations between maternal intake of free sugar in pregnancy (estimated by a food frequency questionnaire), and current doctor-diagnosed asthma, wheezing, hay fever, eczema, atopy, serum total IgE and lung function in children aged 7-9 years. | After controlling for potential confounders, maternal intake of free sugar was positively associated with atopy (OR for highest versus lowest quintile of sugar intake 1.38, 95% CI 1.06-1.78; per quintile p-trend=0.006) and atopic asthma (OR 2.01, 95% CI 1.23-3.29; per quintile p-trend=0.004). These associations were not confounded by intake of sugar in early childhood, which was unrelated to these outcomes. |  |
| Donazar-Ezcurra et al 2018101  Spain  Seguimiento Universidad de Navarra (SUN)  Cohort | 3,396 women | **Aim:** To investigate the incidence of GDM according to soft drink consumption in the SUN project.  **Methods**: A validated 136-item semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire was used to assess soft drink consumption. Four categories of sugar-sweetened soft drink (SSSD) and diet soft drink (DSD) consumption (servings) were established: rarely or never (<1/month), low (1-3/month), intermediate (>3/month and </=1/week) and high (>/=2/week). Potential confounders were adjusted through non-conditional logistic regression models. | During the follow-up, we identified 172 incident cases of GDM. After adjusting for age, baseline body mass index, family history of diabetes, smoking, total energy intake, physical activity, parity, fast-food consumption, adherence to Mediterranean dietary pattern, alcohol intake, multiple pregnancy, cardiovascular disease/hypertension at baseline, fibre intake, following special diet and snacking, SSSD consumption was significantly associated with an increased risk of incident GDM, for the highest (aOR 2.03; 95%CI 1.25 to 3.31) and intermediate categories (aOR 1.67; 95%CI 1.01 to 2.77) versus the lowest category (p for linear trend: 0.006). Conversely, DSD consumption was not associated with GDM incidence (aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.52 to 1.31) for the highest versus the lowest category (p for linear trend: 0.258). Additional sensitivity analyses did not change the results. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of fast foods during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Von Ehrenstein et al 2015106  United States  Cohort | 1,201 mother-infant pairs | **Aim**: To investigate whether maternal fast food intake during pregnancy increases offspring's risk for asthmatic symptoms.  **Methods**: Detailed information about prenatal fast food intake and other dietary, lifestyle/ environmental factors, and pregnancy was collected shortly after birth; further data were retrieved from birth certificates. Using the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood core questions, asthma and rhinitis symptoms were assessed, and doctor's diagnoses were recorded in offspring 3.5 years after birth. Poisson regression with robust error variance using a log link function was used to estimate relative risks (RRs). Models were adjusted using covariates or propensity scores. | Maternal prenatal fast food consumption related to increased relative risks of their children for severe, and current asthma symptoms (wheeze last 12 months combined with doctor's diagnosis) in a dose-dependent manner: 'once a month': RR: 0.99 (95% CI: 0.36 to 2.75), 'once a week': 1.26 (0.47 to 3.34); '3-4 days a week': 2.17 (0.77 to 6.12); and 'every day' 4.46 (1.36 to 14.6) compared to 'never', adjusting for potential confounders (p for trend = 0.0025). There was also suggestion of increased risks for rhinitis symptoms. |  |
| Castro-Rodriguez et al 201653  International Study of Wheezing in Infants  Spain  Cohort | 1,000 preschool children | **Aim**: To examine whether some foods and Mediterranean diet (MedDiet) consumed by the mother during pregnancy and by the child during the first years of life can be protective for current wheezing, rhinitis and dermatitis at preschool age.  **Methods**: Questionnaires of epidemiological factors and food intake by the mother during pregnancy and later by the child were filled in by parents in two surveys at two different time points (1.5 yrs and 4 yrs of life). | High fast food consumption (≥3 times a week) by mothers in pregnancy was associated with a higher prevalence of dermatitis in the child (p=0.005). |  |
| Dominguez et al 2014105  Spain  Seguimiento Universidad de Navarra (SUN)  Cohort | 3,048 women | **Aim**: To investigate the incidence of gestational diabetes according to the consumption of fast food in a cohort of university graduates.  **Methods**: The cohort included data of 3,048 women initially free of diabetes or previous gestational diabetes who reported at least one pregnancy between December 1999 and March 2011. Fast food consumption was assessed through a validated 136-item semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire. Fast food was defined as the consumption of hamburgers, sausages, and pizza. Three categories of fast food were established: low (0-3 servings/month), intermediate (>3 servings/month and </=2 servings/week) and high (>2 servings/week). Non-conditional logistic regression models were used to adjust for potential confounders. | After adjusting for age, baseline body mass index, total energy intake, smoking, physical activity, family history of diabetes, cardiovascular disease/hypertension at baseline, parity, adherence to Mediterranean dietary pattern, alcohol intake, fibre intake, and sugar-sweetened soft drinks consumption, fast food consumption was significantly associated with a higher risk of incident gestational diabetes, with multivariate adjusted OR 1.31 (0.81 to 2.13) and 1.86 (95% CI: 1.13-3.06) for the intermediate and high categories, respectively, versus the lowest category of baseline fast food consumption (p for linear trend: 0.007). |  |
| Lombardi et al 201576  United States  Case-control | Cases 163  Controls 136 | **Aim**: To examine the relation between maternal diet and unilateral retinoblastoma.  **Methods**: A case-control study of 163 unilateral RB cases and 136 controls ascertained information on maternal diet during pregnancy using a standardised food frequency questionnaire. Logistic regression was used to assess the relation between retinoblastoma and food groups and dietary patterns. | A positive association was seen with intake of fried foods (OR 4.89, 95 % CI 1.72 to 13.89). |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of water during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Watson et al 201499  New Zealand  Cohort | 369 women | **Aim:** To investigate the association between water and nutrient intake in pregnant women, and wheeze in their 18-month-old infants.  **Methods**: Participants were visited in months 4 and 7 of pregnancy. At each visit anthropometric measurements were taken, diet assessed by 24-hour recall and 3-day food records and questionnaires determining personal details administered. Eighteen months after birth, infants were measured, and questions on infant feeding and wheeze asked. | After adjusting for significant covariates and energy intake, higher maternal intakes of dietary water (aOR 0.22 [0.07,0.68]; p=0.009) was associated with decreased wheeze.  Prevalence of infant wheeze decreased 18.5% from the lower to the upper quartile of water intake, and 17.4% from the lower to the upper quartile of manganese intake. |  |

1. Q2 Consumption of caffeine during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Miyake et al 2019110  Japan  Cross-section | 1,119 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the association between maternal caffeine consumption during pregnancy and behavioural problems in Japanese children aged 5 years.  **Methods**: Dietary intake was assessed using a diet history questionnaire. Emotional problems, conduct problems, hyperactivity problems, and peer problems were assessed using the Japanese parent-report version of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire. Adjustment was made for maternal age, gestation at baseline, region of residence at baseline, number of children at baseline, maternal and paternal education, household income, maternal depressive symptoms during pregnancy, maternal alcohol intake during pregnancy, maternal smoking during pregnancy, child's birth weight, child's sex, breastfeeding duration, and smoking in the household during the first year of life. | The contributors of caffeine in the diet during pregnancy were Japanese and Chinese tea (74.8%), coffee (13.0%), black tea (4.4%), confectionaries (4.0%), and soft drinks (3.7%).  Higher maternal caffeine consumption during pregnancy was independently associated with a reduced risk of peer problems in the children:   * Quintile 2: aOR 0.61 (0.35 to 1.06) * Quintile 3: aOR 0.52 (0.29 to 0.91) * Quintile 4: aOR 0.51 (0.28 to 0.91)   Maternal caffeine intake during pregnancy was not evidently related to the risk of emotional problems, conduct problems, or hyperactivity problems in the children. |  |
| Okubo et al 2015108  Japan  Cross-section | 858 women | **Aim**: To investigate whether maternal consumption of total caffeine and culture-specific major sources of caffeine would be associated with birth outcomes among Japanese pregnant.  **Methods**: Maternal diet during pregnancy was assessed using a validated, self-administered diet history questionnaire. Birth outcomes considered were low birth weight (LBW; <2500 g), preterm birth (PTB; <37 weeks of gestation), and small for gestational age (SGA; <10th percentile). | The main caffeine sources were Japanese and Chinese tea (73.5%), coffee (14.3%), black tea (6.6%), and soft drinks (3.5%).  After controlling for confounders, maternal total caffeine intake during pregnancy was significantly associated with an increased risk of PTB (OR per 100 mg/d caffeine increase 1.28; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.58; P for trend = 0.03).  No evident relationships were observed between total caffeine intake and risk of LBW or SGA. |  |
| Colapinto et al 2015107  Canada  Cohort | 1,898 women | **Aim**: To determine whether tea intake in the first trimester was associated with elevated concentrations of various pesticides in maternal blood or urine. Further, we examined the relationship between tea consumption and adverse birth outcomes.  **Methods**: All singleton, live births with available biomarkers were included in the analyses. Descriptive statistics were used to characterise the population. The geometric means (GM) of organochlorine (OC) pesticide constituents or metabolites in maternal plasma (lipid adjusted) and organophosphate (OP) pesticide metabolites (adjusted for specific gravity) in maternal urine were calculated for participants who drank regular, green or herbal tea in the first trimester and for those who did not. Differences between groups were examined using chi-square or t-tests. Associations between frequency of drinking tea and adverse birth outcomes were examined using logistic regression (preterm birth and small-for-gestational-age). | <1 vs ≥1 cups tea per week:   * Preterm birth: aOR 0.99 (0.61 to 1.61) * Spontaneous preterm birth: aOR 1.08 (0.59 to 1.98) * Small for gestational age: aOR 1.43 (0.83 to 2.46)   There were no significant differences in concentrations of OC or OP pesticides or metabolites between tea drinkers and non tea drinkers. |  |
| Greenop et al 2014109  Australia  Case-control | 293 cases  726 controls | **Aim**: To investigate whether maternal coffee or tea consumption during pregnancy was associated with the risk of childhood brain tumours (CBTs).  **Methods**: Case children were recruited from 10 paediatric oncology centres and control children by nationwide random-digit dialling, frequency matched to cases on the basis of age, sex and state of residence. Coffee and tea intake were assessed using a food frequency questionnaire. Odds ratios (ORs) and confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated using multivariable unconditional logistic regression. | There was little evidence of an association between gestational consumption of any coffee (OR 1.23, 95% CI 0.92 to 1.64) or tea (OR 1.00, 95% CI 0.74 to 1.36) and CBT risk. Among children aged under 5 years, the OR for any coffee consumption during pregnancy was 1.76 (95% CI 1.09 to 2.84) and for ≥2 cups per day during pregnancy was 2.52 (95% CI 1.26, 5.04).  There was no association between maternal tea drinking and risk of CBT. |  |

1. Q2 Potential allergens

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Bunyavanich et al 201490  United States  Cohort | 1,227 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the associations between maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during early pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma.  **Methods**: Using food frequency questionnaires administered during the first and second trimesters, we assessed maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during pregnancy. In mid-childhood (mean age 7.9 years), we assessed food allergy, asthma, allergic rhinitis, and atopic dermatitis by questionnaire and serum-specific IgE levels. We examined the associations between maternal diet during pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma. We also examined the cross-sectional associations between specific food allergies, asthma, and atopic conditions in mid-childhood. | Higher maternal wheat intake during the second trimester was associated with reduced atopic dermatitis (OR 0.64; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.90). |  |
| Bunyavanich et al 201490  United States  Cohort | 1,227 mother-child pairs | **Aim**: To examine the associations between maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during early pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma.  **Methods**: Using food frequency questionnaires administered during the first and second trimesters, we assessed maternal intake of common childhood food allergens during pregnancy. In mid-childhood (mean age 7.9 years), we assessed food allergy, asthma, allergic rhinitis, and atopic dermatitis by questionnaire and serum-specific IgE levels. We examined the associations between maternal diet during pregnancy and childhood allergy and asthma. We also examined the cross-sectional associations between specific food allergies, asthma, and atopic conditions in mid-childhood. | Higher maternal peanut intake (each additional z score) during the first trimester was associated with 47% reduced odds of peanut allergic reaction (OR 0.53; 95%CI 0.30 to 0.94). |  |
| Frazier et al 2014111  United States  Cohort | 8,205 children | **Aim:** To examine the association between peripregnancy consumption of peanuts and tree nuts by mothers and the risk of peanut/tree nut allergy in their offspring.  **Methods**: Participants were born between January 1, 1990, and December 31, 1994, and are the offspring of women who previously reported their diet during, or shortly before or after, their pregnancy with this child. In 2006, the offspring reported physician-diagnosed food allergy. Mothers were asked to confirm the diagnosis and to provide available medical records and allergy test results. Cases were reviewed by two board-certified paediatricians, including a board-certified allergist/immunologist. | The incidence of peanut/tree nut allergy in the offspring was significantly lower among children of non-allergic mothers who consumed more peanuts/tree nuts in their peripregnancy diet (≥5 times vs <1 time per month: OR 0.31; 95% CI 0.13 to 0.75; P(trend)=0.004).  By contrast, a non-significant positive association was observed between maternal peripregnancy peanut/tree nut consumption and risk of peanut/tree nut allergy in the offspring of peanut/tree nut allergic mothers (P(trend)=0.12). |  |

## **Q3**: What are the harms and benefits of vitamin and mineral supplementation in pregnancy?

### Vitamins

#### Folic acid (vitamin B9)

##### Background

Following the introduction of mandatory folic acid fortification of bread in 2009, estimated mean folic acid intake increased among women of childbearing age (from 102 μg to 247 μg/day), which is below the 400 μg/day recommended to help prevent neural tube defects as expected but still greater than the increase of 100 μg/day predicted when developing the fortification requirement.113

Due to differences in folate testing methodologies and the representativeness of the baseline data, it was difficult to accurately quantify changes in folate status in the target population post-mandatory fortification. However, available data sources suggest improvements in mean serum folate levels.113

There has been a decrease in neural tube defect rates following the introduction of mandatory folic acid fortification. There was a statistically significant 14.4% decrease in the rate of neural tube defect rates in the total study population (10.2 to 8.7 per 10,000 conceptions that resulted in a birth) and a non-statistically significant 12.5% decrease in the rate of neural tube defects in the population omitting New South Wales residents (12.8 to 11.2 per 10,000 conceptions that resulted in a birth).113

Women taking medicines that are folate antagonists (eg carbamazepine, lamotrigine) should be encouraged to take high-dose folate supplements preconception and during the first trimester.114

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 30.6% were taking a folic acid supplement.115 A cross-sectional study that included national and South Australian cohorts found that, while awareness of recommendations on folic acid supplementation was high (90%), adherence was low (27%).116

In an Australian cohort study,117 19-46% of women did not meet the recommended daily intake for folate. Conversely, 15-19 % of women consumed beyond the recommended upper limit for folate.

The current Guidelines include a recommendation to ‘Inform women that dietary supplementation with folic acid, from 12 weeks before conception and throughout the first 12 weeks of pregnancy, reduces the risk of having a baby with a neural tube defect and recommend a dose of 500 micrograms per day’ and a practice point ‘Specific attention needs to be given to promoting folic acid supplementation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women of childbearing age and providing information to individual women at the first antenatal visit’.

##### Current review

This review identified 17 systematic reviews,75,118-134 and 5 RCTs.135-139

###### Maternal outcomes

Two systematic reviews of RCTs and observational studies, with considerable overlap in studies, analysed the association between multivitamins containing folic acid supplementation and gestational hypertension/pre-eclampsia. One found a reduction in gestational hypertension/pre-eclampsia in RCTs (RR 0.62; 95%CI 0.45 to 0.87; 2 RCTs) but not cohort studies (RR 0.92; 95%CI 0.79 to 1.08; 9 cohort studies).132 The other found a reduction in pre-eclampsia (RR 0.69; 95%CI 0.58 to 0.83; 12 studies; n=311,991) but not gestational hypertension (RR 1.19; 95%CI 0.92 to 1.54; 4 studies; n=266,938).134 There was no reduction in pre-eclampsia for folic acid alone (RR 0.97; 95%CI 0.80 to 1.17; 4 studies; n=210,896).134 A systematic review of observational studies found a reduction in pre-eclampsia associated with folic acid supplementation (OR 0.78; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.98; 8 studies).126 However, subgroup analysis showed no clear difference between folic acid alone compared to folic acid in or alongside a multivitamin. A multicentre RCT (n=2,271) found no reduction in risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 1.10, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.34; p=0.37).138

A small RCT (n=119) found that women who continued folic acid supplementation into the second trimester had higher levels of serum folate (p<0.001), red blood cell folate (p<0.001) and cord blood folate (p=0.001) and lower levels of plasma homocysteine (p=0.006) at 36 weeks than women who did not.136 In another RCT (n=410), compared to women who took a daily dose of 5 mg, women who took 0.5 mg daily had higher homocysteine levels (p<0.001), higher rates of early abortion (p=0.005) and lower birth weight infants (p=0.031).137 There was no effect on systolic (p=0.84) or diastolic (p=0.15) blood pressure. Another RCT suggested that a higher dose (4 mg) reduced risk of fetal growth restriction (aRR 0.65; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.93) compared to 0.8 mg per day.139

###### Infant and childhood outcomes

A systematic review of RCTs found no effect on total fetal loss (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.64 to 1.40; 1 RCT; n=903), early or late miscarriage (RR 0.97; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.44; 1 RCT; n=903) or stillbirth (RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.11 to 4.02; 1 RCT; n=903).125

Two systematic reviews of RCTs were consistent in finding no clear effect on preterm birth <37 weeks (RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.82 to 1.18;121 RR 1.09; 95%CI 0.77 to 1.54; 1 study; n=2,797133). They were also consistent in finding no effect on low birthweight (RR 0.79; 95%CI 0.49 to 1.28;121 RR 0.80; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.02; 3 studies; n=3,089133) and perinatal death (RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.34;121 RR 1.33; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.85; 3 studies; n=3,110133). A meta-analysis of RCTs and observational studies also found no clear reduction in low birthweight (OR 0.82; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.06; 3 RCTs, 10 observational studies).131 However, a systematic review of cohort studies suggested a reduction in risk of preterm birth (RR 0.68; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.90; 2 studies; n=575) and small-for-gestational age (RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.81 to 0.89; 3 studies; n=17,553).124

A systematic review of RCTs found that folic acid supplementation was associated with a reduction in risk of neural tube defects (RR 0.31; 95%CI 0.17 to 0.58; 5 RCTs; n=6,708; high certainty) and cleft palate (RR 0.73; 95%CI 0.05 to 0.89; 3 RCTs; n=5,612; low certainty) but there was no effect on other congenital anomalies.129 A systematic review of observational studies found a reduction in cleft lip with or without cleft palate (OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.61 to 0.85) but not cleft palate only (OR.0.75, 95%CI 0.53 to 1.04).119

Systematic reviews of case-control studies found a reduction in congenital heart defects (RR 0.72; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.82;130 OR 0.60; 95%CI 0.49 to 0.71123).

A systematic review of observational studies122 found no clear difference in risk of asthma (RR 1.04; 95%CI 0.94 to 1.16; low certainty) or wheeze (RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.95 to 1.15; low certainty) with folic acid supplementation during pregnancy in general but a slight increase in risk of wheeze when supplementation occurred in early pregnancy (RR 1.06; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.09; low certainty).

A systematic review of observational studies118 found a reduction in autism spectrum disorders with folic acid supplementation (RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.64 to 0.93, 16 studies).

Based on evidence from systematic reviews of observational studies, folic acid supplementation during pregnancy appears to reduce the risk of acute myeloid leukaemia (OR 0.52; 95%CI 0.31 to 0.89)120 and childhood brain and spinal cord tumours (OR 0.77; 95%CI 0.66 to 0.90).127 The evidence on acute lymphoblastic leukaemia was inconsistent, with one review finding a reduced risk (OR 0.77; 95%CI 0.67 to 0.88)120 and the other finding no clear difference (RR 0.87; 95%CI 0.57 to 1.34).75

#### Vitamin B6

##### Background

Vitamin B6 plays vital roles in numerous metabolic processes in the human body, such as nervous system development and functioning. It has been associated with some benefits in non-randomised studies, such as higher Apgar scores, higher birthweights, and reduced incidence of pre-eclampsia and preterm birth.140

##### Current review

This review identified two systematic reviews. One review found a clear improvement in nausea score when vitamin B6 was compared to placebo (MD -3.7; 95%CI -6.9 to -0.5; very low certainty).141 A Cochrane review140 found that there is not enough evidence to detect clinical benefits of vitamin B6 supplementation in pregnancy and/or labour other than one trial suggesting protection against dental decay.

#### Vitamin B12

##### Background

Vitamin B12 deficiency in pregnancy is associated with adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes.142 Infants born to vitamin B12-deficient women may be at increased risk of neural tube defects, and maternal vitamin B12 insufficiency (<200 pmol/L) can impair infant growth, psychomotor function, and brain development, which may be irreversible.142 The evidence on an association between maternal B12 levels and low birth weight is inconsistent.143

Vitamin B12 insufficiency during pregnancy is common even in non-vegetarian populations and concentrations of vitamin B12 decrease from the first to the third trimester.143

The guidelines currently state that:

* vitamin B12 deficiency is common in most of the developing world but few studies have examined the prevalence of vitamin B12 deficiency in Australia
* there is emerging evidence of vitamin B12 deficiency among refugees in Australia due to limited or no sources of animal foods before resettlement
* vitamin B12 supplementation may be needed if a woman has a vegetarian or vegan diet.

##### Current review

This review identified two RCTs of vitamin B12 supplementation in pregnancy,144-146 both of which were conducted in developing countries. These studies found that:

* vitamin B12 supplementation (250 mug/day + 60 mg iron + 400 mug folate throughout pregnancy and 3-month postpartum) improved maternal, infant and breast milk B12 status and H1N1 vaccine-specific responses in women and may alleviate inflammatory responses in infants146
* with vitamin B12 supplementation 50 microg/day from 14 weeks gestation to 6 weeks postpartum there was no significant difference in cognitive development among infants at 9 months but higher expressive language scores among infants at 30 months (ß 0.14, P=0.03).144,145

#### Vitamin C

##### Background

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 8.2% were taking a vitamin C supplement.115

The Guidelines currently recommend that women be advised that taking vitamin C supplements is not of benefit in pregnancy and may cause harm.

##### Current review

This review identified three systematic reviews125,147,148 and one RCT that reported on the effect of antenatal vitamin C supplementation on airway function in infants of women who smoked during pregnancy.149

A Cochrane review into the effect of vitamin supplementation on the risk of miscarriage125 found no clear difference in total fetal loss (RR 1.28; 95%CI 0.58 to 2.83; 2 RCTs; n=224), early or late miscarriage (RR 1.17; 95%CI 0.52 to 2.65; 2 RCTs; n=224) or stillbirth (RR 3.0; 95%CI 0.12 to 72.77; 1 RCT; n=200).

Another Cochrane review that evaluated the effects of antenatal vitamin C supplementation alone148 found no clear difference in risk of perinatal death (RR 0.51; 95%CI 0.05 to 5.54; 1 RCT; n=182), intrauterine growth restriction (RR 1.56; 95%CI 0.63 to 3.89; 1 RCT; n=159; high certainty), preterm birth (RR 1.06; 95%CI 0.75 to 1.48; 5 RCTs; n=1,685; high certainty) or pre-eclampsia (RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.61; 3 RCTs; n=1,191). There was a possible reduction in risk of preterm premature rupture of the membranes (PROM) (RR 0.66; 95%CI 0.48 to 0.91; 5 studies; n=1,282) and term PROM (RR 0.55; 95%CI 0.32 to 0.94; 1 study; n=170).

Another systematic review147 also found no clear difference in risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.38 to 1.57).

The RCT found that antenatal vitamin C supplementation among women who smoked during pregnancy improved infant airway function at 3 months.149

#### Vitamin E

##### Background

The Guidelines currently recommend that women be advised that taking vitamin E supplements is not of benefit in pregnancy and may cause harm.

##### Current review

This review identified two systematic reviews that focussed on supplementation of vitamin E alone.147,150

One systematic review found no clear difference in risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 0.54; 95%CI 0.06 to 5.11; 1 RCT).147 The other review was of observational studies and suggested that maternal vitamin E supplementation may reduce the risk of childhood asthma (OR 0.97; 95%CI 0.95 to 1.00) and wheeze in children (OR 0.65; 95%CI 0.56 to 0.75).150

#### Vitamin C and E combined

##### Background

The Guidelines currently comment that vitamin C and E combined has been associated with perinatal death and preterm rupture of the membranes.

##### Current review

This review identified five systematic reviews and one RCT that evaluated the relationship between vitamin C and E supplementation and perinatal outcomes by maternal smoking status.

A Cochrane review125 found no clear difference in risk of total fetal loss (RR 1.14; 95%CI 0.92 to 1.40; 7 RCTs; n=18,949), early or late miscarriage (RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.26; 4 RCTs; n=13,346), stillbirth (RR 1.31; 95%CI 0.97 to 1.76; 7 RCTs; n=21,442), congenital malformations (RR 1.17; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.62; 5 RCTs; n=8,334) or any adverse effects of vitamin supplementation sufficient to stop supplementation (RR 1.16; 95%CI 0.39 to 3.41; 1 RCT; n=739).

Another Cochrane review that assessed the effects of vitamin E alone or in combination with other supplements (most commonly vitamin C)151 found no clear difference in risk of stillbirth (RR 1.17; 95%CI 0.88 to 1.56, 9 RCTs, n=19,023; moderate certainty), neonatal death (RR 0.81, 95%CI 0.58 to 1.13, 9 RCTs, n=18,617), pre-eclampsia (RR 0.91; 95% CI 0.79 to 1.06; 14 RCTs, n=20,878; moderate certainty), preterm birth (RR 0.98; 95% CI 0.88 to 1.09, 11 RCTs, n=20,565; high certainty), intrauterine growth restriction (RR 0.98, 95%CI 0.91 to 1.06, 11 RCTs, n=20,202; high certainty), preterm prelabour rupture of the membranes (PROM) (RR 1.27; 95% CI 0.93 to 1.75, 5 RCTs, n=1,999; low certainty) or self-reported abdominal pain (RR 1.66; 95% CI 1.16 to 2.37, 1 RCT, n=1,877). The risk of placental abruption appeared to be reduced (RR 0.64; 95% CI 0.44 to 0.93, 7 RCTs, n=14,922; high certainty) and that of term PROM increased (RR 1.77; 95% CI 1.37 to 2.28, 2 RCTs, n=2,504).

The other systematic reviews found no clear difference in risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.90 to 1.08;147 RR 1.00; 95%CI 0.91 to 1.10)152 or childhood allergic diseases153 — recurrent wheeze (OR 0.83; 95%CI 0.26 to 2.59), asthma (OR 0.94; 95%CI 0.42 to 2.11) or eczema (OR 1.10; 95%CI 0.70 to 1.74).

The RCT found a possible reduced risk of placental abruption (RR 0.09; 95%CI 0.00 to 0.87) and preterm birth (RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.58 to 0.99) among women who smoked during pregnancy.

#### Vitamin A

##### Background

Vitamin A is a crucial micronutrient for pregnant women and their babies as it is essential for morphological and functional development and ocular integrity and exerts systemic effects on several fetal organs and on the fetal skeleton.154 While vitamin A deficiency in pregnant women is a public health issue in most developing countries, an excess of vitamin A may exert teratogenic effects in the first 60 days following conception.154 A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 2.3% were taking vitamin A supplements.115

The Guidelines currently recommend that women be advised that taking vitamin A supplements is not of benefit in pregnancy and may cause harm.

##### Current review

The current review identified two systematic reviews125,155 and one RCT.156

In one Cochrane review,125 there was no clear difference in risk of fetal loss (RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.90 to 1.23; 3 RCTs; n=52,480), early or late miscarriage (RR 0.98; 95%CI 0.92 to 1.04; 1 RCT; n=39,668) or stillbirth (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.86 to 1.06; 1 RCT; n=39,668).

The other Cochrane review155 found no clear difference in maternal mortality (RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.20; 4 RCTs; n=154,039; high certainty), perinatal mortality (RR 1.01; 95%CI 0.95 to 1.07; 1 RCT, n=76,178; high certainty) or preterm birth (RR 0.98; 95%CI 0.94 to 1.01; 5 RCTs, n=48,007; high certainty). There was a possible reduced risk of maternal clinical infection (RR 0.45; 95%CI 0.20 to 0.99; 5 RCTs; n=17,313; low certainty) and maternal anaemia (in areas where vitamin A deficiency is common or among women with HIV) (RR 0.64; 95%CI 0.43 to 0.94; 3 RCTs; n=15,649; moderate certainty).

The RCT found no clear effect on cognitive function of children at 8 years of age.156

#### Multiple micronutrients

##### Background

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 79.1% were taking a multivitamin supplement.115

In a cross-sectional study among pregnant women in southern Queensland,157 42% of participants used pregnancy multivitamins, with 26.8% using multivitamins in combination with individual micronutrients and 9.8% using specific micronutrient supplements. Nulliparous women were more likely to use supplements than their multiparous peers (aOR 1.938; 95% CI 1.053 to 3.571, p=0.034); smoking (aOR 2.717; 95%CI 1.011 to 7.302; p=0.047) and low socio-economic status (aOR 2.451; 95%CI 1.010–5.949; p=0.048) were associated with no supplement use.

In a retrospective analysis of uncomplicated pregnancies in Queensland,158 women taking individual zinc, folic acid or iron supplements in combination with a multivitamin in the third trimester were twice as likely to give birth beyond 41 completed weeks (aOR 2.054, 95%CI 1.310 to 7.383, p=0.038) then those who did not take any supplement and rates of post-dates labour and requirements for induction were lower among women not taking supplements (AOR 0.483, 95% CI 0.278-0.840, p=0.01).

In an Australian cohort study,159 first trimester multivitamin use was reported by 31.8% of women and, after adjustment, was associated with a 67% reduction in pre-eclampsia risk (95%CI 0.14 to 0.75). Stratification by BMI demonstrated a 55% reduction in pre-eclampsia risk (95%CI 0.30 to 0.86) in overweight and 62% risk reduction (95%CI 0.16 to 0.92) in obese women who supplemented with multivitamins in the first trimester of pregnancy.

In an Australian cohort study,117 pregnancy-specific multivitamin use was reported by 47% of women in the first trimester, 51% in the second trimester and 46% in the third trimester. General multivitamin use was reported by 31% of women in the first trimester, 27% in the second trimester and 35% in the third trimester.

In an Australian cross-sectional study,160 83% of women took a multivitamin during pregnancy, with 90% of women with post-secondary education and 64% of women with only secondary education using these supplements.

A Danish cohort study161 found that early multivitamin use was associated with an approximately 30% reduction in risk for hyperkinetic disorders diagnosis (aHR: 0.70, 95% CI: 0.52 to 0.96) and 21% reduction in treatment with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder medication (aHR: 0.79, 95% CI: 0.62 to 0.98). A Chinese cohort study162 found that maternal multimicronutrient supplementation had no effect on intellectual development in children aged 7-10 years.

The current Guidelines note that an observational study has shown a positive association between risk of preterm birth and multivitamins and minerals if taken daily in the third trimester by women who were unlikely to be deficient in these nutrients.163

##### Current review

The current review identified four systematic reviews and four RCTs of relevance to multiple micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy.

A Cochrane review164 that compared multiple micronutrients with iron and folic acid to iron with or without folic acid found a reduction in risk of very preterm birth (<34 weeks) (RR 0.81, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.93; 4 trials, n=37,701), small for gestational age (RR 0.92, 95% CI 0.88 to 0.97; 17 trials; n=57,348; moderate-certainty evidence) and low birth weight (RR 0.88, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.91; 18 trials, n=68,801; high-certainty evidence). There was a possible reduction in risk of preterm birth (<37 weeks) (RR 0.95, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.01; 18 trials, n=91,425; moderate-certainty evidence), stillbirth (RR 0.95, 95% CI 0.86 to 1.04; 17 trials, n=97,927; high-certainty evidence) and miscarriage (RR 0.99, 95% CI 0.94 to 1.04; 12 trials, n=100,565). There was no clear difference in risk of perinatal mortality (RR 1.00, 95% CI 0.90 to 1.11; 15 trials, n=63,922; high-certainty evidence), neonatal mortality (RR 1.00, 95% CI 0.89 to 1.12; 14 trials, n=80,964; high-certainty evidence), maternal mortality (RR 1.06, 95% CI 0.72 to 1.54; 6 trials, n=106,275), maternal anaemia in the third trimester (RR 1.04, 95% CI 0.94 to 1.15; 9 trials, n=5912), caesarean section (RR 1.13, 95% CI 0.99 to 1.29; 5 trials, n=12,836) or congenital anomalies (R 1.34, 95% CI 0.25 to 7.12; 2 trials, n=1,958).

A systematic review of observational studies165 that evaluated the association between multivitamin use among women in high-income countries and the risk of adverse outcomes found a reduction in risk of small for gestational age (RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.93; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty), neural tube defects (RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.87; 6 cohort studies; very low certainty), cardiovascular defects (RR 0.83; 95%CI 0.70 to 0.98; 6 cohort studies; low certainty), urinary tract defects (RR 0.60; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.78; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty) and limb deficiencies (RR 0.68; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.89; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty). There was a possible reduction in risk of preterm birth (RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.69 to 1.03; 4 cohort studies; very low certainty), stillbirth (RR 0.78; 95%CI 0.59 to 1.03; 2 studies; low certainty) and cleft lip with or without cleft palate (RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.77 to 1.01; 6 cohort studies; low certainty). There was no clear difference in risk of low birth weight (RR 0.79; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.41; 2 studies; very low certainty) or cleft palate (RR 1.12; 95%CI 0.94 to 1.33; 6 cohort studies; low certainty).

A systematic review of observational studies166 suggested a reduction in risk of autism spectrum disorder among children of women who took multivitamins during pregnancy (RR 0.57; 95% CI, 0.36 to 0.91; p=0.018; 3 studies).

The RCTs were conducted in developing countries (Bangladesh, China, Iran and Nepal), reported different outcomes and found:

* a possible reduction in risk of gestational hypertension (aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.02) and late-onset gestational hypertension (aOR 0.85; 95%CI 0.73 to 0.99) among women taking multiple micronutrients compared to those taking iron plus folic acid (n=11,847)167
* no clear difference in lung function at 7-9 years of age in children born during a trial of micronutrients versus iron plus folic acid (forced expiratory volume: MD -0.08; 95%CI -0.19 to 0.04; forced vital capacity: MD -0.05; 95%CI -0.17 to 0.06; FEV1/FVC: MD -0.04; 95%CI -0.15 to 0.07)(n=793)168
* a lower prevalence of deficiencies of vitamins B12, A and D and zinc (all p<0.05) among women taking multivitamins compared to those receiving iron plus folic acid (n=1,526)169
* beneficial effects on levels of triglycerides (p=0.04), HDL cholesterol (p=0.02) and glutathione (p=0.003) but not fasting plasma glucose, total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol or total antioxidant capacity among women taking a multivitamin plus calcium, iron and magnesium compared to those receiving the multivitamin alone (n=70).170

### Minerals

#### Iron supplementation

##### Background

Australian studies have investigated rates of iron supplementation, intake and anaemia among Australian women during pregnancy.

* A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 30.4% were taking an iron supplement.115
* A cross-sectional study in Sydney (n=589)171 found that overall iron-containing supplement use was 88.0%, of which 70.1% was multivitamin only, 7.2% was iron-only and 22.2% was both. About 65% of women diagnosed with iron deficiency, and 62.3% of women diagnosed with anaemia were taking an iron-only supplement, with or without a multivitamin. The proportion of women consuming low (<30), preventative (30-99) and treatment (≥100) mg/day doses were 36.8%, 45.4%, and 17.8%, respectively. Only 46.7% of women diagnosed with iron deficiency were taking ≥100 mg/day iron from supplements, while 23.3% were taking <30 mg/day.
* In an Australian cohort study117 68-82% of women did not meet the recommended daily intake level for iron. Conversely, 11-24% of women consumed beyond the recommended upper limit for iron.
* A study pregnant women from the Gomeroi gaaynggal cohort (in Tamworth, Newcastle and Walgett NSW) found that only 1.72% of women met the estimated average requirement for iron.172
* A cohort study in far North Queensland (n=2,076) found that more than half of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women (54.5%; 95%CI 52.4% to 56.7%) had anaemia in pregnancy. For women who gave birth in 2009 and 2010 (n=1,796) with more complete data, those who were iron deficient during pregnancy were more likely to be anaemic (RR 1.40, p=<0.001). Women from localities of relative socioeconomic advantage (29.0%) had a lower risk of anaemia in pregnancy (RR 0.86, p=0.003), as did women (31.9%) who were obese (RR 0.87, p=0.013).

The guidelines currently recommend that iron supplementation should not be routinely offered to women during pregnancy and that supplementation be advised for women with identified anaemia. They also recommend that women with low dietary iron intake be advised that intermittent supplementation is as effective as daily supplementation in preventing iron-deficiency anaemia, with fewer side effects. The Guidelines also include practice points.

* Women at high risk of iron deficiency due to limited access to dietary iron may benefit from practical advice on increasing intake of iron-rich foods.
* Oral iron remains first-line treatment for iron-deficiency anaemia identified in the antenatal period. Intravenous iron should be offered to women who do not respond to oral iron or are unable to comply with therapy. In some remote settings, intramuscular iron may be administered by a health professional who does not have intravenous endorsement or where intravenous iron cannot be accessed.

The second practice point is inconsistent with the National Blood Authority guidelines, which advise against the use of intramuscular iron when alternatives are available.

##### Current review

This review included four systematic reviews173-176 and six RCTs.177-184

Two systematic reviews — a Cochrane review174 and a more recent review173 — reported on maternal anaemia at term, maternal side effects, neonatal death, preterm birth and low birthweight. The reviews were consistent in finding a reduction in risk of maternal anaemia at term (RR 0.30; 95%CI 0.19 to 0.46, 14 RCTs, n=2,199; low certainty174; RR 0.38; 95% CI 0.27 to 0.33; 13 RCTs173). The reviews were also consistent in finding no clear effect on maternal side effects (RR 1.29; 95%CI 0.83 to 2.02, 11 RCTs, n=2,423, very low certainty174; RR 1.42; 95%CI 0.91 to 2.21; 12 RCTs173), neonatal death (RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.71 to 1.18, 4 RCTs, n=16,603, low certainty174; RR 0.93; 0.72 to 1.20; 7 RCTs; low certainty173), preterm birth (RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.03, 13 RCTs, n=19,286, moderate certainty173,174) or low birth weight (RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.69 to 1.03; n=17,613; 11 RCTs; low certainty174; RR 0.94, 95% CI 0.79 to 1.13; 7 RCTs; low-certainty173).

The Cochrane review174 also reported a reduction in risk of iron deficiency at term (RR 0.43; 95%CI 0.27 to 0.66, 7 RCTs, n=1,256, low certainty) and no clear effect on maternal infection during pregnancy (RR 1.21; 95%CI 0.33 to 4.46; 1 RCT, n=727; low certainty), maternal death (RR 0.33; 95%CI 0.01 to 8.19, 2 RCTs, n=12,560, very low certainty), birthweight (MD 23.75; 95%CI -3.02 to 50.51, 15 RCTs, n=18,590, moderate certainty) or congenital anomalies (RR 0.88, 95%CI 0.58 to 1.33, 4 RCTs, n=14,636, low certainty).

A systematic review of RCTs176 found no clear effect on infant neurodevelopment (MD 0.54; 95% CI -0.67 to 1.75; 3 RCTs).

A Cochrane review comparing intermittent and daily iron regimens175 found a reduction in side effects (RR 0.56; 95%CI 0.37 to 0.84; n=1,777; 1 RCT; very low certainty) but no clear effect on maternal anaemia at term (RR 1.22; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.80; n=676; 4 RCTs; very low certainty), maternal iron-deficiency anaemia at term (RR 0.71; 95%CI 0.08 to 6.63; 1 RCT, very low certainty), neonatal death (RR 0.49; 95%CI 0.04 to 5.42; n=795; 1 RCT; very low certainty), preterm birth (RR 1.03; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.39; n=1,177; 5 RCTs; low certainty), birth weight (MD 5.13 g; 95%CI -29.46 to 39.72; n=1,939; 9 RCTs; low certainty) or low birth weight (RR 0.82; 95%CI 0.55 to 1.22; n=1,898; 8 RCTs; low certainty).

The RCTs reported:

* higher increases in hemoglobin (p<0.001) and serum ferritin (p<0.001) from baseline to birth, reduced risk of maternal iron deficiency (RR, 0.48; 95%CI, 0.32 to 0.70), iron-deficiency anemia (RR, 0.34; 95%CI, 0.19 to 0.62) and anaemia at birth (RR 0.60; 95%CI, 0.51 to 0.71) but no effect on severe anaemia (RR 0.68; 95%CI, 0.41 to 1.14) or birth weight (3,155 vs 3,137 g, p=0.89) (n=1,469)178
* higher haemoglobin (p=0.03) and ferritin levels (p=0.04) but no effect on birthweight (p=0.2) among women with high haemoglobin at 20 weeks receiving supplements compared to those who did not (n=64)177
* lower risk of nausea (p=0.031), dyspeptic symptoms (p=0.031), vomiting (p=0.039) and constipation (p=0.017) with weekly versus daily supplementation and no clear effect on haemoglobin <11 g/dL (p=0.943), haemoglobin <13 g/dL (p=0.928) or serum ferritin (p=0.927) (n=292)179
* no clear difference in glucose-intolerance related outcomes (p=0.12), large-for-gestational age (p=0.95) or macrosomia (p=0.60) between selective and routine supplementation (n=2,694)181
* higher haemoglobin and ferritin levels with liposomal iron than with ferrous iron (n=60).182

#### Calcium supplementation

##### Background

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 12.9% were taking a calcium supplement.115

The Guidelines currently comment in the nutrition section that, while calcium supplements are useful in decreasing pre-eclampsia risk if dietary intake is low, they do not appear to be of benefit in preventing preterm birth or low infant birth weight. The section on pre-eclampsia includes the following recommendation ‘Advise women at high risk of developing pre-eclampsia that calcium supplementation is beneficial if dietary intake is low’ and a practice point ‘If a woman has a low dietary calcium intake, advise her to increase her intake of calcium-rich foods.’

##### Current review

This review included five systematic reviews185-189, two RCTs190,191 and a cost-effectiveness study.192

There is consistent evidence from systematic reviews that calcium supplementation reduces the risk of gestational hypertension 186,189 and pre-eclampsia 186-189.

High-dose calcium supplementation (≥1 g/day) reduces the risk of gestational hypertension (RR 0.65; 95%CI 0.53 to 0.81; 12 RCTs; n=15,470), with a clearer effect among women with low dietary calcium (RR 0.44; 95%CI 0.28 to 0.70; 7 RCTs; n=10,418) than among women with adequate dietary calcium ( RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.81 to 0.99; 4 RCTs; n=5,022) 186. High dose calcium also reduces the risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 0.45; 95CI 0.31 to 0.65; 13 trials; n=15,730; low certainty).

Low dose calcium (<1 g/day) also reduces the risk of gestational hypertension (RR 0.57; 95%CI 0.39 to 0.82; 3 RCTs; n=558) 186 and pre-eclampsia (RR 0.36; 95%CI 0.23 to 0.57; 4 RCTs; n=980) 187.

A Cochrane review 186 found a reduction in risk of preterm birth <37 weeks with high-dose calcium among all women (RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.60 to 0.97; 11 trials, n=15,275; low certainty). An earlier Cochrane review 185 found no clear difference in risk of preterm birth <34 weeks (RR 1.04; 95%CI 0.80 to 1.36; 4 RCTs, n=5,669; moderate certainty).

Calcium supplementation does not appear to be of benefit in preventing low birth weight (RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.07; 6 RCTs; n=14,162; moderate certainty) 185.

The two RCTs suggested that calcium supplementation may reduce bone resorption.190,191 A cross-sectional study found that higher calcium supplementation (679 vs 336 mg/day) reduced the prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy (aOR 0.59; 95%CI 0.40 to 0.88, p=0.006).89

The cost-effectiveness study found that advising calcium supplementation to all women could reduce the incidence of pre-eclampsia by 25% and is a more efficient approach than advising supplementation to subgroups only.192

#### Iodine supplementation

##### Background

From September 2009 in New Zealand and from October 2009 in Australia, Standard 2.1.1 of the Code required the use of iodised salt instead of non-iodised salt in bread.113 The AIHW reports that, while mandatory fortification delivered sufficient amounts of iodine to the general population, intakes for many pregnant and breastfeeding women were insufficient due to their increased requirements.113

In a review of Australian cohort studies post-fortification (7 studies),193 three studies found that the pregnant women in their studies were iodine replete and four found that pregnant women were in the mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency category. Only two studies, documented iodine sufficiency among pregnant women in the absence of iodine supplementation.

An analysis of cross-sectional data from two Australian longitudinal studies pre- and post-fortification of iodine (n=368)194 found that the median urinary iodine concentration of pregnant Indigenous women in remote locations remains low and targeted interventions are needed to ensure healthy fetal development. In a cross-sectional study in Western Australia (n=425)195 ethnicity was associated with iodised salt use, with 76% of Asian women used iodised salt compared with 33% of Caucasian women. A Tasmanian study (n=255) found that, despite recommendations for iodine supplementation pregnant Tasmanian women remain at risk of iodine deficiency.196

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 6.3% were taking an iodine supplement.115 A study conducted in Gippsland Victoria, a mildly iodine deficient area, found that only 18.9% of participants followed the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) recommendation of 150 μg/day iodine supplement, with 42.3% of participants not taking any supplements or taking supplements with no iodine or insufficient iodine.197 The remaining women (38.7%) were taking supplements with doses of iodine much higher (200-300 μg) than the NHMRC recommended dose or were taking multiple supplements containing iodine. In a South Australian study, 85.9% women met the estimated average requirement (≥160 μg/day) for iodine intake from food and supplements.198 When iodine from supplements was excluded, 44.5% of women met the estimated average requirement for iodine during pregnancy. In a Western Australian study, 66% of pregnant women were taking iodine supplements.199

In a national survey of maternity care providers, while 71% were aware of the National Health and Medical Research Council’s recommendation for iodine supplementation, fewer were aware of the recommended dose (38%) or duration (44%) and only 73% recommended iodine supplements in pregnancy.200

Based on NHMRC (2010) *NHMRC Public Statement: Iodine Supplementation for Pregnant and Breastfeeding Women*, the Guidelines currently recommend that women who are pregnant be advised to take an iodine supplement of 150 micrograms each day.

##### Current review

This review included two systematic reviews201,202 and three RCTs.203-205

The Cochrane review201 reported that, in settings with mild to moderate iodine deficiency, iodine supplementation decreased the likelihood of postpartum hyperthyroidism (average RR 0.32; 95%CI 0.11 to 0.91; three RCTs; n=543 women; low-certainty) and increased the likelihood of digestive intolerance in pregnancy (average RR 15.33; 95%CI 2.07 to 113.70; one RCT; n=76; very low). There were no clear differences between groups for hypothyroidism in pregnancy (average RR 1.90; 95%CI 0.57 to 6.38; one RCT; n=365, low-certainty) or postpartum (average RR 0.44; 95%CI 0.06 to 3.42 three RCTS; n=540; low-certainty), preterm birth (average RR 0.71; 95%CI 0.30 to 1.66; two RCTs; n=376; low-certainty evidence), elevated maternal thyroid peroxidase antibodies in pregnancy (average RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.44 to 2.07; one RCT; n=359; low-certainty) or postpartum (average RR 1.01; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.30; three RCTs; n=397; low-certainty) or hyperthyroidism in pregnancy (average RR 1.90; 95%CI 0.57 to 6.38, one trial; n=365; low-certainty).

The infants of mothers who received iodine supplements had a 34% lower likelihood of perinatal mortality, however this difference was not statistically significant (average RR 0.66; 95%CI 0.42 to 1.03; two RCTs; n=457; low-certainty) and all perinatal deaths occurred in one trial conducted in a severely iodine-deficient setting. There were no clear differences between groups for low birthweight (average RR 0.56; 95%CI 0.26 to 1.23; two RCTs; n=377; low-certainty), neonatal hypothyroidism/elevated thyroid-stimulating hormone (average RR 0.58; 95% CI 0.11 to 3.12, two RCTs; n=260; very low-certainty) or elevated neonatal thyroid peroxidase antibodies (TPO-ab) (average RR 0.61; 95%CI 0.07 to 5.70; one RCT; n=108; very low-certainty).

A subsequent systematic review202 reported on birthweight and found no clear difference between intervention and control groups (MD –13.75; 95%CI–212.46 to 184.97; four RCTs; n=1,743).

The RCTs reported that iodine supplementation:

* increased maternal urinary iodine levels in areas with iodine deficiency (p<0.05)205 and mild-moderate deficiency (p<0.0001)204
* decreased maternal thyroglobulin levels (p=0.02)204
* decreased median neonatal thyroid stimulating hormone levels (p<0.05)205
* had no effect on child neurodevelopment at age 5–6 years in mildly iodine-deficient pregnant women.203

#### Zinc supplementation

##### Background

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 5.6% were taking a zinc supplement.115

In an Australian cohort study117 17-36% of women did not meet the Recommended Daily Intake for zinc.

The Guidelines currently comment that there is a lack of evidence on the harms and benefits of zinc supplementation that is generalisable to the Australian context.

##### Current review

This review included three systematic reviews of RCTs206-208 and three RCTs.209-211

The systematic reviews found that maternal zinc supplementation:

* resulted in a small reduction in preterm birth (RR 0.86; 95%CI 0.76 to 0.97; 16 RCTS; n=7,637; moderate certainty) but not low birthweight (RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.12; 14 RCTs; n=5,643; moderate certainty) and there were no clear differences between groups for any of the other primary maternal or neonatal outcomes, except for induction of labour in a single trial206
* did not clearly decrease the risk of low birth weight (RR 0.76, 95%CI: 0.52 to 1.11)207
* had no clear effect on maternal serum zinc concentration (MD 0.86 umol/L, 95%CI 0.67 to 1.05; 2 studies).208

Two RCTs reported on preterm birth. One found a reduced risk among women with low zinc levels (RR 0.52; 95%CI 0.29 to 0.92; n=397)209 and the other found no clear difference among women without identified low levels of zinc (RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.46 to 1.90).210 There were no clear differences in any other outcomes reported in the RCTs.

The third RCT found that zinc supplementation increased haemoglobin concentration at birth (MD -0.26 g/dL; 95% CI: -0.50 to -0.02; p=0.03) but did not alter serum ferritin (p=0.14) or plasma zinc (p=0.15).211

#### Magnesium supplementation

##### Background

The Guidelines currently comment that there is insufficient evidence to show whether dietary magnesium supplementation during pregnancy is beneficial.

##### Current review

This review identified one Cochrane review212 and four RCTs that reported on relevant outcomes.213-216

In the Cochrane review, there was no clear difference between magnesium and control groups in perinatal mortality (RR 1.10; 95%CI 0.72 to 1.67; 5 RCTs, n=5,903), small-for-gestational age (RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.54 to 1.07; 3 RCTs, n=1,291), preterm birth (RR 0.89; 95%CI 0.69 to 1.14, 7 RCTs, n=5,981), pre-eclampsia (RR 0.87; 95%CI 0.58 to 1.32; 3 RCTs, n=1,042) or pregnancy-induced hypertension (RR 0.39; 95%CI 0.11 to 1.41; 3 RCTs; n=4,284). Magnesium supplementation was associated with significantly fewer babies with an Apgar score less than seven at 5 minutes (RR 0.34; 95%CI 0.15 to 0.80; 4 RCTs; n=1,083) and women receiving magnesium were significantly less likely to require hospitalisation during pregnancy (RR 0.65, 95%CI 0.48 to 0.86; 3 RCTs, n=1,158).

The Cochrane authors concluded that there is not enough high-certainty evidence to show that magnesium supplementation during pregnancy is beneficial.

Two RCTs by the same group found that magnesium supplementation reduced the number of women experiencing increases in diastolic blood pressure in late pregnancy among women with magnesium deficiency in early pregnancy (p=0.012)214 but not among women with no risk factors for developing hypertension (RR 1.09; 95%CI 0.73 to 2.08).213 Another RCT found that magnesium supplementation appeared to reduce the risk of preterm uterine contractions (RR 0.33; 95%CI 0.24 to 0.47) and threatened preterm labour (RR 0.50; 95%CI 0.33 to 0.76) but noted that further larger studies are required to confirm these preliminary results.215 Magnesium supplementation for women with leg cramps reduced their frequency (p=0.007) and intensity (p=0.048).

#### Selenium supplementation

##### Background

The Guidelines currently note that a systematic review found that selenium levels were lower among women with pre-eclampsia than among controls.

##### Current review

This review included two RCTs reported in seven studies.217-223 One RCT reported a reduced risk of premature rupture of the membranes (RR 0.38; 95%CI 0.01 0.18 to 0.79; n=125).218 The incidence of pre-eclampsia217 and of biomarkers for pre-eclampsia risk221 were lower in the supplementation groups but did not reach statistical significance. Both studies noted that larger studies are required to draw conclusions on the efficacy of selenium supplementation in reducing risk of pre-eclampsia. There were no clear differences in any other outcome in either study.

### Evidence statements

#### Vitamins

##### Folic acid

There is high certainty evidence that folic acid supplementation in pregnancy is associated with a reduction in risk of neural tube defects and lower certainty evidence that it may also reduce the risk of orofacial clefts and congenital heart defects.

There is evidence from systematic reviews of observational studies that folic acid supplementation during pregnancy may reduce the risk of acute myeloid leukaemia, brain and spinal cord tumours in the child and autism spectrum disorders.

The evidence suggests that folic acid supplementation does not affect the risk of early or late miscarriage, stillbirth, fetal loss, preterm birth, low birth weight, perinatal death, or asthma or wheeze in the infant.

The evidence is inconsistent on the effect of folic acid supplementation on gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia and acute lymphoblastic leukaemia in the infant.

##### Vitamin B6

There is insufficient evidence to detect clinical benefits of vitamin B6 in pregnancy, although it appears to be of benefit in reducing nausea.

##### Vitamin B12

The evidence on vitamin B12 supplementation in pregnancy is of insufficient quality to draw conclusions.

##### Vitamin C

The evidence does not support routine vitamin C supplementation for the prevention of fetal or neonatal death, poor fetal growth, preterm birth or pre-eclampsia. Further research is required to clarify the possible role of vitamin C in the prevention of placental abruption and prelabour rupture of membranes.

##### Vitamin E

The evidence on vitamin E supplementation is of insufficient quality to draw conclusions.

##### Vitamins C and E combined

Supplementation with vitamins C and E during pregnancy appears to reduce the risk of placental abruption and increase the risk of term PROM. It does not appear to affect other perinatal outcomes. Combined vitamins C and E may reduce the risk of preterm birth and placental abruption in pregnant women who smoke.

##### Vitamin A

The evidence does not support vitamin A supplementation for the prevention of fetal loss, maternal mortality, perinatal mortality or preterm birth. The evidence on the role of vitamin A supplementation in reducing risk of maternal clinical infection and anaemia may not be generalisable to the Australian context.

##### Multiple micronuntrients

There is high certainty evidence from studies conducted in low- to middle-income countries that multivitamin use during pregnancy reduces the risk of low birth weight and may reduce the risk of stillbirth but does not affect the risk of perinatal or neonatal mortality. There is moderate certainty evidence of a reduction in risk of small for gestational age and a possible reduction in risk of preterm birth (<37 weeks). There is evidence of unspecified certainty that multivitamin use is associated with a reduction in risk of very preterm birth (<34 weeks), a possible reduction in risk of miscarriage and has no effect on maternal mortality, maternal anaemia, caesarean section or congenital anomalies. These findings may not be generalisable to the Australian context.

There is very low to low certainty evidence that prenatal multivitamin supplementation among women in high income countries is associated with a reduced risk of small for gestational age and some congenital anomalies and a possible reduced risk of preterm birth.

#### Minerals

##### Iron

There is moderate certainty evidence that iron supplementation in pregnancy has no clear effect on the risk of preterm birth. There is low certainty evidence that iron supplementation in pregnancy reduces the risk of maternal anaemia and iron deficiency at term and has no clear effect on maternal infection, neonatal death, congenital anomalies or low birth weight. There is very low certainty evidence that iron supplementation in pregnancy has no clear effect on the risk of maternal death or maternal side effects. There is evidence from a systematic review of RCTs that iron supplementation has no clear effect on infant neurodevelopment.

There is low certainty evidence that intermittent versus daily iron supplementation in pregnancy has no clear effect on preterm birth, birth weight or low birthweight. There is very low certainty evidence that maternal side effects are reduced with intermittent versus daily iron supplementation and that there is no clear effect on maternal anaemia at term, maternal iron-deficiency at term or neonatal death.

##### Calcium

There is consistent evidence from systematic reviews that calcium supplementation reduces the risk of pre-eclampsia. Calcium supplements do not appear to be of benefit in preventing low birth weight and their role in preventing preterm birth is unclear. There is evidence that routine calcium supplementation is more cost-effective than selective supplementation.

##### Iodine

There is low certainty evidence that, in settings with mild to moderate iodine deficiency, iodine supplementation may reduce the risk of postpartum hyperthyroidism and very low certainty evidence of an increased likelihood of gastrointestinal intolerance during pregnancy. There is low certainty evidence that iodine supplementation does not appear to increase or decrease the likelihood of other outcomes or side effects for mothers or infants. Based on background information and the lack of harms associated with iodine supplementation in pregnancy, no changes to the existing recommendation are required.

##### Zinc

There is moderate certainty evidence that zinc supplementation may play a role in reducing the risk of preterm birth but has no clear effect on low birthweight. Supplementation does not appear to increase or reduce the risk of other outcomes. There is insufficient evidence to support a recommendation on zinc supplementation.

##### Magnesium

There is insufficient evidence to draw conclusions on magnesium supplementation in pregnancy.

##### Selenium

There is insufficient evidence to draw conclusions on selenium supplementation in pregnancy.

### Evidence tables

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B9 (folic acid) supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Wang et al 2015122 | 16 cohort  7 case-control  3 cross-sectional studies | **Aim**: To investigate whether indirect or direct exposure to folate and impaired folate metabolism, reflected as methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase (*MTHFR*) C677T polymorphism, would contribute to the development of asthma and other allergic diseases.  **Methods:** Electronic databases were searched to identify all studies assessing the association between folate status and asthma or other allergic diseases. Two reviewers independently assessed the eligibility of studies and extracted data. The relative risk (RR) or odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) was calculated and pooled. | Supplementation during pregnancy vs no supplementation:   * Asthma: RR 1.04; 95%CI 0.94 to 1.16; low certainty * Wheeze: RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.95 to 1.15; low certainty   Supplementation in early pregnancy vs no supplementation:   * Asthma: RR 0.98; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.23; low certainty * Wheeze: RR 1.06; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.09; low certainty * Atopic dermatitis: RR 1.15; 95%CI 0.91 to 1.45; very low certainty |  |
| Wang et al 2017118 | 16 observational studies | **Aim:** To reassess the relationship between folic acid and the risk of autism spectrum disorders.  **Methods**: The electronic databases PubMed, Web of Knowledge, and Wanfang Data were carefully searched to find eligible studies as recent as March 2017. A random effects model was used to combine the relative risk (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI). Sensitivity analysis and publication bias were conducted. | Folic acid supplementation vs no supplementation:  *Autism spectrum disorders*   * All populations: RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.64 to 0.93, 16 studies * Asian populations: RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.97; 8 studies * European populations: RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.68 to 0.99; 3 studies * American populations: RR 0.41; 95%CI 0.17 to 0.99; 5 studies |  |
| Metayer et al 2014120 | 7 case-control studies | **Aim**: To examine the association between maternal vitamin supplementation and acute myeloid leukaemia (AML).  **Methods**: We obtained original data on prenatal use of folic acid and vitamins from 12 case-control studies participating in the Childhood Leukaemia International Consortium (enrolment period: 1980-2012), including 6,963 cases of ALL, 585 cases of AML, and 11,635 controls. Logistic regression was used to estimate pooled odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs), adjusted for child's age, sex, ethnicity, parental education, and study centre. | Folic acid during pregnancy vs no folic acid:   * Acute lymphoblastic leukaemia: OR 0.77; 95%CI 0.67 to 0.88 * Acute myeloid leukaemia: OR 0.52; 95%CI 0.31 to 0.89 |  |
| Dessypris et al 201775 | 3 case-control studies | **Aim**: To quantitatively synthesise published data on the association of maternal/child diet with leukaemia risk.  **Methods**: Medline was searched until June 30th, 2016 for eligible articles on the association of childhood leukaemia with consumption of (i) food groups, excluding alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages, and (ii) specific dietary supplements before/during index pregnancy and childhood. | Dietary supplement of folic acid versus no supplement:   * Childhood acute lymphoblastic leukaemia: RR 0.87 (0.57 to 1.34); 3 studies |  |
| Chiavarini et al 2018127 | 10 studies:  1 cohort study  9 case-control studies | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of maternal diet and prenatal multivitamin supplementation on paediatric cancer risk, in particular childhood brain and spinal cord tumours (CBSCT).  **Methods**: We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis on maternal folate intake before and during pregnancy and the risk of CBSCT. We systematically reviewed publications obtained by searching the Institute for Scientific Information Web of Knowledge and PubMed literature databases. We extracted the risk estimate of the highest and the lowest reported categories of intake from each study and conducted a meta-analysis using a random-effects model. | Folate supplementation vs no folate supplementation:   * CBSCT: OR 0.77 (0.66 to 0.90), p=0.001 |  |
| De Regil et al 2015129 | 5 RCTs  2,033 women with a history of NTDs  5,358 women with no history | **Aim:** To examine whether periconceptional folate supplementation reduces the risk of neural tube and other congenital anomalies (including cleft palate) without causing adverse outcomes in mothers or babies.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (31 August 2015). Additionally, we searched the World Health Organization (WHO) International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) (31 August 2015) and contacted relevant organisations to identify ongoing and unpublished studies. We included all randomised or quasi-randomised trials evaluating the effect of periconceptional folate supplementation alone, or in combination with other vitamins and minerals, in women independent of age and parity. | Supplementation with folate (alone or in combination with other vitamins and minerals) versus no intervention, placebo or other micronutrients without folate:   * Neural tube defects: RR 0.31 (0.17 to 0.58); 5 RCTs; n=6,708; high certainty * Cleft lip: RR 0.79 (0.14 to 4.36); 3 studies; n=5,612; low certainty * Cleft palate: RR 0.73 (0.05 to 0.89); 3 studies; n=5,612; low certainty * Congenital cardiovascular defects: RR 0.57 (0.24 to 1.33); 3 studies; n=5,612; low certainty * Other congenital anomalies: RR 0.94 (0.53 to 1.66); 3 studies; n=5,612 * Miscarriage: RR 1.10 (0.94 to 1.28); 5 studies; n=7,391; moderate certainty * Any other birth defects: RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.53 to 1.66; 3 studies; n=5,612; low certainty |  |
| Feng et al 2015130 | 18 studies:  1 RCT  1 cohort study  16 case-control studies | **Aim**: To conduct a meta-analysis of the association between maternal folic acid supplementation and congenital heart defects in offspring.  **Methods**: We searched the MEDLINE and EMBASE databases for articles catalogued between their inceptions and October 10, 2014 and identified relevant published studies that assessed the association between maternal folate supplementation and the risk of CHDs. Study-specific relative risk estimates were pooled using random-effects or fixed-effects models. Out of the 1,606 articles found in our initial literature searches, a total of 1 randomised controlled trial, 1 cohort study, and 16 case-control studies were included in our final meta-analysis. | Maternal folate supplementation versus no supplementation:   * Congenital heart defects: RR 0.72 (0.63 to 0.82) |  |
| Xu et al 2016123 | 20 case-control studies | **Aim**: To examine the relationship between maternal folic acid (FA) supplementation and birth prevalence of congenital heart defects (CHDs).  **Methods**: Eligible articles were retrieved by searching databases, including PubMed, Cochrane library, EMBASE, CNKI, and WanFang up to September 2015. A meta-analysis was performed to evaluate the effects of FA on CHDs. Odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence interval (CIs) were merged using STATA 12.0. Meta-regression analysis was used to explore the possible sources of heterogeneity. Subgroup analysis according to the selected sources was also performed. Publication bias was assessed by Egger's test. | Supplementation vs no supplementation:  *Congenital heart defect*   * All populations: OR 0.60; 95%CI 0.49 to 0.71 * American populations: OR 0.92; 95%CI 0.83 to 1.02 * Chinese populations: OR 0.44; 95%CI 0.33 to 0.56 * European populations: OR 0.83; 95%CI 0.75 to 0.91 |  |
| Balogun et al 2016125 | 1 RCT  n=903 | **Aim**: to determine the effectiveness and safety of any vitamin supplementation on the risk of spontaneous miscarriage.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (6 November 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised and quasi-randomised trials comparing supplementation during pregnancy with one or more vitamins with either placebo, other vitamins, no vitamins or other interventions. We have included supplementation that started prior to conception, periconceptionally or in early pregnancy (less than 20 weeks’ gestation). | Folic acid without multivitamin vs no folic acid/multivitamin:   * Total fetal loss: RR 0.95 (0.64 to 1.40); 1 study; n=903 * Early or late miscarriage: RR 0.97 (0.65 to 1.44); 1 study; n=903 * Stillbirth: RR 0.67 (0.11 to 4.02); 1 study; n=903 |  |
| Hua et al 2016132 | 13 studies:  2 RCTs  10 cohort studies  1 case-control study | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy on the risk of gestational hypertension/preeclampsia.  **Methods**: A systematic review and meta-analysis were conducted. Medline, Embase, Scopus, and the Web of Science were searched from inception to December 2014. | Folic acid in any format including in multivitamins vs no supplementation:   * Gestational hypertension/preeclampsia: RR 0.62 (0.45 to 0.87); 2 RCTs * Gestational hypertension/pre-eclampsia: RR 0.92 (0.79 to 1.08); 9 cohort studies * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.88 (0.76 to 1.02); 8 cohort studies | Considerable overlap in studies with Lui et al 2018 |
| Liu et al 2018134 | 14 studies  1 RCT  13 cohort studies | **Aim:** To systematically assess the relationship between folic acid supplementation in pregnancy and risk of preeclampsia and gestational hypertension.  **Methods:** The relevant studies were included by retrieving the Embase, PubMed and Cochrane library databases. Data extraction was conducted by two investigators independently. The risk ratio (RR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) were used as effect indexes to evaluate the relationship between folic acid supplementation and risk of gestational hypertension or preeclampsia. A subgroup analysis was performed according to the supplementation patterns of folic acid. The homogeneity of the effect size was tested across the studies, and publication biases were examined. | Multivitamins containing folic acid versus no supplementation:   * Gestational hypertension: RR 1.19 (0.92 to 1.54); 4 studies; n=266,938 * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.69 (0.58 to 0.83); 12 studies; n=311,991   Folic acid alone versus no supplementation:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.97 (0.80 to 1.17); 4 studies; n=210,896 | Considerable overlap in studies with Hua et al 2016132 |
| Hodgetts et al 2015131 | 1 cohort study  Meta-analysis of:  3 RCTs  9 cohort studies  1 case-control study | **Aim**: To assess the effect of timing of folic acid (FA) supplementation during pregnancy on the risk of the neonate being small for gestational age (SGA).  **Methods**: A population database study and a systematic review with meta-analysis including the results of this population study. A UK regional database was used for the population study and an electronic literature search (from inception until August 2013) for the systematic review. Singleton live births with no known congenital anomalies were included; 111,736 in population study and 188,796 in systematic review. | Folic acid supplementation 400-500 µg daily post-conception versus no supplementation:   * Birthweight <5th percentile: OR 0.82 (0.63 to 1.06) |  |
| Jahanbin et al 2018119 | 6 cohort studies  31 case-control studies | **Aim**: To assess whether folate supplementation during pregnancy can reduce the risk of nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate (CL/P) and cleft palate only (CPO) in infants.  **Methods**: Eligible articles were identified by searching databases, including PubMed, Medline, Scopus, ISI (Web of Knowledge) to September 2017. A meta-analysis was performed to evaluate the effects of maternal supplementation on oral clefts. Odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were pooled using Stata software. Publication bias was assessed by the Begg and Egger test. | Folic acid alone supplementation vs no supplementation:   * Orofacial cleft: OR 0.73, 95%CI 0.62 to 0.85 * CL/P: OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.61 to 0.85 * CPO: OR.0.75, 95%CI 0.53 to 1.04. |  |
| Bulloch et al 2018126 | 8 observational studies | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of maternal folic acid supplementation during pregnancy on risk of preeclampsia and gestational hypertension.  **Methods**: Multiple scientific databases and grey literature were searched for relevant studies. Studies were reviewed according to pre-specified inclusion and exclusion criteria. Study characteristics were summarised and study quality was assessed. A meta-analysis of observational studies was conducted to examine the effect of maternal folic acid supplementation on preeclampsia risk. | Folic acid supplementation vs no folic acid supplementation:   * Pre-eclampsia: OR 0.78 (0.63 to 0.98)   Subgroup analysis showed no significant difference between folic acid supplementation taken by itself, in comparison to folic acid taken in or alongside a multivitamin. |  |
| Saccone et al 2016121 | 5 RCTs | **Aim**: To evaluate the efficacy of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy to prevent preterm birth (PTB).  **Methods**: The research protocol was designed a priori, defining methods for searching the literature in electronic databases, including and examining articles, and extracting and analysing data. We included all randomized trials (RCTs) of asymptomatic singleton gestations without prior PTB who were randomized to prophylactic treatment with either FA supplementation or control (placebo or no treatment). The primary outcome was the incidence of PTB <37 weeks. | Folic acid vs placebo or no treatment:   * Preterm birth <37 weeks: RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.82 to 1.18 * Preterm birth <34 weeks: RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.55 to 1.09 * Preterm premature rupture of membranes: RR 0.81; 95%CI 0.44 to 1.50 * Birth weight: MD 85.58g, 95%CI -55.17 to 226.34 * Low birth weight: RR 0.79; 95%CI 0.49 to 1.28 * Perinatal death: RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.34 |  |
| Zhang et al 2017124 | 12 cohort studies | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of folic acid (FA) supplementation on the risks of preterm delivery (PTD) and small for gestational age births (SGA).  **Methods**: Cohort studies including healthy women who want to get pregnancy or being pregnant were identified from MEDLINE, EMBASE, the Cochrane Library, CINAHL, and CBM from inception to January 2015. | Moderate to low dose of folic acid post conception vs no supplementation:   * Preterm birth: RR 0.68; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.90; 2 studies; n=575 * Small for gestational age: RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.81 to 0.89; 3 studies; n=17,553 |  |
| Lassi et al 2013133 | 3 RCTs | **Aim**: To assess the effectiveness of oral folic acid supplementation alone or with other micronutrients versus no folic acid (placebo or same micronutrients but no folic acid) during pregnancy on haematological and biochemical parameters during pregnancy and on pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group’s Trials Register (31December 2012) and we contacted major organisations working in micronutrient supplementation, including UNICEF Nutrition Section, World Health Organization (WHO) Maternal and Reproductive Health, WHO Nutrition Division, and National Center on Birth defects and Developmental Disabilities, US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). We included all randomised, cluster-randomised and cross-over controlled trials evaluating supplementation of folic acid alone or with other micronutrients versus no folic acid (placebo or same micronutrients but no folic acid) in pregnancy. | Folic acid alone or with other micronutrients versus no folic acid:   * Preterm birth (<37 weeks): RR 1.09 (0.77 to 1.54); 1 study; n=2,797 * Stillbirth/neonatal death: RR 1.33 (0.96 to 1.85); 3 studies; n=3,110 * Low birthweight (<2,500 g): RR 0.80 (0.63 to 1.02); 3 studies; n=3,089 |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B9 (folic acid) supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Catena et al 2016135  NUHEAL  Germany, Spain, Hungary | Intervention 27  Placebo 32 | **Aim**: To analyse the long-term effects of FO, 5-methyltetrahydrofolate (5-MTHF), or FO+5-MTHF prenatal supplementation on attention networks.  **Population:** Children born to mothers from the NUHEAL (Nutraceuticals for a Healthy Life) project who were recalled for a new examination 8.5 y later.  **Intervention**: Women were randomly assigned to receive fish oil and/or 5-MTHF or placebo prenatal supplementation. | Children born to mothers supplemented with 5-MTHF alone solved the response conflict more quickly than did the placebo and the FO+5-MTHF groups (all P<0.05). |  |
| McNulty et al 2013136  Northern Ireland | Intervention 59  Control 60 | **Aim**: To investigate maternal folate and homocysteine responses and related effects in the newborn that resulted from continued folic acid (FA) supplementation after the first trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Pregnant women, aged 18-35 y, who were attending an antenatal clinic with singleton uncomplicated pregnancies and reported taking FA supplements in the first trimester.  **Intervention**: women were randomly assigned at the start of trimester 2 to receive 400 mug FA/d or placebo. | Response from gestational weeks 14 to 36 intervention vs control:   * Serum folate: 0.9±24.7 vs -26.1±19.0; p<0.001 * Red blood cell folate: 549+661 vs -250±690; p<0.001 * Plasma homocysteine: 0.1±1.1 vs 1.0±1.9; p=0.006 * Cord blood folate: 1993±862 vs 1418±557; p=0.001 |  |
| Sayyah-Melli et al 2016137  Iran | Low dose 200  High dose 210 | **Aim**: To assess the effect of low doses and high doses of folic acid on homocysteine levels, blood pressure, urea, creatinine and neonatal outcome.  **Population**: Nulliparous pregnant women.  **Intervention**: Group received 0.5 mg of folic acid daily and group 2 received 5 mg of folic acid per daily. | Low dose vs high dose:   * Homocysteine concentrations: 13.17±3.89 μmol/l vs 10.31±3.54, μmol/l; p<0.001 * Systolic blood pressure: p=0.84 * Diastolic blood pressure: p=0.15 * Birthweight: 3,366.12±421.39 vs 3,456.39±410.30; p=0.031 * Early abortion (not defined): 10/200 (5%) vs 1/210 (0.5%); p=0.005 |  |
| Wen at al 2018138  Argentina, Australia, Canada, Jamaica, United Kingdom | Intervention 1,114  Control 1,157 | **Aim:** To determine the efficacy of high dose folic acid supplementation for prevention of pre-eclampsia in women with at least one risk factor.  **Population**: Pregnant women with pre-existing hypertension, prepregnancy diabetes (type 1 or 2), twin pregnancy, pre-eclampsia in a previous pregnancy, or body mass index ≥35.  **Intervention**: Eligible women were randomised to receive either daily high dose folic acid (four 1.0 mg oral tablets) or placebo from eight weeks of gestation to the end of week 16 of gestation until delivery. | Intervention vs control:   * Pre-eclampsia: 169/1144 (14.8%) vs 156/1157 (13.5%); RR 1.10, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.34; P=0.37. |  |
| Yusuf et al 2019139  United States | Low dose 171  High dose 174 | **Aim**: To determine the efficacy of higher-dose folic acid in preventing a reduction in fetal body size among infants of women who smoked tobacco cigarettes during pregnancy.  **Population**: Pregnant women with status as currently active smokers per self report and cotinine biomarker; an age between 18 and 44 years; gestation <21 weeks at study entry.  **Intervention**: Eligible participants were randomly assigned in a 1:1 ratio to receive either 4mg of folic acid per day (the higher-dose group) or 0.8mg of folic acid per day (the standard-dose group). | High dose vs low dose:   * Birth weight: MD 140.39; 95% CI 1.63 to 279.15 g * Small for gestational age: aRR 0.69; 95%CI 0.46 to 1.03 * Fetal growth restriction: aRR 0.65; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.93   No elevated risk of adverse effects associated with higher dose folic acid were identified |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B6 supplementation in pregnancy — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sridharan et al 2018141  SLR | 2 studies | **Aim: To** carry out a network meta-analysis comparing the interventions used for treating nausea and vomiting in pregnancy.  **Methods:** We searched PubMed, Cochrane CENTRAL, and Google Scholar for randomised clinical trials carried out in pregnant women with nausea or vomiting. Those carried out in women with hyperemesis gravidarum were excluded. Direct estimates were derived by pooling the data from head-to-head clinical trials while indirect estimates through a common comparator. | Vitamin B6 vs placebo:   * Difference in nausea score: MD -3.7; 95%CI -6.9 to -0.5; very low certainty |  |
| Salam et al 2015140 | 4 studies  1,646 women | **Aim:** To evaluate the clinical effects of vitamin B6 supplementation during pregnancy and/or labour.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (31 March 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. We included randomised controlled trials comparing vitamin B6 administration in pregnancy and/or labour with: placebos, no supplementations, or supplements not containing vitamin B6. Two review authors independently assessed trials for inclusion and risk of bias, extracted data and checked them for accuracy. For this update, we assessed methodological quality of the included trials using risk of bias and the GRADE approach. | Vitamin B6 as oral capsules or lozenges vs placebo or no supplementation:   * dental decay in pregnant women: capsules: RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.71 to 0.98; 1 trial, n=371, low certainty; lozenges: RR 0.68; 95%CI 0.56 to 0.83; 1 trial, n=342, low certainty. * mean birthweights: (MD -0.23 kg; 95%CI -0.42 to -0.04; n=33; 1 trial)   There was no statistically significant difference in:   * risk of eclampsia (capsules: n=1,242; 3 trials; lozenges: n=944; 1 trial) * pre-eclampsia (capsules n=1,197; 2 trials, low certainty; lozenges: n=944; 1 trial, low-certainty) * low Apgar scores at one minute (oral pyridoxine: n=45; one trial).   No differences were found in Apgar scores at five minutes, or breastmilk production between controls and women receiving oral (n=24; 1 trial) or intramuscular (n=24; 1 trial) loading doses of pyridoxine at labour. |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin B12 supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Siddiqua et al 2016146  Bangladesh | 68 | **Aim**: To evaluate effects of pre- and postnatal B12 supplementation on biomarkers of B12 status and vaccine-specific responses in mothers and infants.  **Population**: Women aged 18-35 years, haemoglobin <110 g/L, 11-14 weeks pregnant  **Intervention**: 250 mug/day B12 or a placebo throughout pregnancy and 3-month postpartum along with 60 mg iron + 400 mug folate. Women were immunized with pandemic influenza A (H1N1) vaccine at 26- to 28-week gestation. Blood from mothers (baseline, 72-h post-delivery, 3-month postpartum), newborns and infants (3-month) was analysed for haemoglobin, B12, methylmalonic acid (MMA), total homocysteine (tHcy), ferritin and serum transferrin receptor, C-reactive protein (CRP) and alpha-1-acid glycoprotein (AGP). | B12 supplementation vs placebo:   * increased B12 in plasma, colostrum and breast milk (p<0.05) * lowered MMA in neonates, mothers and infants at 3 months (p<0.05) * increased H1N1-specific IgA responses in plasma and colostrum in mothers and reduced proportion of infants with elevated AGP and CRP. |  |
| Srinivasan et al 2017144,145  India | Intervention 131  Control 125 | **Aim**: To report the effects of maternal B12 supplementation on cognitive development in infants.  **Population**: Pregnant women less than 14 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Oral vitamin B12 supplementation (50 microg/day) beginning at <14 weeks of gestation through to 6-week post-partum. | Maternal B12 supplementation (n=78) vs placebo in infants at 9 months (n=100):   * no significant differences in any subscales of BSID-III   Elevated maternal homocysteine levels vs no elevated homocysteine:   * second trimester: expressive language (ß -3.13, P<0.001) * third trimester: expressive language (ß -2.29, P<0.001) and fine motor (ß -1.41, P=0.005)   Maternal B12 supplementation (n=114) vs placebo (n=104) in infants at 30 months:   * significantly higher scores on expressive language (ß 0.14, P=0.03).   Elevated maternal homocysteine vs no elevated homocysteine:   * Second trimester: expressive language (ß - 0.18, P=0.03) and gross motor (ß -0.23, P=0.008) * Third trimester: expressive language (ß - 0.19, P=0.02) and gross motor (ß -0.30, P=0.001) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Balogun et al 2016125 | 40 studies  276,820 | **Aim**: to determine the effectiveness and safety of any vitamin supplementation on the risk of spontaneous miscarriage.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (6 November 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised and quasi-randomised trials comparing supplementation during pregnancy with one or more vitamins with either placebo, other vitamins, no vitamins or other interventions. We have included supplementation that started prior to conception, periconceptionally or in early pregnancy (less than 20 weeks’ gestation). | Vitamin C vs placebo:   * Total fetal loss: RR 1.28 (0.58 to 2.83); 2 studies; n=224 * Early or late miscarriage; RR 1.17 (0.52 to 2.65); 2 studies; n=224 * Stillbirth: RR 3.0 (0.12 to 72.77); 1 study; n=200 |  |
| Fu et al 2018147 | 1 study | **Aim**: To define the efficacy of vitamins supplementation on the risk of preeclampsia.  **Methods**: Potential articles were systematically searched on the databases of Pubmed, Embase and Web of Science up to May 2016. Relative risk (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (95%CIs) were used to analyse the relationship of vitamins supplementation with risk of preeclampsia. | Vitamin C vs placebo:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.77 (0.38 to 1.57) |  |
| Rumbold et al 2015148 | 29 studies  24,300 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effects of vitamin C supplementation, alone or in combination with other separate supplements, on pregnancy outcomes, adverse events, side effects and use of health resources.  **Methods:** We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group’s Trials Register (31 March 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised or quasi-randomised controlled trials evaluating vitamin C supplementation in pregnant women. Interventions using a multivitamin supplement containing vitamin C or where the primary supplement was iron were excluded. | Vitamin C (1,000 mg) supplementation alone:   * Stillbirth: RR 1.06 (0.58 to 1.94); 2 studies; n=1,015 * Neonatal death: RR 0.70 (0.30 to 1.63); 2 studies; n=958 * Perinatal death: RR 0.51 (0.05 to 5.54); 1 study; n=182 * Intrauterine growth restriction: RR 1.56 (0.63 to 3.89); 1 study; n=159 * Preterm birth: RR 1.06 (0.75 to 1.48); 5 studies; n=1,685 * Preterm PROM: average RR 0.66 (0.48 to 0.91); 5 studies; n=1,282 * Term PROM: RR 0.55 (0.32 to 0.94); 1 study; n=170 * Clinical pre-eclampsia: RR 0.88 (0.48 to 1.61); 3 studies; n=1,191 |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| McEvoy et al 2019149  United States | Intervention 113  Control 109 | **Aim**: To determine if infants of pregnant smokers randomized to daily supplemental vitamin C would have improved forced expiratory flows (FEFs) at 3 months of age compared with those randomized to placebo, and to investigate the association of the alpha5 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor.  **Population**: women >15 years old with a singleton gestation between 13 weeks and 0 days and 22 weeks and 6 days based on clinical information and confirmed by ultrasound, current cigarette smoker (>1 cigarette in last week).  **Intervention**: Vitamin C (500 mg/d). | Vitamin C (500 mg/d) versus placebo:   * FEF75 at 3 months: 200.7 vs 188.7 ml/s; adjusted 95%CI -3.33 to 35.64; P=0.10 * FEF50 at 3 months: 436.7 vs 408.5 ml/s; adjusted 95%CI 6.10 to 61.30; P=0.02 * FEF25-75: 387.4 vs 365.8 ml/s; adjusted 95%CI 0.92 to 55.34; P=0.04 | Included in Vahdaninia et al 2017153 |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin E supplementation — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Fu et al 2018147 | 1 study | **Aim**: To define the efficacy of vitamins supplementation on the risk of preeclampsia.  **Methods**: Potential articles were systematically searched on the databases of Pubmed, Embase and Web of Science up to May 2016. Relative risk (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (95%CIs) were used to analyse the relationship of vitamins supplementation with risk of preeclampsia. | Intervention vs control:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.54 (0.06 to 5.11); 1 RCT |  |
| Wu et al 2018150 | 19 studies | **Aim**: To critically examine the current evidence on the association of vitamin E with childhood asthma and wheezing.  **Methods**: We searched electronic databases for observational studies in English-language journals published from 2000 to 2016. | Intervention vs control:   * Asthmatic diseases in childhood: OR 0.74 (0.61 to 0.89) * Childhood asthma: RR 0.97 (0.95 to 1.00) * Wheeze in children: RR 0.65 (0.56 to 0.75) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C and vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Balogun et al 2016125 | | 40 studies  276,820 | **Aim**: to determine the effectiveness and safety of any vitamin supplementation, on the risk of spontaneous miscarriage.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (6 November 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised and quasi-randomised trials comparing supplementation during pregnancy with one or more vitamins with either placebo, other vitamins, no vitamins or other interventions. We have included supplementation that started prior to conception, periconceptionally or in early pregnancy (less than 20 weeks’ gestation). | Vitamin C plus vitamin E vs placebo:   * Total fetal loss: RR 1.14 (0.92 to 1.40); 7 studies; n=18,949 * Early or late miscarriage: RR 0.90 (0.65 to 1.26); 4 studies; n=13,346 * Stillbirth: RR 1.31 (0.97 to 1.76); 7 studies; n=21,442 * Congenital malformations: RR 1.17 (0.84 to 1.62); 5 studies; n=8,334 * Any adverse effects of vitamin supplementation sufficient to stop supplementation: RR 1.16 (0.39 to 3.41); 1 study; n=739 |  |
| Fu et al 2018147 | | 12 studies | **Aim**: To define the efficacy of vitamins supplementation on the risk of preeclampsia.  **Methods**: Potential articles were systematically searched on the databases of Pubmed, Embase and Web of Science up to May 2016. Relative risk (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (95%CIs) were used to analyse the relationship of vitamins supplementation with risk of preeclampsia. | Intervention vs control:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.99 (0.90 to 1.08) |  |
| Rumbold et al 2015151 | 17 studies  22,129 women | | **Aim:** To assess the effects of vitamin E supplementation, alone or in combination with other separate supplements, on pregnancy outcomes, adverse events, side effects and use of health services.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (31 March 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised or quasi-randomised controlled trials evaluating vitamin E supplementation in pregnant women. We excluded interventions using a multivitamin supplement that contained vitamin E. | Vitamin E alone or in combination with other supplements (most commonly vitamin C) compared with placebo:   * Stillbirth: RR 1.17, 95%CI 0.88 to 1.56, 9 studies, n=19,023; moderate certainty * Neonatal death: RR 0.81, 95% CI 0.58 to 1.13, 9 trials, n=18,617 * Pre-eclampsia: average RR 0.91, 95% CI 0.79 to 1.06; 14 trials, n=20,878; moderate certainty * Preterm birth: average RR 0.98, 95% CI 0.88 to 1.09, 11 trials, n=20,565; high certainty * Intrauterine growth restriction: RR 0.98, 95%CI 0.91 to 1.06, 11 trials, n=20,202; high certainty * Placental abruption: RR 0.64, 95% CI 0.44 to 0.93, 7 trials, n=14,922; high certainty * Self-reported abdominal pain: RR 1.66, 95% CI 1.16 to 2.37, 1 trial, n=1877 * Term prelabour rupture of membranes (PROM): average RR 1.77, 95% CI 1.37 to 2.28, 2 trials, n=2,504 * Preterm PROM: average RR 1.27, 95% CI 0.93 to 1.75, 5 trials, n=1,999; low certainty |  |
| Tenorio et al 2018152 | | 11 studies | **Aim**: To determine whether oral antioxidant therapies, of various types and doses, are able to prevent or treat women with preeclampsia.  **Methods**: The following databases were searched: MEDLINE, CENTRAL, LILACS, and Web of Science. Inclusion criteria were: a) randomized clinical trials; b) oral antioxidant supplementation; c) study in pregnant women; d) control group, treated or not with placebo. Meta-analyses were conducted on prevention and treatment studies, separately. | Intervention (500 to 1,000 mg vitamin C plus 400 IU vitamin E) vs placebo:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR: 1.00 (0.91 to 1.10) P=0.98 |  |
| Vahdaninia et al 2017153 | | 1 study | **Aim:** To synthesise the evidence from RCTs assessing the efficacy of vitamin interventions during pregnancy on developing allergic diseases in offspring.  **Methods:** We searched CENTRAL, MEDLINE, SCOPUS, WHO’s Int. Clin. Trials Reg., E-theses and Web of Science. Study quality was evaluated using the Cochrane’s risk of bias tool. Included RCTs had a minimum of 1-month follow-up post gestation. | Intervention (1,000 mg vitamin C plus 400 IU vitamin E from 16-22 weeks until birth) vs control:   * Recurrent wheeze: OR 0.83, 95%CI 0.26 to 2.59, p=0.66 * Asthma: OR 0.94, 95%CI 0.42 to 2.11, p=0.85 * Eczema: OR 1.10, 95%CI 0.70 to 1.74, p=0.58 |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin C and vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Abramovici et al 2015224  United States | Smokers:  Intervention 788  Control 763  Non-smokers  Intervention 4,205  Control 4,213 | **Aim**: To evaluate the relationship between prenatal vitamin C and E (C/E) supplementation and perinatal outcomes by maternal self-reported smoking status focusing on outcomes known to be impacted by maternal smoking.  **Population**: low-risk nulliparous women with singleton pregnancies at 9-16 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: 1000 mg of vitamin C (ascorbic acid) and 400 IU of vitamin E (RRR-a-tocopherol acetate) or matching placebo | Intervention vs control — Smokers vs non-smokers   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 1.15 (0.81 to 1.65) vs RR 1.06 (0.90 to 1.24) * Pregnancy-associated hypertension: RR 1.14 (0.99 to 1.32) vs RR 1.09 (1.01 to 1.17) * Placental abruption: RR 0.09 (0.00 to 0.87) vs RR 0.92 (0.52 to 1.62) p=0.01 * Preterm birth (<37 wks): RR 0.76 (0.58 to 0.99) vs RR 1.03 (0.90 to 1.17) p=0.46 * Small-for-gestational age (<10th %): RR 1.26 (0.98 to 1.63) vs RR 1.02 (0.90 to 1.16) | Results for pre-eclampsia included in Fu et al 2018147 |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin A supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Balogun et al 2016125 | 40 studies  276,820 | **Aim**: to determine the effectiveness and safety of any vitamin supplementation, on the risk of spontaneous miscarriage.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (6 November 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised and quasi-randomised trials comparing supplementation during pregnancy with one or more vitamins with either placebo, other vitamins, no vitamins or other interventions. We have included supplementation that started prior to conception, periconceptionally or in early pregnancy (less than 20 weeks’ gestation). | Vitamin A compared with placebo:   * Total fetal loss: RR 1.05, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.23, 3 trials, n=52,480 women * Early or late miscarriage: RR 0.98, 95% CI 0.92 to 1.04, 1 trial, n=39,668 * Stillbirth: RR 0.95, 95% CI 0.86 to 1.06, 1 trial, n=39,668 |  |
| McCauley et al 2015155 | 19 trials  Over 310,000 women | **Aim**: To review the effects of supplementation of vitamin A, or one of its derivatives, during pregnancy, alone or in combination with other vitamins and micronutrients, on maternal and newborn clinical outcomes.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (30 March 2015) and reference lists of retrieved studies. All randomised or quasi-randomised trials, including cluster-randomised trials, evaluating the effect of vitamin A supplementation in pregnant women. | Vitamin A alone versus placebo or no treatment:   * Maternal mortality: RR 0.88 (0.65 to 1.20); 4 trials; n=154,039; high certainty * Perinatal mortality: RR 1.01 (0.95 to 1.07); 1 study, n=76,178; high certainty * Preterm birth: RR 0.98 (0.94 to 1.01); 5 studies, n=48,007; high certainty * Maternal clinical infection: RR 0.45 (0.20 to 0.99); 5 trials; n=17,313; low certainty * Maternal anaemia (RR 0.64 (0.43 to 0.94); 3 studies, n=15,649; moderate certainty |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of vitamin A supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Ali et al 2017156  Bangladesh | 1,577 children | Aim: To examine independent and combined effects of antenatal and newborn supplementation with vitamin A on the cognitive function of children at 8 y of age.  **Population**: Pregnant women; follow-up of children at 8 years.  **Intervention**: weekly oral doses of vitamin A (23,300 IU or 7000 mg retinol equivalents) | Antenatal vitamin A supplementation vs placebo:   * Proportion failed number stroop test: 1.37 (0.99 to 1.89) * Scholastic achievement standard score difference: * Reading: -1.2 (-5.0 to 2.7) * Spelling: -1.1 (-4.2 to 2.0) * Maths: -0.4 (-.28 to 2.1) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of multiple micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Keats et al 2019164 | 20 RCTs | **Aim**: To evaluate the benefits of oral multiple-micronutrient (MMN) supplementation during pregnancy on maternal, fetal and infant health outcomes.  **Methods**: All prospective randomised controlled trials evaluating MMN supplementation with iron and folic acid during pregnancy and its effects on pregnancy outcomes were eligible, irrespective of language or the publication status of the trials. We included cluster-randomised trials, but excluded quasi-randomised trials. Trial reports that were published as abstracts were eligible. | MMN with iron and folic acid versus iron, with or without folic acid:   * preterm birth (<37 weeks): RR 0.95, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.01; 18 trials, n=91,425; moderate-certainty * very preterm birth (<34 weeks): RR 0.81, 95% CI 0.71 to 0.93; 4 trials, n=37,701 * small-for-gestational age: RR 0.92, 95% CI 0.88 to 0.97; 17 trials; n=57,348; moderate-certainty * low birthweight: RR 0.88, 95% CI 0.85 to 0.91; 18 trials, n=68,801; high-certainty * perinatal mortality: RR 1.00, 95% CI 0.90 to 1.11; 15 trials, n=63,922; high-certainty * stillbirth: RR 0.95, 95% CI 0.86 to 1.04; 17 trials, n=97,927; high-certainty * neonatal mortality: RR 1.00, 95% CI 0.89 to 1.12; 14 trials, n=80,964; high-certainty * maternal anaemia in the third trimester: RR 1.04, 95% CI 0.94 to 1.15; 9 trials, n=5912 * maternal mortality: RR 1.06, 95% CI 0.72 to 1.54; 6 trials, n=106,275 * miscarriage: RR 0.99, 95% CI 0.94 to 1.04; 12 trials, n=100,565 * caesarean section: RR 1.13, 95% CI 0.99 to 1.29; 5 trials, n=12,836 * congenital anomalies: RR 1.34, 95% CI 0.25 to 7.12; 2 trials, n=1,958 |  |
| Wolf et al 2017165 | 4 RCTs  31 observational studies  98,926 women | **Aim**: To evaluate the association between multivitamin use among women in high-income countries and the risk of adverse birth outcomes (preterm birth [primary outcome], low birthweight, small for gestational age, stillbirth, neonatal death, perinatal mortality, and congenital anomalies without further specification).  **Methods**: We searched electronic databases (MEDLINE, Embase, Cochrane, Scopus, and CINAHL) from inception to June 17, 2016, using synonyms of pregnancy, study/trial type, and multivitamins. Eligible studies were all studies in high-income countries investigating the association between multivitamin use (3 or more vitamins or minerals in tablets or capsules) and adverse birth outcomes. We evaluated randomized, controlled trials using the Cochrane Collaboration tool. Observational studies were evaluated using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale. Meta-analyses were applied on raw data for outcomes with data for at least 2 studies and were conducted using RevMan (version 5.3). Outcomes were pooled using the random-effect model. The quality of evidence was assessed using the Grades of Research, Assessment, Development and Evaluation approach. | Multivitamin versus no vitamin use:   * preterm birth: RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.69 to 1.03; 4 cohort studies; very low certainty * low birth weight: RR 0.79; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.41; 2 studies; very low certainty * small for gestational age: RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.93; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty * stillbirth: RR 0.78; 95%CI 0.59 to 1.03; 2 studies; low certainty * neural tube defects: RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.87; 6 cohort studies; very low certainty * cleft lip with or without cleft palate: RR 0.88; 95%CI 0.77 to 1.01; 6 cohort studies; low certainty * cleft palate: RR 1.12; 95%CI 0.94 to 1.33; 6 cohort studies; low certainty * cardiovascular defects: RR 0.83; 95%CI 0.70 to 0.98; 6 cohort studies; low certainty * urinary tract defects: RR 0.60; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.78; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty * limb deficiencies: RR 0.68; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.89; 3 cohort studies; very low certainty | Timing of supplementation varied in included studies (preconception, peri-conception and post-conception pooled) |
| Guo et al 2019166 | 3 cohort  1 case-cohort  1 case-control | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review and meta-analysis of published studies to evaluate the actual association between maternal multivitamin supplementation during the prenatal period and the risk of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) in children.  **Methods**: PubMed, EMBASE, PsychINFO, Web of Science, and Cochrane Library were searched up to August 26, 2018. The random-effects model was used to calculate the pooled results. The adjusted risk ratios (RRs) were used as the common measure of association among studies. Sensitivity and subgroup analyses were also conducted. | Multivitamin use during pregnancy vs no multivitamin:  ASD: RR 0.57; 95% CI, 0.36 to 0.91; p=0.018; 3 studies |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of multiple micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Chen et al 2019167  China | MMN 5,914  Folic acid 5,933 | **Aim**: To examine whether 30 mg iron plus folic acid or multiple micronutrients during pregnancy reduces the risk of pregnancy-induced hypertension.  **Methods**: We conducted a secondary data analysis by the dataset from a double-blind randomised controlled trial in China from 2006 to 2009 that was conducted to investigate the effects of multiple micronutrient supplements on adverse pregnancy outcomes when provided to pregnant women with no/mild anaemia. We used logistic regression to estimate the adjusted odds ratio and 95% confidence interval and test for effect modification. | Multiple micronutrient vs folic acid:   * Pregnancy-induced hypertension: aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.02 * Late-onset gestational hypertension: aOR 0.85; 95%CI 0.73 to 0.99 |  |
| Devakumar et al 2015168  Nepal | MMN 400  IFA 393 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of antenatal multiple micronutrients on subsequent lung function by measuring spirometry at 7-9 years of age in children born during a trial of micronutrients versus iron plus folic acid.  **Methods**: Children were seen at mean 8.5±0.4 years. Technically successful spirometry results were obtained in 793 (94.3%) children, 50% of whom had been randomised to micronutrient supplementation. Background characteristics, including anthropometry, were similar in the two allocation groups. | MMN vs iron plus folic acid:   * Forced expiratory volume: MD -0.08; 95%CI -0.19 to 0.04 * Forced vital capacity: MD -0.05; 95%CI -0.17 to 0.06 * FEV1/FVC: MD -0.04; 95%CI -0.15 to 0.07 |  |
| Schulze et al 2019169  Bangladesh | MM 749  IFA 777 | **Aim**: To assess the efficacy of a daily multiple micronutrient (MM) (15 nutrients) compared with iron plus folic acid (IFA) supplement, each providing approximately 1 RDA of nutrients and given beginning at pregnancy ascertainment, on late pregnancy micronutrient status of women in rural Bangladesh.  **Methods**: Within a double-masked trial (JiVitA-3) among 44,500 pregnant women, micronutrient status indicators were assessed in women, allocated by cluster to receive daily MM or IFA at 10 wk (baseline: before supplementation) and 32 wk (during supplementation) gestation. Efficacy of MM supplementation on micronutrient status indicators at 32 wk was assessed, controlling for baseline status and other covariates (e.g., inflammation and season), in regression models. | At 32 wk gestation, vitamin B-12, A, and D and zinc status indicators were 3.7-13.7% higher, and ferritin, gamma-tocopherol, and thyroglobulin indicators were 8.7-16.6% lower, for the MM group compared with the IFA group, with a 15-38% lower prevalence of deficiencies of vitamins B-12, A, and D and zinc (all P < 0.05). However, indicators typically suggested worsening status during pregnancy, even with supplementation, and baseline status or other covariates were more strongly associated with late pregnancy indicators than was MM supplementation. |  |
| Taghizadeh et al 2015170  Iran | Multivitamin 35  Multivitamin-mineral 35 | **Aim**: To determine the favourable effects of multivitamin versus multivitamin-mineral (same multivitamin plus calcium, iron and magnesium) supplements on metabolic profiles and biomarkers of oxidative stress among Iranian pregnant women.  Methods: This double-blind randomized-controlled clinical trial was conducted among 70 pregnant women, primigravida, aged 18-35 years old between 16 and 37 weeks gestation. Subjects were randomly assigned to receive either the multivitamin or multivitamin-mineral supplements for 20 weeks. Fasting blood samples were taken at baseline and after a 20-week intervention to measure lipid profiles and biomarkers of oxidative stress. | Multivitamin-mineral versus multivitamin supplementation; changes in:   * Fasting plasma glucose (mg/dL): -2.6±2 vs 2.5±3; p=0.15 * Total cholesterol: 11.1±8.9 vs 27.5±7.9; p=0.17 * Triglycerides (mg/dL): 6.1±13.2 vs +45.9±14.3 mg/dl, p = 0.04 * LDL cholesterol (mg/dL): 9.8±8.7 vs 25.7±6.2; p=0.13 * HDL-cholesterol (mg/dL): +0.1 vs -7.4 mg/dl, p = 0.02 * Total antioxidant capacity (mmol/L): 196.84±53.15 vs 149.23±33.8; p=0.45 * Glutathione (micromol/L): +151.09±73.26 vs -116.21±46.81, p = 0.003 |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of iron supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Abraha et al 2019173 | 9 systematic reviews; 31 RCTs | **Aim**: To summarise and update the evidence concerning oral iron-based interventions compared to placebo or no iron-based interventions to prevent critical outcomes in pregnancy or treat critical outcomes in the postpartum phase.  **Methods**: Published systematic reviews (Feb 2018) and primary studies (from 2015 to March 2018) retrieved from MEDLINE, EMBASE, and the Cochrane Library were examined. The AMSTAR (Assessing the Methodological Quality of Systematic Reviews) tool was used to assess the quality of reviews. GRADE was used to rate the quality of the evidence for critical outcomes. | Iron-based therapies vs placebo/no treatment:   * Maternal anaemia at term: RR 0.38; 95% CI 0.27 to 0.33; 13 RCTs * Side effects: RR 1.42; 95%CI 0.91 to 2.21; 12 RCTs * Preterm birth: RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.03; 13 RCTs; low-certainty * Neonatal death: RR 0.93; 0.72 to 1.20; 7 RCTs; low certainty * Low birthweight: RR 0.94, 95% CI 0.79 to 1.13; 7 RCTs; low-certainty |  |
| Pena-Rosas et al 2015174 | 44 RCTs | **Aim**: To assess the effects of daily oral iron supplements for pregnant women, either alone or in conjunction with folic acid, or with other vitamins and minerals as a public health intervention in antenatal care.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group’s Trials Register. We also searched the WHO International Clinical Trials Registry Platform and contacted relevant organisations for the identification of ongoing and unpublished studies. Selection criteria included randomised or quasi-randomised trials evaluating the effects of oral preventive supplementation with daily iron, iron + folic acid or iron + other vitamins and minerals during pregnancy. We assessed the methodological quality of trials using standard Cochrane criteria. Two review authors independently assessed trial eligibility, extracted data and conducted checks for accuracy. We used the GRADE approach to assess the quality of the evidence for primary outcomes. | Any supplements containing iron vs same supplement without iron or no treatment/placebo:   * Maternal anaemia at term: RR 0.30; 95%CI 0.19 to 0.46, 14 RCTs, n=2,199; low certainty * Iron deficiency at term: RR 0.43; 95%CI 0.27 to 0.66, 7 RCTs, n=1,256, low certainty * Maternal severe anaemia in the second or third trimester: RR 0.22; 95% CI 0.01 to 3.20, 9 RCTs, n=2,125 women, very low certainty * Maternal infection during pregnancy: RR 1.21; 95%CI 0.33 to 4.46; 1 RCT, n=727; low certainty * Maternal death: RR 0.33; 95%CI 0.01 to 8.19, 2 RCTs, n=12,560, very low certainty * Maternal side effects: RR 1.29; 95%CI 0.83 to 2.02, 11 RCTs, n=2,423, very low certainty * Low birth weight: RR 0.84; 95%CI 0.69 to 1.03; n=17,613; 11 RCTs; low certainty * Preterm birth: RR 0.93; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.03, 13 RCTs, n=19,286, moderate certainty * Birthweight: MD 23.75; 95%CI -3.02 to 50.51, 15 RCTs, n=18,590, moderate certainty * Neonatal death: RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.71 to 1.18, 4 RCTs, n=16,603, low certainty * Congenital anomalies: RR 0.88, 95%CI 0.58 to 1.33, 4 RCTs, n=14,636, low certainty |  |
| Pena-Rosas et al 2015175 | 21 RCTs | **Aim**: To assess the benefits and harms of intermittent supplementation with iron alone or in combination with folic acid or other vitamins and minerals to pregnant women on neonatal and pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (31 July 2015), the WHO International Clinical Trials Registry Platform (ICTRP) (31 July 2015) and contacted relevant organisations for the identification of ongoing and unpublished studies (31 July 2015). Randomised or quasi-randomised trials were included. We assessed the methodological quality of trials using standard Cochrane criteria. Two review authors independently assessed trial eligibility, extracted data and conducted checks for accuracy. | Intermittent vs daily versus iron regimen (with or without other vitamins and minerals):   * Low birthweight: RR 0.82; 95%CI 0.55 to 1.22; n=1,898; 8 RCT; low certainty * Infant birthweight: MD 5.13 g; 95%CI -29.46 to 39.72; n=1,939; 9 RCTs; low certainty * Premature birth: RR 1.03; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.39; n=1,177; 5 RCTs; low certainty * Neonatal death: RR 0.49; 95%CI 0.04 to 5.42; n=795; 1 RCT; very low certainty * Maternal anaemia at term: RR 1.22; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.80; n=676; 4 RCTs; very low certainty * Maternal iron deficiency anaemia at term: RR 0.71; 95%CI 0.08 to 6.63; 1 RCT, very low certainty * Side effects: RR 0.56; 95%CI 0.37 to 0.84; n=1,777; 1 RCT; very low certainty |  |
| Jayasinghe et al 2018176 | 3 RCTs | **Aim**: To assess whether routine maternal antenatal iron supplementation confers later neurodevelopmental benefit to offspring.  **Methods**: Electronic databases were searched using MESH terms or key words and identified papers were reviewed by two independent reviewers. The study quality was assessed using the Cochrane risk of bias assessment tool. The review was registered in the PROSPERO CRD data base. | Iron supplementation vs no supplementation:   * Neurodevelopment of offspring: MD 0.54; 95% CI -0.67 to 1.75) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of iron supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Alizadeh et al 2016177  Iran | Intervention 32  Control 32 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of iron supplementation on iron status markers in pregnant women with high haemoglobin.  **Population**: Pregnant women with Hb>13.2 g/dL and ferritin>15 mug/l in the 16th-20th week of pregnancy.  **Intervention**: One ferrous sulfate tablet containing 50 mg of elemental iron daily from week 20. | Intervention vs control:   * Haemoglobin level (g/dL): 12.05±0.9 vs 11.94±0.65; p=0.03 * Ferritin level (µg/L): 28.5±9.3 vs 27.22±12.96; p=0.04 * Birth weight: 3391/56±422 vs 3314/06±341; p=0.2. |  |
| Etheredge et al 2015178  Tanzania | Intervention 731  Control 738 | **Aim**: To evaluate the safety and efficacy of iron supplementation during pregnancy in a malaria-endemic region.  **Population**: Iron-replete, non-anaemic women who were uninfected with human immunodeficiency virus, primigravidae or secundigravidae, and at or before 27 weeks of gestation.  **Intervention**: 60 mg of iron or placebo daily, returning every 4 weeks for standard prenatal care, including malaria screening, prophylaxis with the combination of sulfadoxine and pyrimethamine and treatment as needed. | Intervention vs control:   * Placental malaria: RR 1.03; 95%CI, 0.65 to 1.65; p=0.89 * Birthweight: 3,155 vs 3,137 g, P=0.89 * Mean increase in haemoglobin from baseline to birth: 0.1 vs -0.7 g/dL, P<0.001 * Mean increase in serum ferritin from baseline to birth: 41.3 vs 11.3 microg/L, P<0.001 * Anaemia at birth: RR 0.60; 95% CI, 0.51 to 0.71; p<0.001 * Severe anemia: RR 0.68; 95% CI 0.41 to 1.14; p=0.14 * Iron deficiency at birth: RR 0.48; 95% CI, 0.32 to 0.70; p=0.001 * Iron deficiency anaemia at birth: RR 0.34; 95% CI, 0.19 to 0.62; p<0.001. |  |
| Goonewardene et al 2018179  Sri Lanka | Weekly 149  Daily 143 | **Aim:** To determine whether weekly antenatal oral iron and folate supplementation is an effective alternative to a daily regimen in non-anaemic pregnant women to prevent anaemia and iron deficiency during the third trimester.  **Population**: Non-anaemic pregnant women at 14-22 weeks gestation who had been treated with mebendazole 100 mg twice daily for three days  **Intervention**: 120 mg elemental iron, 3 mg folic acid and 100 mg vitamin C weekly or 60 mg elemental iron, 1 mg folic acid and 100 mg vitamin C daily. | Daily vs weekly intervention:   * Haemoglobin <11 g/dL: RR 1.01; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.34; p=0.943 * Serum ferritin <30 µg/L: RR 0.991; 95%CI 0.83 to 1.18; p=0.927 * Haemoglobin <13 g/dL: RR 1.04; 95%CI 0.37 to 2.97; p=0.928 * Nausea: 56/143 (39%) vs 25/149 (17%); p<0.001 * Dyspeptic symptoms: 40/143 (28%) vs 28/149 (19%); p=0.031 * Vomiting: 27/143 (19%) vs 17/149 (9%); p=0.039 * Constipation: 20/143 (14%) vs 10/149 (7%); p=0.017 |  |
| Jafarbegloo et al 2015180  Iran | Intervention 88  Control 88 | **Aim**: To assess gastrointestinal (GI) complications of ferrous sulfate in pregnant women.  **Population**: Pregnant women with Hb ≥13.2 gr/dL at 13-18 weeks of gestation.  **Intervention**: 50-mg ferrous sulfate tablet daily from the 20(th) week to the end of pregnancy. | None of the GI complications were significantly different between the ferrous sulfate and placebo groups at 24-28 and 32-36 weeks. Haemoglobin drop lower than 10.5 gr/dL at 24-28 weeks or lower than 11 g/dL at 32-36 weeks was not observed in any women. | There are some discrepancies in the reported outcomes so these have not been included here |
| Kinnunen et al 2016181  Finland | Selective 1,358  Routine 1,336 | **Aim**: To re-analyse data from a randomised controlled trial of iron supplementation to see whether it supports the associated risk of gestational diabetes found in observational studies.  **Population**: Pregnant women  **Intervention**: Elemental iron 50 mg twice a day only if diagnosed as anaemic, continuing until their haemoglobin increased to 110 g L(-1)) (selective group) or elemental iron 100 mg day(-1) throughout the pregnancy regardless of haemoglobin level (routine group). | Selective vs routine:   * Glucose intolerance-related outcomes: 13.0 vs 11.0%, p=0.12 * Large-for-gestational-age: 8.3 vs 8.2%, p=0.95 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 21.3 vs 22.1%; p=0.60 |  |
| Parisi et al 2017182  Italy | Ferrous iron 20  Liposomal iron 14 mg 20  Liposomal iron 28 mg  Control 20 | **Aim**: To compare different regimens of iron supplementation on maternal haematological status and pregnancy outcome.  **Population**: Non-anaemic women with a normal singleton pregnancy recruited at 11-13 weeks.  **Intervention**: ferrous iron 30 mg/daily; liposomal iron 14 mg/daily or liposomal iron 28 mg/daily up to 6 weeks post-partum. | Both LI28 and LI14 groups showed significantly higher haemoglobin and ferritin concentrations compared with controls. Birth weight showed a trend to increase with supplementation, resulting in higher birth weight in the LI28 group compared with controls (3499±464.1 g and 3092±469.5 g, respectively, p < 0.01). |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Buppasiri et al 2015185 | 23 studies  17,842 women | **Aim**: To determine the effect of calcium supplementation on maternal, fetal and neonatal outcomes (other than for preventing or treating hypertension) as well as any possible side effects.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group's Trials Register (30th September 2014). We considered all published, unpublished and ongoing randomised controlled trials (RCTs) comparing maternal, fetal and neonatal outcomes in pregnant women who received calcium supplementation versus placebo or no treatment. | Calcium supplementation vs placebo:   * Preterm birth (<37 weeks; all doses): RR 0.86 (0.70 to 1.05); 13 studies, n=16,139; moderate certainty * Preterm birth (<37 weeks; all doses; sensitivity analysis): RR 0.80 (0.65 to 0.99; 11 trials; n=15,379 * Preterm birth (<37 weeks high dose): RR 0.81; 95%CI 0.66 to 0.99; 12 RCTs; n=15,479 * Preterm birth (<34 weeks): RR 1.04 (0.80 to 1.36); 4 trials, n=5,669; moderate certainty * Low birthweight: RR 0.93 (0.81 to 1.07); 6 trials, n=14,162; moderate certainty * Birthweight: MD 56.40 (13.55 to 99.25); 21 trials, n=9,202   There were no clear differences in rates of adverse effects. | Preterm birth with low dose calcium not included as the single trial used calcium plus vitamin D |
| Hofmeyr et al 2018186 | 13 studies  15,730 women | **Aim**: To assess the effects of calcium supplementation during pregnancy on hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and related maternal and child outcomes.  **Methods**: We searched Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth’s Trials Register, ClinicalTrials.gov, the WHO International Clinical Trials Registry Platform and reference lists of retrieved studies. We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs), including cluster-randomised trials, comparing high-dose calcium supplementation (at least 1 g daily of calcium) during pregnancy with placebo. | Routine high-dose calcium (>1 g daily) vs placebo:   * Gestational hypertension (all): RR 0.65 (0.53 to 0.81); 12 trials, n=15,470 * Gestational hypertension (adequate Ca): RR 0.90 (0.81 to 0.99); 4 trials; n=5,022 * Gestational hypertension (low Ca): RR 0.44 (0.28 to 0.70); 7 trials; n=10,418 * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.45 (0.31 to 0.65); 13 trials, n=15,730; low-certainty evidence * Pre-eclampsia (adequate Ca): RR 0.62 (0.32 to 1.20); 4 trials; n=5,022 * Pre-eclampsia (low Ca): RR 0.36 (0.20 to 0.65); 8 trials; n=10,678 * Preterm birth (<37 weeks; all): RR 0.76 (0.60 to 0.97); 11 trials, n=15,275; low certainty evidence   Low-dose calcium (<1 g/day) vs placebo:   * Gestational hypertension: RR 0.57 (0.39 to 0.82); 3 trials; n=558 * Preterm birth: RR 0.40 (0.21 to 0.75); 1 trial; n=1,422 |  |
| Hofmeyr et al 2014187 | 4 studies  980 women | **Aim**: To review the impact of lower dose calcium (<1g/day) supplementation on pre-eclampsia risk.  **Methods**: We searched PubMed and the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group trials register. | Low-dose calcium (<1 g/d) alone vs placebo:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.36 (0.23 to 0.57); 4 trials, n=980 women |  |
| Khaing et al 2017188 | 16 studies  25,936 women | **Aim**: To determine the effects of vitamin D with or without calcium in preventing pre-eclampsia.  **Methods**: Literature was systematically searched in Medline, Scopus and Cochrane databases from inception to July 2017. Only randomised controlled trials (RCTs) in English were selected if they had any pair of interventions (calcium, vitamin D, both, or placebo). | Calcium vs placebo:   * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.54 (0.41 to 0.70), 16 RCTs, n=25,936 vs. 13,060 |  |
| Sun et al 2019189 | 27 studies  28,492 women | **Aim**: To investigate whether calcium supplement with or without other drugs could reduce the risk of preeclampsia and gestational hypertension.  **Methods**: PubMed, Cochrane library, and EMBASE database were searched.  27 studies, with 28 492 pregnant women were included. The results showed calcium supplement was associated with lower incidence of Sub-analyses revealed high-dose (1.2-2 g/day), moderate-dose (0.6-1.2 g/day), and low-dose (<0.6 g/day) of calcium supplement could reduce the risk of preeclampsia. For gestational hypertension, only high dose and moderate dose groups were associated with reducing the risk of gestational hypertension. However, we could draw a conclusion which does group was the most protective, as we were unable to directly compare the effects of different doses. | Calcium vs placebo:   * Preeclampsia: RR 0.51 (0.40 to 0.64) * Gestational hypertension: RR 0.70 (0.60 to 0.82) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Cullers et al 2019190  United States | 15 intervention  15 control | **Aim**: To determine the effect of maternal calcium supplementation on peripheral cortical and trabecular bone loss during pregnancy and bone gain postpartum.  **Population**: Women at 16 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: 1,000 mg Ca/d for the remainder of the pregnancy. | Intervention vs control:   * Osteocalcin (ng/mL) 4 months postpartum: 14.2±2.5 vs 17.3±3.9 * Osteocalcin (ng/mL) 12 months postpartum: 11.3±3.6 vs 13.9±3.4 |  |
| Ettinger et al 2014191  Mexico | Intervention 334  Control 336 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of dietary calcium supplementation on bone turnover during pregnancy and the early postpartum period  **Population**: Women in the first trimester of pregnancy.  **Intervention**: 1,200 mg Ca/d | Intervention vs control:   * Bone resorption: reduction of 15.8% relative to placebo (p<0.001) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of calcium supplementation in pregnancy — cost-effectiveness study

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Meertens et al 2018192 | 100,000 | **Aim**: To predict the impact of advising pregnant women to use calcium supplements (1,000 mg/day) on the number of cases of pre-eclampsia prevented and related health care costs.  **Methods**: By use of a decision-analytic model, we assessed the expected impact of advising calcium supplementation to either (1) all pregnant women, (2) women at high risk of developing pre-eclampsia, or (3) women with a low dietary calcium intake compared with current care. Calculations were performed for a hypothetical cohort of 100,000 pregnant women living in a high-income country. | The incidence of pre-eclampsia could be reduced by 25%, 8%, or 13% when advising calcium supplementation to all pregnant women, women at high risk of pre-eclampsia, or women with a low dietary calcium intake, respectively. Expected net financial benefits of the three scenarios were of euro4,621,465, euro2,059,165, or euro2,822,115 per 100,000 pregnant women, respectively. Advising pregnant women to use calcium supplements can be expected to cause substantial reductions in the incidence of pre-eclampsia as well as related health care costs. It appears most efficient to advise calcium supplementation to all pregnant women, not subgroups only. |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of iodine supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/interventions** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Harding et al 2017201 | 11 studies  >2,700 women | **Aim**: To assess the benefits and harms of supplementation with iodine, alone or in combination with other vitamins and minerals, for women in the preconceptional, pregnancy or postpartum period on their and their children’s outcomes  **Population**: women during the preconception, pregnancy and postpartum period  **Settings**: Settings with mild to moderate iodine deficiency (Denmark, Germany, Morocco, New Zealand, Thailand, Zaire)  **Intervention**: any supplement containing iodine versus same supplement without iodine or no intervention/placebo | Intervention vs control:   * Hypothyroidism in pregnancy or postpartum (pregnancy: average RR 1.90; 95%CI 0.57 to 6.38, one trial, 365 women, low-certainty evidence, and * Hypothyroidism postpartum: average RR 0.44 (0.06 to 3.42) (3 studies; n= 540 women; low-certainty) * Preterm birth: average RR 0.71 (CI 0.30 to 1.66) (2 studies; n=376; low-certainty) * Elevated thyroid peroxidase antibodies (TPOab) in pregnancy: average RR 0.95 (0.44 to 2.07) (1 study; n=359; low-certainty) * Elevated TPOab postpartum: average RR 1.01 (0.78 to 1.30) (3 studies; n=397 ; low-certainty) * Hyperthyroidism in pregnancy: average RR 1.90 (0.57 to 6.38) (1 study; n=365; low-certainty) * Postpartum hyperthyroidism: average RR 0.32 (0.11 to 0.91) (3 studies, n=543; low-certainty) * Digestive intolerance in pregnancy: average RR 15.33 (2.07 to 113.70) (1 study; n=76; very low-certainty) |  |
| Farebrother et al 2018202  Australia, China, France, India, Thailand | 4 studies  783 women | **Aim**: to assess the effects of iodine fortification or supplementation on prenatal and postnatal growth outcomes in noncretinous children  **Population**: Pregnant women with mild to moderate iodine deficiency  **Intervention**: 150–200 μg/day (for 30 days in one study and from enrolment until birth or 3 months postpartum in the others) | Intervention vs control:   * Birthweight: MD –13.75 (–212.46 to 184.97) (4 studies; n=1,743) | Overlap of two studies with Harding et al 2017201 |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of iodine supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Censi et al 2019204  Italy | 52 intervention  38 control | **Aim**: To assess the efficacy of iodine supplementation during pregnancy in areas with mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency.  **Population**: Pregnant women before 12 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group were given an iodine supplement (225 ug/day, potassium iodide tablets) from enrolment to 8 weeks after birth. | Intervention vs control at T3:   * UI/Creat (ug/g): 171.16 vs 84.19 (p<0.0001) * Thyroglobulin (ng/mL): 6.07 vs 9.8 (p=0.02) |  |
| Chawanpaiboon et al 2019205  Thailand | Intervention 112  Control 111 | **Aim**: To establish the correlation of maternal urine iodine and neonatal thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) in iodine supplemented and non-iodine supplemented pregnant women in an area of iodine deficiency.  **Population**: Pregnant women who were older than 18 years and who had a singleton fetus at a gestational age of less than 18 weeks.  **Intervention**: Participants in the intervention group were given iodine-containing ferrous tablets and the control group were given ferrous tablets (no dosages reported). | Intervention vs control:   * Urinary iodine levels: 84.14±61.85 vs 58.41±41.36 microgram/L (p<0.05) * Median neonatal TSH levels: 3.7±1.87 vs 4.4±1.99 mIU/ml (p<0.05). |  |
| Gowachirapant et al 2017203  India, Thailand | Intervention 159  Control 156 | **Aim**: To assess the effect of maternal iodine supplementation on neurodevelopment of their offspring in areas where schoolchildren were iodine sufficient  **Population**: Mildly iodine-deficient pregnant women  **Intervention**: 200 μg iodine orally once a day | Intervention vs control:   * WPPSI-III, verbal IQ: MD –0.7 (–2.9 to 1.5) p=0.77 * WPPSI-III, performance IQ: MD –1.6 (–4.5 to 1.3) p=0.44 * WPPSI-III, processing speed: MD –1.6 (–4.2 to 1.0) p=0.15 * WPPSI-III, full scale IQ –1.2 (–3.5 to 1.1) p=0.44 * BRIEF-P, global executive: –0.9 (–6.8 to 5.0) p=0.74   WPPSI-III: Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence Third Edition |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of zinc supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Ota et al 2015206  Bangladesh, Chile, China, Denmark, Egypt, Ghana, Indonesia, Iran, Nepal, Pakistan, Peru, South Africa, UK, USA | 21 studies  >17,000 women | **Aim**: To assess the effects of zinc supplementation in pregnancy on maternal, fetal, neonatal and infant outcomes.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women with no systemic illness. Women may have had normal zinc levels or they may have been, or likely to have been, zinc deficient.  **Interventions**: Most trials (15/21) compared zinc with placebo. Two trials compared zinc with non-zinc supplement (iron plus folate). In some trials, all women were also given iron, folate or vitamins or combinations of these. | Intervention vs control:   * Preterm birth: RR 0.86 (0.76 to 0.97) (16 studies; n=7,637; moderate certainty) * Perinatal death: RR 1.12 (0.86 to 1.46) (8 studies; n=5,100; low certainty) * Birthweight: MD 0.90 (-22.23 to 24.02) (17 studies; n=6,757; low certainty) * Small for gestational age: RR 1.02 (0.94 to 1.11) (8 studies; n=4,252; moderate certainty) * Low birthweight: RR 0.93 (0.78 to 1.12) (14 studies; n=5,643; moderate certainty) |  |
| Liu et al 2018207  Australia, Bangladesh, Chile, China, Denmark, Egypt, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Iran, Nepal, Pakistan, Peru, Tanzania, United Kingdom, United States | 24 studies  13,167 women | **Aim:** to systematically review and meta-analyse RCTs evaluating effects of preventive zinc supplementation for 3 months or longer during pregnancy  **Population**: Pregnant women  **Intervention**: 10–50 mg/day for a mean duration of 22.9 weeks | Intervention vs control:   * Birthweight: WMD 0.08 kg (–0.05 to 0.22) * Low birthweight: RR 0.76 (0.52 to 1.11) | Considerable overlap with Ota et al 2015;206 includes some studies that were excluded from the Cochrane review. |
| Oh et al 2020208 | 2 studies | **Aim**: To compile evidence from both efficacy and effectiveness trials, evaluating different supplementation interventions on maternal, birth, child health, and developmental outcomes.  **Methods**: We evaluated randomised controlled trials and quasi-experimental studies published since 1995 in peer-reviewed and grey literature. | Zinc versus placebo:   * maternal serum/ plasma zinc concentration: MD 0.86 umol/L, 95%CI 0.67 to 1.05; 2 studies |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of zinc supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Noor et al 2019211 | Intervention 641  Control 639 | **Aim:** To determine the effects of prenatal zinc, vitamin A, and iron supplementation on maternal hematologic and micronutrient status at delivery in Tanzania.  **Methods**: We analysed 2 large randomized controlled trials, using generalized estimating equations, and examined the effect of daily zinc (25 mg) and vitamin A (2500 IU) supplementation starting in the first trimester of pregnancy compared with placebo (n = 2500), and separately evaluated the safety and efficacy of daily iron (60 mg) supplementation among iron-replete pregnant women (n = 1500). Blood samples from baseline and delivery were tested for Hb, serum ferritin, soluble transferrin receptor, plasma zinc, and zinc protoporphyrin. | Zinc supplementation versus no zinc:   * Haemoglobin concentration at birth:  MD -0.26 g/dL; 95% CI: -0.50 to -0.02; p=0.03 * Serum ferritin at birth: -11.31 µg/L; 95%CI -26.19 to 3.56; p=0.14 * Plasma zinc: -6.64 µg/dL; 95%CI -15.71 to 2.43; p=0.15 |  |
| Nossier et al 2015209  Egypt | Intervention 198  Control 100  3-armed study; control group halved | **Aim**: To evaluate the effect of two regimens of zinc supplementation on pregnancy  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women at 16 weeks gestation with Zn level at the time of enrolment below the estimated median for gestational age.  **Intervention**: 30 mg/day. | Intervention vs control:   * Stillbirth: 1/198 (0.5%) vs 2/100 (2.5%) — RR 0.25 (0.02 to 2.75] * Preterm birth: 2/198 (1.0%) vs 11/100 (10.6%) — RR 0.10 (0.02 to 0.40) * Birthweight: 2922.22±324.05 g vs 2929.12±330.28 g — MD -6.90 (-85.82 to 72.02) | Included in Lui et al 2018207 |
| Zahiri Sorouri et al 2016210  Iran | Intervention 270  Control 270 | **Aim:** to evaluate the impact of prenatal zinc supplementation on pregnancy outcomes.  **Population:** healthy women at 16 weeks of gestation  **Intervention**: 400 μg folic acid and 30 mg ferrous sulphate, with or without 15-mg zinc sulphate from the 16th week of gestation until birth. | Intervention vs control:   * Pre-eclampsia: 23/270 (8.5%) vs 19/270 (7.0%) — RR 1.21 (0.68 to 2.17) * Preterm birth (<37 wks): 14/270 (8.5%) vs 15/270 (5.6%) — RR 0.93 (0.46 to 1.90) * Low birthweight: 17/263 (6.5%) vs 19/265 (7.2%) — RR 0.90 (0.48 to 1.70) * Macrosomia (≥4,000 g): 11/263 (4.2%) vs 8/265 (3.0%) — RR 1.39 (0.57 to 3.39) * Apgar score <7 at 5 mins: 16/263 (6.1%) vs 17/265 (6.4%) — RR 0.95 (0.49 to 1.84) |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of magnesium supplementation in pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/interventions** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Makrides et al 2014212  Angola, Austria, China, Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, South Africa, United States | 10 studies  9,090 women | **Aim**: To assess the effects of magnesium supplementation during pregnancy on maternal, neonatal/infant and paediatric outcomes  **Population**: Primiparous and multiparous women  **Interventions**: the compositions of the magnesium supplements, gestational ages at commencement, and doses administered varied, including: magnesium oxide, 1000 mg daily from four months post-conception (one trial); magnesium citrate, 365 mg daily from 18 weeks until hospitalisation after 38 weeks (one trial), and 340 mg daily from nine to 27 weeks’ gestation (one trial); magnesium gluconate, 2 to 3 g from 28 weeks’ gestation until birth (one trial), and 4 g daily from 23 weeks’ gestation (one trial); magnesium aspartate, 15 mmol daily (three trials, commencing from either six to 21 weeks’ gestation until birth, 16 weeks’ gestation until birth, or < 12 weeks until birth), or 365 mg daily from 13 to 24 weeks until birth (one trial); and magnesium stearate, 128 mg elemental magnesium from 10 to 35 weeks until birth (one trial). | Intervention vs control:   * Perinatal mortality: RR 1.10 (0.72 to 1.67) (5 studies; n=5,903) * Small for gestational age: RR 0.76 (0.54 to 1.07) (3 studies; n=1,291) * Pre-eclampsia RR 0.87 (0.58 to 1.32) (3 studies; n=1,042) * Miscarriage <20 wks: RR 0.85 (0.49 to 1.49) (6 studies; n=3,704) * Preterm birth (<37 wks): RR 0.89 (0.69 to 1.14) (7 studies; n=5,981) * Low birthweight (<2,500 g): RR 0.95 (0.83 to 1.09) (5 studies; n=5,577) * Apgar score <7 at 5 min: RR 0.34 (0.15 to 0.80) (4 studies; n=1.083) * Significant congenital abnormality: RR 2.05 (0.77 to 5.45) (1 study; n=4,082) * Maternal gastrointestinal side effects: RR 0.88 (0.69 to 1.12) (4 studies; n=1,388) * Systolic blood pressure near birth: MD 1.0 (0.03 to 1.97) (3 studies; n=1,432) * Diastolic blood pressure near birth: MD 0.23  (-0.67 to 1.13) (3 studies; n=1,432) * Pregnancy-induced hypertension: RR 0.39 (0.11 to 1.41) (3 studies; n=4,284) * Need for maternal hospitalisation: RR 0.65 (0.48 to 0.86) (3 studies; n=1,158) | Of the 10 trials included in the review, only two were judged to be of high certainty overall. When an analysis was restricted to these two trials none of the review’s primary outcomes (perinatal mortality, small-for-gestational age, pre-eclampsia) were significantly different between the magnesium supplemented and control groups. |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of magnesium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Bullarbo et al 2013214  Sweden | Intervention 28  Control 29 | **Aim**: To assess if hypertension during the last part of pregnancy could be prevented by magnesium supplementation.  **Population**: Pregnant nulliparous women with high urinary excretion of Mg and calcium in early pregnancy, indirectly indicating Mg deficiency  **Intervention**: 300 mg oral magnesium as citrate from pregnancy week 25. | Intervention vs control:   * Diastolic blood pressure at 37 weeks: 72/1.4 mean/SEM vs 77/1.4, p=0.031 — MD -0.66 (-1.20 to -0.13) * Increase in DBP ≥15 mmHg: significantly higher in the placebo group than in the magnesium group p=0.012 (actual data not reported). |  |
| Bullarbo et al 2018213  Sweden | Intervention 53  Control 58 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of magnesium (Mg) supplementation in healthy pregnant women for prevention of blood pressure increase.  **Population**: Women who were nulliparous with no regular medication, normotension, singleton pregnancy, and maternal age >18 years and <40 years  **Intervention**:  400 mg magnesium | Intervention vs control:   * Increase in diastolic blood pressure ≥15 mmHg: 25/53 (47.2%) vs 25/58 (43.1%) — RR 1.09 (0.73 to 1.65) * Increase in systolic blood pressure ≥30 mmHg: 3/53 (5.7%) vs 6/58 (10.3%) — RR 0.55 (0.14 to 2.08) * Gestational hypertension: 11/53 (20.8%) vs 10/58 (17.2%) — RR 1.20 (0.56 to 2.60) |  |
| Parente et al 2014215  Italy | Intervention 250  Control 50 | **Aim**: To evaluatethe efficacy of a supplementation of magnesium and alpha-lipoic acid in preventing premature uterine contractions.  **Population:** nulliparous (n=100) and multiparous (n=200) with history of spontaneous birth or caesarean section, among which 50 women reported previous miscarriages or preterm birth (before 35 weeks of gestation).  **Intervention:** Magnesium 225 mg, alpha lipoic acid 100 mg and vitamin B6 1.3 mg | Intervention vs control:   * Frequent and persistent episodes of preterm uterine contractions associated with pain: 50/250 (20%) vs 30/50 (60%) — RR 0.33 (0.24 to 0.47) * Maternal need for hospital admission for threatened preterm labor: 50/250 (20%) vs 20/50 (40%) — RR 0.50 (0.33 to 0.76) |  |
| Supakatisant et al 2015216  Thailand | Intervention 41  Placebo 39 | **Aim:** To evaluate the therapeutic efficacy of oral magnesium in pregnant women with leg cramps.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women at 14-34 weeks of gestation who had leg cramps at least twice per week.  **Intervention**: 300 mg magnesium bisglycinate chelate daily. | Intervention vs control:   * Reduction of cramp frequency: 86.0% vs. 60.5%, P=0.007 * 50% reduction of cramp intensity: 69.8% vs. 48.8%, P=0.048. |  |

1. Q3 Harms and benefits of selenium supplementation in pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Tara et al 2010217-220  Iran | Intervention 61  Control 64 | **Aim**: To examine the effects of selenium supplementation in the prevention of preeclampsia in high-risk pregnant women.  **Population**: primigravid pregnant women  **Intervention**: 100 μg of selenium yeast daily from the first trimester of their pregnancy until delivery for a period of approximately 6 months. | Intervention vs control:   * Pre-eclampsia: 0/61 vs 3/64 — RR 0.15 (0.01 to 2.84) * Premature rupture of the membranes: 8/61 vs 22/64 — RR 0.38 (0.18 to 0.79) * Birthweight: 3085.3±622.2 vs 3069.0±551.1 — MD 16.30 (-190.12 to 222.72) * EPDS score: 8.8+5.1 (n=44) vs 10.7+4.4 (n=41) — MD -1.90 (-3.92, 0.12) | The authors note that larger trials are required to draw conclusions on the efficacy of selenium supplementation in pregnancy for preventing preeclampsia. |
| Rayman et al 2014221-223  United Kingdom | Intervention 105  Control 109 | **Aim**: To evaluate the role of selenium supplementation in reducing risk of pre-eclampsia.  **Population**: Women with a first pregnancy at 12–14 weeks.  **Intervention**: 60 μg daily of selenium as selenium-enriched yeast | Intervention vs control:   * sFlt-1: RR 0·95 (0·80 to 1·12) * PlGF: RR 0·97 (0·78 to 1·21) * sFlt-1:PlGF: RR 0·97 (0·70 to 1·36) * subclinical hypothyroidism: 16/106 vs 13/109 — RR 1.37 (0.68 to 2.76) * Insulin resistance: no adverse effect on the concentration of adiponectin, a biomarker of insulin resistance, in pregnant women of modest selenium status. | The authors note that the finding that selenium supplementation has the potential to reduce the risk of pre-eclampsia needs to be validated in an adequately powered trial. |

## **Q4**: What are the harms and benefits of nutritionally based complementary medicines in pregnancy?

### Omega-3 fatty acids

#### Background

Higher intakes of foods containing omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFA), such as fish, during pregnancy have been associated with longer gestations and improved perinatal outcomes.

The guidelines do not currently include information on omega-3 fatty acids.

#### Current review

As a recent Cochrane review on omega-3 fatty acids for improving birth outcomes for women at or beyond term has recently been published, it was agreed that the findings from the review be used to inform this review rather than new searches being conducted.

The updated review included 70 RCTs (involving 19,927 women at low, mixed or high risk of poor pregnancy outcomes) which compared omega-3 LCPUFA interventions (supplements and food) compared with placebo or no omega-3. Overall study-level risk of bias was mixed, with selection and performance bias mostly at low risk, but there was high risk of attrition bias in some trials. Most trials were conducted in upper-middle or high-income countries; and nearly half the trials included women at increased/high risk for factors which might increase the risk of adverse maternal and birth outcomes.

The review found lower rates of **p**reterm birth <37 weeks (13.4% versus 11.9%; RR 0.89, 95%CI 0.81 to 0.97; 26 RCTs, n=10,304; high-certainty) and early preterm birth <34 weeks (4.6% vs 2.7%; RR 0.58, 95%CI 0.44 to 0.77; 9 RCTs, n=5,204; high-certainty) among women who received omega-3 LCPUFA compared with no omega-3. Prolonged pregnancy >42 weeks was probably increased from 1.6% to 2.6% in women who received omega-3 LCPUFA compared with no omega-3 (RR 1.61 95%CI 1.11 to 2.33; n=5,141; 6 RCTs; moderate-certainty evidence).

For infant outcomes, there was:

* a possibly reduced risk of perinatal death (RR 0.75, 95%CI 0.54 to 1.03; 10 RCTs, n=7,416; moderate-certainty)
* possibly fewer neonatal care admissions (RR 0.92, 95%CI 0.83 to 1.03; 9 RCTs, n=6,920; moderate-certainty)
* a reduced risk of low birthweight (15.6% vs 14%; RR 0.90, 95%CI 0.82 to 0.99; 15 trials, n=8,449; high-certainty)
* a possible small increase in large-for-gestational age babies (RR 1.15, 95%CI 0.97 to 1.36; 6 RCTs, n=3,722; moderate-certainty)
* little or no difference in small-for-gestational age or intrauterine growth restriction (RR 1.01, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.13; 8 RCTs, n=6907; moderate-certainty).

For the maternal outcomes, there is insufficient evidence to determine the effects of omega-3 on:

* induction post-term (average RR 0.82, 95%CI 0.22 to 2.98; 3 RCTs, n=2,900; low-certainty)
* maternal serious adverse events (RR 1.04, 95%CI 0.40 to 2.72; 2 RCTs, n=2,690; low-certainty)
* maternal admission to intensive care (RR 0.56, 95%CI 0.12 to 2.63; 2 RCTs, n=2,458; low-certainty)
* postnatal depression (average RR 0.99, 95%CI 0.56 to 1.77; 2 RCTs, n=2,431; low-certainty).

Mean gestational length was greater in women who received omega-3 LCPUFA (MD 1.67 days, 95%CI 0.95 to 2.39; 41 RCTs, n=12,517; moderate certainty), and pre-eclampsia may possibly be reduced with omega-3 LCPUFA (RR 0.84, 95%CI 0.69 to 1.01; 20 RCTs, n=8,306; low certainty).

For the child/adult outcomes, very few differences between antenatal omega-3 LCPUFA supplementation and no omega-3 were observed in cognition, IQ, vision, other neurodevelopment and growth outcomes, language and behaviour (mostly low-certainty to very low-certainty evidence). The effect of omega-3 LCPUFA on body mass index at 19 years (MD 0, 95%CI -0.83 to 0.83; 1 RCT, n=243; very low-certainty evidence) was uncertain. No data were reported for development of diabetes in the children of study participants.

#### 

| Summary of findings | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Omega- 3 LCPUFA compared with no omega- 3 during pregnancy: birth/ infant outcomes | | | | | |
| **Patient or population**: Pregnant women and their babies  **Setting**: Angola, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Croatia, Chile, Denmark, Egypt, Germany, India, Iran, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Russia, Sweden, Turkey, UK, USA  **Intervention**: Omega-3  **Comparison**: No omega-3 | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Illustrative comparative risks\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with no omega-3** | **Risk with omega-3** |
| Preterm birth <37 weeks | 134 per 1,000 | **119 per 1,000** (109 to 130) | **RR 0.89** (0.81 to 0.97) | 10,304 (26 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁⨁ HIGH 1 |
| Early preterm birth <34 weeks | 46 per 1,000 | **27 per 1,000** (20 to 35) | **RR 0.58** (0.44 to 0.77) | 5,204 (9 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁⨁ HIGH 2 |
| Perinatal death | 20 per 1,000 | **15 per 1,000** (15 to 21) | **RR 0.75** (0.54 to 1.03) | 7,416 (10 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE 3 |
| Small for gestational age | 129 per 1,000 | **130 per 1,000** (116 to 146) | **RR 1.01** (0.90 to 1.13) | 6,907 (8 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE 3 |
| Low birth weight | 156 per 1,000 | **140 per 1,000** (128 to 154) | **RR 0.90** (0.82 to 0.99) | 8,449 (15 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁⨁ HIGH |
| Large for gestational age | 117 per 1,000 | **134 per 1,000** (113 to 159) | **RR 1.15** (0.97 to 1.36) | 3,722 (6 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE 4 |
| Serious adverse events for neonate /infant | 63 per 1,000 | **45 per 1,000** (37 to 62) | **RR 0.72** (0.53 to 0.99) | 2,690 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW 5 |
| \* The basis for the assumed risk (e.g. the median control group risk across studies) is provided in footnotes. The corresponding risk (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the relative effect of the intervention (and its 95%CI).  **CI**: confidence interval; **RCT**: randomised controlled trial; **RR**: risk ratio; | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

1 Design limitations: larger studies of high quality, but some smaller studies with unclear risk of selective reporting and some smaller studies with unclear or high attrition bias at the time of birth (not downgraded for study limitations)

2 Design limitations: larger studies of higher quality, but several studies with unclear or high attrition bias at the time of birth, or baseline imbalances (not downgraded for study limitations)

3 Imprecision (-1): downgraded one level due to crossing line of no effect and/ or wide confidence intervals

4 Imprecision (-1): downgraded one level due to wide confidence intervals

5 Design limitations (-2): downgraded two levels; one study with unclear allocation concealment and attrition bias; specific adverse events not detailed in this study

### Probiotics

#### Background

The guidelines do not currently include information on probiotics.

#### Current review

This review identified three systematic reviews225-227, from which study data and risk of bias assessment were extracted for 15 RCTs, and 10 RCTs228-237 published subsequently to the reviews.

The inclusion criteria differed between the systematic reviews but results were consistent in finding no clear difference in risk of preterm birth,225-227 caesarean section225,227 or macrosomia.225,227 The two reviews that conducted a meta-analysis of risk of gestational diabetes were inconsistent (RR 0.52; 95%CI 0.34 to 0.80; 3 RCTs227 versus RR 1.25; 95%CI 0.61 to 2.56; 388; 3 RCTs225). One review found no clear difference in infant mortality.226 Another found no clear difference in risk of gestational hypertension, small for gestational age or large for gestational age.225

This meta-analysis includes RCTs that compared probiotics during pregnancy with placebo or no intervention. The study populations were heterogeneous and included healthy pregnant women,229,231,233,234,238-240 women with gestational diabetes,241-245 women who were overweight or obese,228,232,236 women colonised with Group B streptococcus,230,235 and women with a fetus at risk of allergies.237,246-251

The type(s) of probiotic given in the studies also varied, as did the timing and duration of the intervention, with duration varying from 4 to 31 weeks.

The studies were carried out in Australia (n=3),228,235,247 Brazil (n=1),239 Canada (n=1),234 Finland (n=4),233,240,248,251 Germany (n=1),229 Iran (n=4),242-245 Ireland (n=2),236,241 Italy (n=1),238 Korea (n=1),249 the Netherlands (n=1),250 New Zealand (n=2),232,237 Norway (n=1),252 Sweden (n=1),246 Taiwan (n=1),230 and the United Kingdom (n=1).231 Study sample sizes were small with all but one study having a sample size of less than 500 — ≤100 (n=7),230,235,238,242-245 101-200 (n=6),234,236,241,248-250 201-300 (n=8),229,231-233,240,246,247,251 401-500 (n=3),228,237,252 and one study had a sample size of 644.239

There was evidence from three RCTs of a possible reduction in Group B streptococcus colonisation (RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.61 to 0.97; n=244; very low certainty; analysis 1.5; page 409). There was evidence of a possible reduction in risk of gestational diabetes (RR 0.87; 95%CI 0.71 to 1.08; 8 RCTs; n=1,722; very low certainty; analysis 1.1; page 408) and caesarean section (RR 0.92; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.05; 15 RCTs; n=2,650; low certainty; analysis 1.6; page 409).

There was no clear difference in risk of:

* gestational hypertension (RR 1.24; 95%CI 0.74 to 2.06; 4 RCTs; n=955; very low certainty; analysis 1.2; page 408)
* pre-eclampsia (RR 1.88; 95%CI 0.96 to 3.71; 2 RCTs; n=598; low certainty; analysis 1.3; page 408)
* bacterial vaginosis (RR 1.73; 95%CI 0.89 to 3.38; 2 RCTs; n=509; low certainty; analysis 1.4; page 409)
* perinatal death (RR 1.17; 95%CI 0.62 to 2.24; 6 RCTs; n=1,670; low certainty; analysis 1.7; page 410)
* preterm birth <37 weeks (RR 1.10; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.50; 16 RCTs; n=3,671; low certainty; analysis 1.8; page 410)
* small for gestational age (RR 1.04; 95%CI 0.55 to 1.94; 3 RCTs; n=318; very low certainty; analysis 1.9; page 410)
* large for gestational age (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.47 to 1.93; 3 RCTs; n=316; low certainty; analysis 1.10; page 411)
* macrosomia (>4,000 g) (RR 1.06; 0.85 to 1.33; 7 RCTs; n=1,407; low certainty; analysis 1.11; page 411).

While many of the studies reported on allergy in the infant, this outcome is not reported here as the infant received probiotics directly or indirectly in breastmilk.

| Summary of findings | | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Probiotics compared to placebo during pregnancy — maternal outcomes | | | | | |
| **Patient or population:** Pregnant women  **Setting:** Australia, Brazil, Canada, Finland, Germany, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Taiwan, the United Kingdom  **Intervention:** Probiotics administered to pregnant women  **Comparison:** Placeboor no intervention | | | | | |
| Outcomes | | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with placebo** | **Risk with Probiotics administered to pregnant women** |
| Gestational diabetes | | 174 per 1,000 | **152 per 1,000** (124 to 188) | **RR 0.87** (0.71 to 1.08) | 1,722 (8 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Gestational hypertension | | 52 per 1,000 | **64 per 1,000** (38 to 107) | **RR 1.24** (0.74 to 2.06) | 955 (4 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW b,c |
| Pre-eclampsia | | 41 per 1,000 | **76 per 1,000** (39 to 150) | **RR 1.88** (0.96 to 3.71) | 598 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| Bacterial vaginosis | | 48 per 1,000 | **83 per 1,000** (43 to 162) | **RR 1.73** (0.89 to 3.38) | 509 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| Group B streptococcus | | 529 per 1,000 | **402 per 1,000** (323 to 514) | **RR 0.76** (0.61 to 0.97) | 244 (3 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW b,d |
| Caesarean section | | 269 per 1,000 | **248 per 1,000** (218 to 283) | **RR 0.92** (0.81 to 1.05) | 2650 (15 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | | | |

a. Moderate heterogeneity in results

b. Heterogeneity in populations and type, timing and duration of intervention

c. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

d. Unclear risk of performance and detection bias in one study and high risk of selection and performance bias in another study

| Probiotics compared to placebo during pregnancy — infant outcomes | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Patient or population:** Pregnant women  **Setting:** Australia, Brazil, Canada, Finland, Germany, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Taiwan, the United Kingdom  **Intervention:** Probiotics administered to pregnant women  **Comparison:** Placebo | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with placebo** | **Risk with Probiotics administered to pregnant women** |
| Perinatal death | 18 per 1,000 | **21 per 1,000** (11 to 40) | **RR 1.17** (0.62 to 2.24) | 1,670 (6 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| Preterm birth < 37 weeks' gestation | 39 per 1,000 | **43 per 1,000** (31 to 58) | **RR 1.10** (0.81 to 1.50) | 3,671 (16 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| Small for gestational age | 108 per 1,000 | **113 per 1,000** (60 to 210) | **RR 1.04** (0.55 to 1.94) | 318 (3 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Large for gestational age | 91 per 1,000 | **86 per 1,000** (43 to 175) | **RR 0.95** (0.47 to 1.93) | 316 (3 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| Macrosomia | 169 per 1,000 | **179 per 1,000** (143 to 224) | **RR 1.06** (0.85 to 1.33) | 1,407 (7 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW b,c |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. Moderate heterogeneity in results

b. Heterogeneity in populations and type, timing and duration of intervention

c. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

### Herbal preparations

#### Background

A survey of pregnant women conducted in Sydney found that 4.4% were taking raspberry leaf, 1.5% spirulina, 1.5% evening primrose and 0.5% ‘other’, which comprised nettle leaf, St John’s wort, fenugreek and ginseng.115

An Australian cohort study (n=1,835) found that 34.4% of the sample were using herbal preparations during pregnancy, of which 77.9% were self-prescribing these products.253 Women were more likely to use herbal medicine if they had anxiety (OR 1.30; 95%CI, 1.02 to 1.64; p=0.031), sleeping problems (OR 1.55; 95%CI 1.15 to 2.11; p=0.005) or fatigue (OR 1.32; 95%CI 1.04 to 1.68; p=0.025), but less likely to use herbal medicine if they had nausea (OR 0.71; 95%CI 0.56 to 0.91; p=0.007). Women were more likely to self-prescribe herbal medicine if they suffered from varicose veins (OR 2.46; 95%CI 1.04 to 5.84; p=0.041) and less likely to self-prescribe herbal medicine if they suffered from pre-eclampsia (OR 0.23; 95%CI 0.81 to 0.63; p=0.005). Women who self-prescribed herbal medicine during pregnancy were also more likely to live in a rural environment (OR 2.22; 95%CI 1.32 to 3.73; p=0.003). Women who used herbal preparations viewed them as a preventative measure, were looking for something holistic and were concerned about evidence of clinical efficacy when considering the use of these products during pregnancy.254

A systematic review of found that women use complementary and alternative medicine (including herbal preparations) in their pregnancy as a means of supporting their sense of self-determination, to pursue a natural and safe childbirth, and because they experience a close affiliation with the philosophical underpinnings of complementary and alternative medicine as an alternative to the biomedical model.255

A multinational, cross-sectional study (n=9,483),256 found that 29.3% of women reported the use of herbal preparations in pregnancy, of which 47.4% used herbal preparations classified as safe for use in pregnancy, 31.6% used herbal preparations classified as requiring caution in pregnancy and 20.0% used herbal preparations classified as contraindicated in pregnancy.

#### Current review

An Australian cohort study (n=2,445)257 found no clear difference between women who used herbal preparations during pregnancy and those who did not in risk of preterm birth (OR 0.71; 95%CI 0.20 to 2.56), caesarean section after onset of labour (OR 0.55; 95%CI 0.10 to 3.10), induction of labour (OR 0.98; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.55) or low birthweight (OR 1.78; 95%CI 0.30 to 10.51) but a possible reduction in likelihood of caesarean section before onset of labour (OR 0.26; 95%CI 0.07 to 0.98).

Evidence on specific herbs identified through the review is as follows.

* *Ginger*: A systematic review found a reduction in nausea score with ginger compared with placebo (MD -4.2; 95%CI -6.5 to -1.9; moderate certainty) and a low risk of adverse effects in a mixed treatment comparison (OR 0.4; 95%CI 0.1 to 0.9).141
* *Garlic*: A systematic review found a probable reduction in gestational hypertension (RR 0.50; 95%CI 0.25 to 1.00), no clear difference in risk of pre-eclampsia (RR 0.78, 95% CI 0.31 to 1.93) or caesarean section (RR 1.35, 95% CI 0.93 to 1.95) and an increase in likelihood of women experiencing odour (RR 8.50, 95% CI 2.07 to 34.88).258 A subsequent RCT found no clear difference in risk of gestational diabetes (p=0.31), mild pre-eclampsia (p=0.29), severe pre-eclampsia (p=0.31) or caesarean section (p=0.57).259
* *Chamomile*: A systematic review found a reduction in nausea score with chamomile versus placebo (MD -4.2; 95%CI -6.7 to -1.7; 1 RCT; very low certainty).141
* *Echinacea*: A systematic review found no evidence on the efficacy and safety of echinacea in pregnancy,260 while a cohort study (n=68,522) found no clear difference in risk of congenital anomalies (aOR 1.1; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.1), preterm birth (aOR 1.0; 95%CI 0.6 to 1.7), small for gestational age (aOR 1.0; 95%CI 0.7 to 1.6) or low birth weight (aOR 1.1; 95%CI 0.5 to 2.1).261
* *Elderberry*: A systematic review found no evidence on the efficacy and safety of elderberry in pregnancy.260
* *Lettuce seed*: In an RCT, lettuce seed improved sleep in women with insomnia during pregnancy (p=0.03).262

### Evidence statements

#### Omega-3 fatty acids

There is high certainty evidence that rates of preterm birth <37 weeks and early preterm birth <34 weeks are lower in women receiving omega-3 LCPUFA compared with no omega-3. There is moderate-certainty evidence that prolonged pregnancy >42 weeks is probably increased with omega-3 fatty acid supplementation. There is high certainty evidence of a reduced risk of low birth weight and moderate certainty evidence for a possible reduced risk of perinatal death, neonatal care admission and a possible small increase in risk of large-for-gestational age babies with omega-3 LCPUFA.

#### Probiotics

There is low certainty evidence that supplementation with probiotics may be associated with a possible reduction in caesarean section and very low certainty evidence of a reduction in Group B streptococcus colonisation and a possible reduction in risk of gestational diabetes. There is very low or low certainty evidence that probiotic supplementation has no effect on gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, bacterial vaginosis, perinatal death, preterm birth, small for gestational age, large for gestational age or macrosomia.

#### Herbal preparations

The evidence on the efficacy and safety of herbal preparations during pregnancy is limited.

There is moderate certainty evidence that ginger reduces nausea, with a low risk of adverse effects. There is very low certainty evidence that chamomile is also effective in reducing nausea.

There is evidence from a systematic review that garlic may reduce gestational hypertension but does not have an effect on pre-eclampsia or caesarean section, with a high likelihood of experiencing odour.

There is insufficient evidence on the efficacy and safety of echinacea and elderberry during pregnancy.

### Evidence tables

1. Q4 Use of herbal preparations during pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Aalami-Harandi et al 2015259  Iran  RCT | Intervention 22  Control 22 | **Aim**: To determine the favourable effects of garlic on metabolic status and pregnancy outcomes among pregnant women at risk for pre-eclampsia.  **Methods**: Participants were randomly assigned at 27 weeks gestation to receive either one garlic tablet (equal to 400 mg garlic and 1 mg allicin) (n=22) or placebo (n=22) once daily for 9 weeks. Fasting blood samples were taken at baseline and after 9 weeks' intervention to measure metabolic profiles and biomarkers of oxidative stress. Results were narratively synthesised; planned meta-analysis was not possible due to heterogeneity and incomplete reporting. A simple economic evaluation considered the implied values of treatments. | Garlic vs control:   * Caesarean section: 11/25 (44.0%) vs 13/25 (52.0%); p=0.57 * Gestational diabetes: 0/25 vs 1/25 (4.0%); p=0.31 * Severe pre-eclampsia: 0/25 vs 1/25 (4.0%); p=0.31 * Mild pre-eclampsia: 1/25 (4.0%) vs 3/25 (12.0%); p=0.29   No adverse effects were reported. |  |
| Heitman et al 2016261  Norway  Cohort | 68,522 | **Aim**: To study the consequences of the use of echinacea on malformations and common adverse pregnancy outcomes.  **Methods**: This study is based on the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study (MoBa). Information was retrieved from three self-administered questionnaires completed by the women in pregnancy weeks 17 and 30 and 6 months after birth. Information on pregnancy outcomes was retrieved from the Medical Birth Registry of Norway. Generalized estimating equations analyses were performed to assess the association between exposure to echinacea and pregnancy outcomes. Pearson's chi-square test was used to assess factors related to use of echinacea in pregnancy. | Women who used echinacea versus those who did not:   * Congenital anomalies: aOR 1.1; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.1 * Preterm birth: aOR 1.0; 95%CI 0.6 to 1.7 * Small for gestational age: aOR 1.0; 95%CI 0.7 to 1.6 * Low birth weight: aOR 1.1; 95%CI 0.5 to 2.1 |  |
| Holst et al 2014260  SLR | Echinacea: 20 RCTs  Elderberry: 3 RCTs | **Aim:** To evaluate the safety of echinacea and elderberry in pregnancy.  **Methods**: The electronic databases PubMed, ISI Web of Science, AMED, EMBASE, Natural Medicines Comprehensive Database, and Cochrane Library were searched from inception to November 2013. Relevant references from the acquired articles were included. No clinical trials concerning safety of either herb in pregnancy were identified. One prospective human study and two small animal studies of safety of echinacea in pregnancy were identified. No animal- or human studies of safety of elderberry in pregnancy were identified. Twenty clinical trials concerning efficacy of various echinacea preparations in various groups of the population were identified between 1995 and 2013. Three clinical trials concerning efficacy of two different elderberry preparations were identified between 1995 and 2013. | Due to lack of evidence of efficacy and safety, health care personnel should not advise pregnant women to use echinacea or elderberry against upper respiratory tract infection. | No clinical trials concerning the safety of either herb in pregnancy were identified |
| Meher et al 2006258  SLR | 1 study | **Aim:** To assess the effects of garlic on prevention of pre-eclampsia and its complications.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group Trials Register (February 2006), the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (The Cochrane Library 2005, Issue 2), and EMBASE (1974 to April 2005). Studies were included if they were randomised trials evaluating the effects of garlic on prevention of pre-eclampsia and its complications. Two review authors independently selected trials for inclusion and extracted data. Data were entered on Review Manager software for analysis, and double checked for accuracy. | Garlic versus placebo:   * Gestational hypertension: RR 0.50; 95%CI 0.25 to 1.00 * Pre-eclampsia: RR 0.78, 95% CI 0.31 to 1.93 * Odour: RR 8.50, 95% CI 2.07 to 34.88 * Caesarean section: RR 1.35, 95% CI 0.93 to 1.95   There were no perinatal deaths in the study. |  |
| Pour et al 2018262  RCT  Iran | Intervention 50  Control 50 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effects of lettuce seed on pregnant women for the treatment of insomnia.  **Methods**: In a prospective randomised clinical trial, 100 pregnant women with insomnia aged 20-45 years were assigned to receive capsules containing 1000 mg of lettuce seed or a placebo daily for two weeks. The main outcome was the quality of sleep, which was measured using the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI). | Linear regression analysis showed that, after controlling for the other variables, the average sleep score of the experimental group was significantly lower than for the placebo group (p=0.03). |  |
| Sridharan et al 2018141  SLR | Ginger: 10 studies  Chamomile: 1 study | **Aim: To** carry out a network meta-analysis comparing the interventions used for treating nausea and vomiting in pregnancy.  **Methods:** We searched PubMed, Cochrane CENTRAL, and Google Scholar for randomised clinical trials carried out in pregnant women with nausea or vomiting. Those carried out in women with hyperemesis gravidarum were excluded. Direct estimates were derived by pooling the data from head-to-head clinical trials while indirect estimates through a common comparator. | Difference in nausea score:   * Ginger vs placebo: MD -4.2; 95%CI -6.5 to -1.9; moderate certainty * Chamomile vs placebo: MD -4.2; 95%CI -6.7 to -1.7; very low certainty   Adverse effects (mixed treatment comparison):   * Ginger OR 0.4; 95%CI 0.1 to 0.9 |  |
| Steel et al 2014257  Australia  Cohort | 2,445 | **Aim:**  To report findings outlining the incidence of adverse birth outcomes among women using herbal preparations during pregnancy.  **Methods**: A survey-based cohort sub-study from the nationally-representative Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH) was undertaken in 2010. | Women who used herbal preparations versus those who did not:   * Premature birth: OR 0.71; 95%CI 0.20 to 2.56 * Caesarean section before onset of labour: OR 0.26; 95%CI 0.07 to 0.98 * Caesarean section after onset of labour: OR 0.55; 95%CI 0.10 to 3.10 * Induction of labour: OR 0.98; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.55 * Low birthweight: OR 1.78; 95%CI 0.30 to 10.51 |  |

1. Q4 Supplementation of probiotics during pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Han et al 2019227  SLR | 10 RCTs  1,139 women | **Aim**: To assess the effects of probiotic supplementation on the maternal metabolism and the risk of development of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) in the pregnant women by a meta-analysis of relevant randomised controlled trials (RCTs).  **Methods**: The medical literature was searched from PubMed, Web of Science and the Cochrane Library since inception to October 2017. Two investigators independently performed the data extraction and quality assessment. The mean differences (MD) or standardized mean differences (SMD) or relative risk (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated with the random-effects model. Results: | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Gestational diabetes: RR 0.52; 95%CI 0.34 to 0.80; 3 studies * Caesarean section: RR 1.00; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.24; 5 studies * Preterm birth: RR 1.94; 95%CI 0.98 to 3.84; 4 studies * Macrosomia: RR 1.31; 95%CI 0.87 to 1.96; 3 studies |  |
| Grev et al 2018226 | 11 RCTs | **Aim**: To compare the efficacy of maternal probiotic administration versus placebo or no intervention in mothers during pregnancy for the prevention of preterm birth and the prevention of morbidity and mortality of infants born preterm.  Methods: We used the standard search strategy of Cochrane Neonatal to search the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL 2017, Issue 2), MEDLINE via PubMed (1966 to 21 March 2017), Embase (1980 to 21 March 2017), and CINAHL (1982 to 21 March 2017). We also searched clinical trials databases, conference proceedings, and the reference lists of retrieved articles for randomized controlled trials and quasi-randomized trials. We included randomized controlled trials in the review if they administered oral probiotics to pregnant mothers at risk for preterm birth. | Probiotics versus placebo or nor intervention:   * Preterm birth < 37 weeks: RR 0.92, 95%CI0.32 to 2.67; 4 RCTs, 518 mothers and 506 infants * Preterm birth < 34 weeks: RD 0.00, 95% CI -0.02 to 0.02; 2 RCTs, 287 mothers and infants * Infant mortality: RD 0.00, 95% CI -0.02 to 0.02; 2 RCTs, 309 mothers and 298 infants |  |
| Jarde et al 2018225  SLR | 27 RCTs | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review and meta-analysis of the risk of preterm birth and other adverse pregnancy outcomes in pregnant women taking probiotics.  **Methods**: We searched six electronic databases (MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Web of Science's Core collection and BIOSIS Preview) up to September 2016 and contacted authors for additional data. We included randomised controlled trials in which women with a singleton pregnancy received a probiotic. Two independent reviewers extracted data using a piloted form and assessed the risk of bias using the Cochrane risk of bias tool. We used random-effects meta-analyses to pool the results. | Probiotics versus control:   * Gestational diabetes; RR 1.25; 95%CI 0.61 to 2.56; 388; 3 RCTs * Gestational hypertension: RR 1.99; 95%CI 0.49 to 7.99; n=144; 1 RCT * Caesarean section: RR 0.83; 95%CI 0.67 to 1.04; n=1,482; 9 RCTs * Preterm birth <34 weeks: RR 1.03, 95% CI 0.29 to 3.64, n=1,017; 5 RCTs * Preterm birth <37 weeks: RR 1.08, 95% CI 0.71 to 1.63, n=2,484; 11 RCTs * Small for gestational age: RR 1.03; 95%CIi 0.35 to 3.06; n=353; 3 RCTs * Large for gestational age: RR 0.96; 95%CI 0.47 to 1.94; n=344; 3 RCTs * Macrosomia (>4,000g): RR 1.08; 95%CI 072 to 1.63; n=414; 3 RCTs | Control groups in some included studies received an intervention; these have not been included in this meta-analysis.  In order to consider a study as overall having low risk of bias, it had to have none of the domains considered as high risk of bias and at least four (not counting ‘Other biases’) considered as low risk of bias, with at least one of them being ‘random sequence generation’ or ‘allocation concealment’. |

1. Q4 Supplementation of probiotics during pregnancy — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Callaway et al 2019228  RCT  Australia | Intervention 207  Control 204 | **Aim**: To determine whether probiotics (Lactobacillus rhamnosus and Bifidobacterium animalis subspecies lactis) administered from the second trimester in overweight and obese women prevent GDM as assessed by an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) at 28 weeks' gestation.  **Population**: Singleton pregnancy at <20 weeks’ gestation, BMI >25 kg/m2, >18 years of age.  **Intervention**: A mixture of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* (LGG) and *Bifidobacterium animalis* subspecies *lactis* (BB-12) at a dose of >1 x 109 colony-forming units each per day | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Gestational diabetes: 38/207 vs 25/204 * Pre-eclampsia: 19/206 vs 10/203 * Gestational hypertension: 10/206 vs 11/203 * Caesarean section: 73/206 vs 80/204 * Excessive weight gain: 55/169 vs 81/176 * Preterm birth: 17/193 vs 12/180 * Stillbirth: 0/207 vs 1/204 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 31/206 vs 35/203 * Low birth weight: 7/206 vs 6/203 |  |
| Gille et al 2016229  RCT  Germany | Intervention 154  Control 151 | **Aim**: To evaluate whether an oral probiotic food supplement supports the maintenance or restoration of a normal vaginal microbiota during pregnancy.  **Population**: Women aged >18 years <12 weeks gestation  **Intervention**: Oral *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1and *L reuteri* RC-14 (10(9) colony-forming units) or placebo were administered for 8 weeks to women with <12 completed weeks of pregnancy. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Preterm birth: 6/154 vs 8/151 * Miscarriage (<22 weeks): 12/154 vs 5/151 * Bacterial vaginosis: 3/135 vs 2/136 |  |
| Ho et al 2016230  RCT  Taiwan | Intervention 49  Control 50 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of Lactobacillus rhamnosus GR-1 and Lactobacillus reuteri RC-14 taken orally before bedtime on Group B Streptococcus (GBS)-positive pregnant women with respect to becoming GBS negative.  **Population**: Pregnant women at 35-37 weeks of gestation who were diagnosed by GBS culture as being GBS positive for both vaginal and rectal GBS colonisation.  **Intervention**: Two probiotic capsules (containing L. rhamnosus GR-1 and L. reuteri RC-14) before bedtime until birth. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Absence of GBS colonisation at birth: 21/49 vs 9/50 |  |
| Husain et al 2020231  RCT  United Kingdom | Intervention 123  Control 115 | **Aim**: To determine the effects on the vaginal microbiota of an oral probiotic preparation administered from early pregnancy.  **Population**: Women aged 16 years or older recruited at 9-14 weeks' gestation.  **Intervention**: Participants were randomly allocated to receive oral capsules of probiotic containing Lactobacillus rhamnosus GR-1 and Lactobacillus reuteri RC-14 each at 2.5 x 10(9) colony-forming units (CFUs) or placebo once daily from recruitment until the end of pregnancy. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Bacterial vaginosis at 18-20 weeks: 19/123 vs 10/115 |  |
| Lindsay et al 2014236  Ireland | Intervention 63  Control 75 | **Aim:** To investigate the effect of a probiotic capsule on maternal fasting glucose in obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Pregnant women with an early pregnancy body mass index (BMI; in kg/m(2)) from 30.0 to 39.9.  **Intervention**: Women were randomly assigned to receive either a daily probiotic (*Lactobacillus salivarius* UCC118 [109 cfu]) or a placebo capsule from 24 to 28 wk of gestation in addition to routine antenatal care. | Probiotics vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 3/62 vs 3/74 * Gestational hypertension: 5/62 vs 3/74 * Caesarean section: 20/62 vs 25/74 * Preterm birth >37 weeks: 3/63 vs 2/75 * Macrosomia: 15/62 vs 16/74 * Small for gestational age: 5/63 vs 11/75 * Large for gestational age: 6/62 vs 7/74 |  |
| Okesene-Gafa et al 2019232  RCT  New Zealand | Intervention 115  Placebo 115 | **Aim**: To determine whether a culturally tailored dietary intervention and or daily probiotic capsules in pregnant women with obesity reduces the co-primary outcomes of (1) excessive gestational weight gain (mean >0.27 kg/week) and (2) birthweight.  **Population**: Women without diabetes at pregnancy booking, BMI ≥30 kg/m(2) and a singleton pregnancy at 12(+0) to 17(+6) weeks' gestation.  **Intervention**: Daily capsules containing either (Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG and Bifidobacterium lactis BB12, minimum 6.5 x 10(9) colony forming units), or placebo, until birth. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Excessive gestational weight gain: 89/108 and 80/109, RR 1.14, 95%CI 0.99 to 1.31 * Gestational diabetes: 28/105 vs 25/91; RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.59 to 1.49 * Gestational hypertension: 11/108 vs 7/113; RR 1.61; 95%CI 0.64 to 4.09 * Caesarean section: 40/112 vs 35/114; RR 1.23; 95%CI 0.70 to 2.15 * Stillbirth: 2/112 vs 2/114; RR 1.02; 95%CI 0.14 to 7.36 |  |
| Olsen et al 2018235  RCT  Australia | Intervention 19  Control 13 | **Aim:** To perform a pilot project to determine if this research design was appropriate to explore potential causal relationships between oral probiotic use and vaginal Group B Streptococcal (GBS) colonisation rates in pregnant women.  **Population**: GBS-positive women at 36 weeks pregnancy.  **Intervention**: Daily oral dose of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1 (GR- 1) and *Lactobacillus fermentum/reuteri* RC-14 (RC-14) in a dose of 108 viable strains for three weeks or until birth. | Intervention versus control:   * GBS colonisation at birth: 15/19 vs 10/13 * Presence of vaginal commensals at birth: 5/19 vs 0/13 |  |
| Pellonpera et al 2019233  RCT  Finland | Intervention 109  Control 110 | **Aim**: To assess whether the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) may be lowered and glucose metabolism improved by daily administration of fish oil and/or probiotic supplements in overweight and obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Women (mean 13.9±2.1 gestational weeks [gw])  **Intervention**: Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 and Bifidobacterium animalis ssp. lactis 420, 10(10) colony-forming units each were provided for daily consumption from randomisation beyond birth. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * Gestational diabetes: 25/88 vs 31/84 * Miscarriage < 22 weeks: 1/109 vs 2/110 * Stillbirth: 0/96 vs 1/93 * Gestational hypertension: 4/96 vs 4/93 * Pre-eclampsia: 4/96 vs 2/93 * Caesarean section: 10/96 vs 8/92 * Preterm birth: 4/96 vs 3/92 * Macrosomia: 13/96 vs 13/92 |  |
| Sharpe et al 2019234  RCT  Canada | Intervention 57  Control 56 | **Aim**: To assess the effect of probiotic supplementation on GBS vaginal/rectal colonisation at 35-37 weeks' gestation.  **Population**: Pregnant women >18 years of age and <45 years of age and with a gestational age of <25 weeks.  **Intervention**: Two capsules of probiotics (Lactobacillus rhamnosus GR-1 and Lactobacillus reuteri RC-14) orally daily for 12 weeks at 23-25 weeks' gestation. | Probiotics versus placebo:   * GBS colonisation at 35-37 weeks: 9/57 vs 12/56 |  |
| Wickens et al 2017237  New Zealand | Intervention 212  Control 211 | **Aim**: To assess whether supplementation with the probiotic Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 (HN001) can reduce the prevalence of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).  **Population**: Pregnant women with a personal or partner history of atopic disease.  **Intervention**: Women were randomised at 14-16 weeks' gestation to receive HN001 (6x109 colony-forming units) or placebo daily. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 15/184 vs 26/189 * Caesarean section: 57/206 vs 51/201 * Preterm birth <37 weeks: 16/205 vs 8/201 * Macrosomia >4,000g: 46/205 vs 32/202 |  |

1. Q4 Summary of RCTs included in the probiotics meta-analysis

| **Reference** | **Population** | **Probiotic** | **Timing** | **Duration** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Abrahamsson et al 2007246  Sweden | Women with a fetus at risk of allergies; n=232 | *Lactobacillus reuteri* | From 36 weeks until birth | 4 weeks |
| Badehnoosh et al 2018243  Iran | Women with GDM; n=60 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus, Lactobacillus casei, Bifidobacterium bifidum* (2x109 cfu/g each) | From week 24-28 | 6 weeks |
| Boyle et al 2011247  Australia | Women with a fetus at risk of allergies; n=250 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosis* GG | 36 weeks until birth | 4 weeks |
| Callaway et al 2019228  Australia | Women with BMI ≥25; n=411 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* (LGG), *Bifidobacterium animalis* subspecies *lactis* (BB-12) (>1x109 cfu/day) | From week 20 until birth | 20 weeks |
| Dolatkhah et al 2015244  Iran | Women with GDM; n=64 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus* LA-5, *Bifidobacterium* *animalis* BB-12, *Streptococcus thermophiles* STY-31 and *Lactobacillus delbrueckii bulgaricus* LBY-27) (>4x109 cfu) | From week 24-28+6 until birth | 8 weeks |
| Dotterud et al 2010252  Norway | Healthy pregnant women; n=415 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG, *Lactobacillus acidophilus* LA5, *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp *lactis* BB-12 | 36 weeks until birth | 4 weeks |
| Gille et al 2016229  Germany | Healthy pregnant women; n=205 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1and *Lactobacillus reuteri* RC-14 (109 cfu) | From week 12 | 8 weeks |
| Ho et al 2016230  Taiwan | Women colonised with Group B streptococcus; n=99 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR1, *Lactobacillus reuteri* RC14 | From week 37 until birth | 3 weeks |
| Husain et al 2019231  United Kingdom | Healthy pregnant women; n=238 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1, *Lactobacillus reuteri* RC-14 (2.5x109 cfu each) | From week 9-14 until birth | 26-31 weeks |
| Jafarnejad et al 2016245  Iran | Women with GDM; n=82 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus, Lactobacillus plantarum, Lactobacillus paracasei, Lactobacillus delbrueckii bulgaricus, Bifidobacterium breve, Bifidobacterium longum, Bifidobacterium infantis, Streptococcus thermophilus* | From mean gestational age 26.4 weeks until birth | 8 weeks |
| Kalliomaki et al 2001248  Finland | Women carrying a fetus at risk of atopic disease; n=159 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG | From week 36-38 until birth | 2-4 weeks |
| Karamali et al 2016242  Iran | Women with GDM; n=60 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus, Lactobacillus casei, Bifidobacterium bifidum* (2x109 cfu) | From 24-28 weeks until birth | 6 weeks |
| Kim et al 2010249  Korea | Women with a fetus at risk of allergies; n=112 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus* AD031*, Bifidobacterium bifidum* BGN4, *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp *lactis* AD011 | From 32 weeks until birth | 8 weeks |
| Krauss-Silva et al 2011239  Brazil | Healthy pregnant women; n=644 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR1 *Lactobacillus reuteri* RC14 | From week 12 until week 24-26 | 6-12 weeks |
| Laitinen et al 2009240  Finland | Healthy pregnant women; n=256 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG (1010 cfu) and *Bifidobacterium lactis* BB12 (1010 cfu) | From mean gestational week 13.9 until birth | 26 weeks |
| Lindsay et al 2014236  Ireland | Pregnant women with BMI ≥30; n=165 | *Lactobacillus salivarius* UCC118 (109 cfu) | From week 24-28 until birth | 12-16 weeks |
| Lindsay et al 2015241  Ireland | Women with GDM; n=149 | *Lactobacillus salivarius* UCC118 (109 cfu) | From mean week 31.5 until birth | 8.5 weeks |
| Mastromarino et al 2015238  Italy | Healthy pregnant women; n=67 | *Lactobacillus acidophilus, Lactobacillus plantarum, Lactobacillus paracasei, Lactobacillus delbrueckii bulgaricus, Bifidobacterium breve, Bifidobacterium longum, Bifidobacterium infantis, Streptococcus thermophilus* | From week 36 until birth | 4 weeks |
| Niers et al 2009250  Netherlands | Women carrying a fetus at risk of allergy; n=156 | *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp *lactis* W52, *Bifidobacterium bifidum* W23*, Lactobacillis lactis* W58 | From 34 weeks until birth | 6 weeks |
| Okesene-Gafa et al 2019232  New Zealand | Women with BMI ≥30; n=230 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG, *Bifidobacterium lactis* BB12 (minimum 6.5 x 109 cfu) | From week 12-176 until birth | 22-28 weeks |
| Olsen et al 2018235  Australia | Women with GBS colonisation at 37 weeks | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1 (GR- 1) and *Lactobacillus fermentum/reuteri* RC-14 (RC-14) | From week 37 to birth | 3 weeks |
| Pellonpera et al 2019233  Finland | Healthy pregnant women; n=219 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* HN001, *Bifidobacterium animalis ssp. lactis* 420 (1010 cfu) | From week 13.9±2.1 until birth | 26 weeks |
| Rautava et al 2012251  Finland | Women with a fetus at risk of allergies; n=241 | Group 1: *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* LPR, *Bifidobacterium longum* BL999 Group 2: *Lactobacillus paracasei* ST11, *Bifidobacterium longum* BL999 | From week 32 until birth | 8 weeks |
| Sharpe et al 2019234  Canada | Healthy pregnant women; n=113 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GR-1, *Lactobacillus reuteri* RC-14 | From week 23-25 | 12 weeks |
| Wickens et al 2017237  New Zealand | Women with a fetus at risk of allergies; n=408 | *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* HN001 | From week 14-16 until birth | 24-26 weeks |

# Physical activity advice

## **Q5**: What are the harms and benefits of physical activity during pregnancy?

### Background

The Guidelines currently recommend that women be advised that low- to moderate-intensity physical activity during pregnancy is associated with a range of health benefits and is not associated with adverse outcomes.

However, an Australian cross-sectional study found that fewer women participated in exercise during pregnancy (61%) compared to before pregnancy (87%) and that they exercised at a significantly lower frequency (p<0.05), intensity (p<0.05) and for a shorter time/duration (p<0.05).263

In a survey of regionally-based Australian women (n=142),264 around half of women (53%) reported receiving advice on exercise as part of antenatal care. However, the advice given was frequently inconsistent with evidence–based guidelines concerning frequency, intensity, duration and benefits and harms.

Systematic reviews have found that:

* barriers to physical activity were predominantly intrapersonal such as fatigue, lack of time and pregnancy discomforts, while enablers included maternal and fetal health benefits (intrapersonal), social support (interpersonal) and pregnancy-specific programs265
* barriers to participating in exercise were categorised as intrapersonal (pregnancy-related symptoms and limitations, time constraints, perceptions of already being active, lack of motivation and mother-child safety concerns), interpersonal (lack of advice and information and lack of social support) and environmental, organisational and policy barriers (adverse weather, lack of resources).266

An Irish cross-sectional study267 found that having the social opportunity to engage in exercise and being supported by partners were enablers. Identified barriers to participating in exercise were knowledge about safe activities during pregnancy, the physical capability and physical opportunity to carry out exercise, experiencing pain, a lack of time, having other children and working.

### Effect on physical fitness and risk of injury

A systematic review (26 RCTs) found low to high certainty evidence that exercise was associated with improved predicted/measured VO2 max (5 RCTs, n=430; MD 2.77 mL/kg/min; 95%CI 0.32 to 5.21), reduced resting heart rate (9 RCTs, n=637; MD -1.71 bpm; 95%CI -3.24 to -0.19), resting systolic blood pressure (16 RCTs, n=1,672; MD −2.11 mmHg, 95% CI −3.71 to −0.51) and diastolic blood pressure (15 RCTs, n=1,624; MD −1.77 mmHg, 95%CI −2.90 to −0.64).

Six RCTs268-273 assessed physical fitness and were consistent in finding an improvement.

A small cohort study (n=1,469) found that rates of exercise-related injuries were low (4.1 per 1,000 exercise hours), that most exercise-related injuries occurred during walking (57.1%) and the most common types of injuries were bruises or scrapes (55%).274

### Effect on quality of life

RCTs assessing quality of life among women who had participated in an exercise program were inconsistent in their findings. Two RCTs found higher summary scores for physical and mental health summaries of the SF36.275,276 One found no influence on women’s psychological wellbeing and self-perceived general health,277 one found that exercise contributed to improvements in some variables related to maternal well-being and quality of life278 and another that exercise during pregnancy improves health-related quality of life.279

### Effect on common conditions in pregnancy

#### Incontinence

A Cochrane review280 found that pelvic floor muscle training among continent women during pregnancy reduced the risk of incontinence in late pregnancy (RR 0.38; 95%CI 0.20 to 0.72; 6 studies; n=624; low certainty) and at 3-6 months postpartum (RR 0.71; 95%CI 0.54 to 0.95; 5 studies; n=673; moderate certainty). Among women with or without incontinence, there was a reduction in risk of urinary incontinence in late pregnancy (RR 0.74; 95%CI 0.61 to 0.90; 9 studies; n=3,164; low certainty), 3-6 months postpartum (RR 0.73; 95%CI 0.55 to 0.97; 5 studies; n=1,921; very low certainty) but not at 6-12 months postpartum (RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.14; 2 studies; n=244; low certainty). There was no clear difference in faecal incontinence in late pregnancy among women with or without faecal incontinence at baseline (RR 0.61; 95%CI 0.30 to 1.25; 2 studies; n=867; moderate certainty).

Another systematic review281 found low to moderate certainty evidence that prenatal pelvic floor muscle training with or without aerobic exercise decreased the odds of urinary incontinence in pregnancy (15 RCTs, n=2,764 women; OR 0.50, 95%CI 0.37 to 0.68). On further analysis, exercise was beneficial at preventing the development of urinary incontinence in women with continence but not in treating incontinence. There was 'low' certainty evidence that prenatal exercise had a moderate effect in the reduction of urinary incontinence symptom severity (5 RCTs, SMD -0.54, 95%CI -0.88 to -0.20).

#### Pelvic girdle and low back pain

A systematic review that grouped low back, pelvic girdle and lumbopelvic pain as a single outcome282 found that exercise during pregnancy was associated with a possible reduction in the likelihood of pain during pregnancy (OR 0.78; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.02; 13 studies; very low to moderate certainty) but the difference in the postpartum period was unclear (OR 0.89; 95%CI 0.51 to 1.56; 4 studies; very low to moderate certainty). There appeared to be a reduction in severity of pain during pregnancy (SMD 1.03; 95%CI -1.58 to -0.48; 10 studies; very low to moderate certainty).

A systematic review that reported outcomes separately283 found a possible reduction in low back pain (RR 0.91, 95%CI 0.83 to 0.99; 7 studies; n=1,175) and lumbopelvic pain (RR 0.96, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.02; 8 studies; n=1,737) associated with exercise but no clear difference in risk of pelvic girdle pain (RR 0.99, 95%CI 0.81 to 1.21; 4 studies, n=565).

An RCT (n=42)284 found that exercise during pregnancy had a beneficial effect on the severity of lumbopelvic pain.

A cohort study (n=3,482)285 found that women who exercised one or two times a week had a lower risk of low back pain (aOR 0.80, 95% CI 0.66 to 0.97) but not pelvic girdle pain (aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.72 to 1.07), while women who exercised three or more times a week had a lower risk of pelvic girdle pain (aOR: 0.76, 95%CI 0.61 to 0.96) but not low back pain (aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.68 to 1.02).

#### Anaemia

A small RCT (n=142)286 found higher third trimester iron levels among women who participated in an exercise program in pregnancy (p=0.007). There were no clear differences in second trimester iron levels or in haemoglobin concentration in either trimester.

#### Sleep quality

A systematic review (7 RCTs)287 found that, compared with women who did not exercise, regularly exercising women had significantly enhanced sleep quality (OR 6.21, 95%CI 2.02 to 19.11; p=0.001; SMD -0.93 (95%CI -1.19 to -0.67; p<0.001). However, exercising women showed no significant improvement in insomnia (SMD -2.85, 95% CI -7.67 to 1.98; p=0.250) relative to women who did not exercise.

Two RCTs investigated the association between exercise in pregnancy and sleep quality. One suggested that sleep quality was improved with moderate-intensity aquatic exercise (n=134) 288 and the other (n=132) 289 found a significant attenuation of the worsening of several sleep characteristics, such as restless sleep, snoring, diurnal tiredness, and excessive daytime sleepiness. A cohort study (n=138) 290 suggested a weak association between physical activity and sleep in pregnant women.

### Effect on labour

#### Duration of labour

One systematic review291 and eleven RCTs292-302 reported on duration of labour among women who had participated in a physical activity intervention during pregnancy and those who had not. The systematic review found no clear difference in length of the first (MD 2.00; 95%CI -1.15 to 5.15; 1 study; n=18) or second stage (MD ‑5.72; 95%CI -15.22 to 3.78; 1 study; n=18) stage of labour 291. While some RCTs found that women who had participated in exercise had a shorter first stage of labour,294,295,300-302 second stage of labour298,301 and a shorter total duration of labour,294,301 most found no clear difference in duration of any stage of labour.

#### Pain during labour

Five RCTs292,298-300,303 reported on pain relief during labour among women who had participated in a physical activity intervention during pregnancy and those who had not. One study reported fewer requests for analgesia (RR 0.42; 95%CI 0.23 to 0.77) 292 but there was no clear difference in the other studies.

#### Perineal tears

Five RCTs273,297,298,304,305 reported on perineal tears among women who had participated in a physical activity intervention during pregnancy and those who had not. One study found higher rates of intact perineum among the intervention group (aOR 8.57; 95% CI 1.85 to 39.68)305 but there was no clear difference in rates of perineal tears in any other study.

### Effect on the infant and child

#### Congenital anomaly

A systematic review306 found that exercise did not increase the odds of congenital anomalies (OR 1.23, 95%CI 0.77 to 1.95; 14 studies; n=78,735; very low certainty).

#### Birth weight

Two cohort studies reported on the association between regular exercise during pregnancy and fetal growth. A large Norwegian study (n=36,896)307 found that exercising more than 3 times a week reduced the risk of macrosomia among nulliparous women (aOR 0.77; 95%CI 0.61 to 0.96). A smaller study in the United States (n=2,245)308 found that compared to women who exercised both before and during pregnancy, women who exercised before but not during pregnancy had an increased risk of low birth weight (1,500 to 2,499 g) (OR 1.28; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.56) and very low birth weight (<1,500 g) (OR 2.05; 95%CI 1.69 to 2.48) and women who did not exercise before or during pregnancy had an increased risk of very low birth weight (OR 1.75; 95%CI 1.50 to 2.04).

#### Childhood weight

A small cohort study (n=802)309 found no association between maternal leisure time physical activity and childhood adiposity.

#### Child neurodevelopment

A systematic review of one RCT and five cohort studies310 reported that the cohort studies found a positive association between physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment, while the RCT did not.

### Summary

There is a possible increase in physical fitness associated with exercise in pregnancy and rates of injury appear to be low. The evidence on the effect on quality of life suggests an improvement with physical activity.

Pelvic floor muscle exercises appear to reduce the risk of urinary incontinence but do not appear to affect the risk of faecal incontinence.

There is evidence from systematic reviews, an RCT and a cohort study of a possible reduction in risk of low back and lumbopelvic pain and a reduction in severity of pain during pregnancy. The evidence on the effect of exercise on pelvic girdle pain and pain in the postpartum period is unclear.

Moderate to vigorous exercise during pregnancy appears to improve sleep quality but is not effective in treating insomnia in pregnancy.

There is no clear difference in the duration of labour, pain during labour or perineal tears between women who exercise during pregnancy and those who don’t, although some RCTs have reported a shorter duration of labour and fewer requests for analgesia among women who exercised during pregnancy.

There is no clear association between leisure-time exercise during pregnancy and congenital anomaly and it appears to be protective against macrosomia and low birth weight. It does not appear to affect childhood weight but cohort studies suggest a positive association between physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment.

### Evidence tables

#### Physical fitness and quality of life

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and physical fitness — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Kramer et al 2006291 | 9 studies | **Aim**: To assess the effects of advising healthy pregnant women to engage in regular aerobic exercise (at least two to three times per week), or to increase or reduce the intensity, duration, or frequency of such exercise, on physical fitness, the course of labour and delivery, and the outcome of pregnancy.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group’s Trials Register (31 August 2009), MEDLINE (1966 to August 2009), EMBASE (1980 to August 2009), Conference Papers Index (earliest to August 2009), contacted researchers in the field and searched reference lists of retrieved articles. | Of the nine trials reporting on the effect of aerobic exercise during pregnancy on physical fitness, six reported significant improvement in physical fitness in the exercise group, although inconsistencies in summary statistics and measures used to assess fitness prevented quantitative pooling of results. |  |
| Cai et al 2020311 | 26 RCTs | **Aim:** To examine the influence of prenatal exercise on maternal cardiorespiratory health and fitness during pregnancy.  **Methods:** Online databases were searched up to February 25, 2019. Studies of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) were eligible, which contained information on the relevant population (pregnant women), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume, or type of exercise), comparator (no exercise intervention), and outcomes (maternal cardiorespiratory fitness [CRF], including VO2max, submaximal VO2, VO2 at anaerobic threshold, and cardiorespiratory health, including resting heart rate, resting systolic and diastolic blood pressure during pregnancy). | Low to high certainty evidence revealed that exercise was associated with improved predicted/measured VO2 max (5 RCTs, n=430; MD 2.77 mL/kg/min; 95%CI 0.32 to 5.21), reduced resting heart rate (9 RCTs, n=637; MD -1.71 bpm; 95%CI -3.24 to -0.19), resting systolic blood pressure (16 RCTs, n=1,672; MD −2.11 mmHg, 95% CI −3.71 to −0.51) and diastolic blood pressure (15 RCTs, n=1,624; MD −1.77 mmHg, 95%CI −2.90 to −0.64). |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and physical fitness — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Halvorsen et al 2013268  Norway | Intervention 34  Control 28 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effectiveness of aerobic dance on cardiorespiratory fitness in pregnant women.  **Population**: Primiparous women with a mean age of 30.6±3.7 years  **Intervention** Two aerobic dance classes per week and 30 minutes of daily self-imposed physical activity for 12 weeks. | Intervention vs control:   * VO2 (mL/kg/minute at 1.5 mmol above resting blood lactate levels) post-intervention: 24.5±3.8 vs 24.5±2.5 |  |
| Bisson et al 2015269  Canada | Intervention 23  Control 22 | **Aim**: To evaluate whether a 12-week supervised exercise program promotes an active lifestyle throughout pregnancy in pregnant women with obesity.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI ≥30 kg/m2) and a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Stationary cycling, treadmill, muscle strengthening; 60 min 3 times a week from week 15 to 27 * *Intensity*: Moderate; 70% HR or perceived exertion score of 3-5/10 | Intervention (n=22) vs control (n=22):   * Change in VO2 AT (oxygen uptake at the anaerobic threshold): 1.6±13.3 vs -6.5±9.9; MD 8.1; (%%CI 0.7 to 9.5; p<0.05 |  |
| de Oliveria Melo et al 2012270  Brazil | Intervention 13 weeks 62  Intervention 20 weeks 63  Control 62  3-armed; control group halved | **Aim**: To estimate the effect of supervised physical exercise on maternal physical fitness, fetoplacental blood flow, and fetal growth.  **Population**: healthy pregnant women who were sedentary at admission to the study, gestational age 13 weeks with an uncomplicated singleton pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; 15 min walking, 3 times weekly, increasing according to woman’s ability from 13 weeks (Group A) or 20 weeks (Group B) until birth * *Intensity*: Moderate; 60-80% maximum HR; Borg scale 12-16 | Intervention (initiated at 13 weeks; n=62) vs control (n=31):   * VO2 max (maximal oxygen consumption) at 28 weeks: 27.3±4.3 vs 25.5±3.8   Intervention (initiated at 20 weeks; n=63) vs control (n=31)   * VO2 max (maximal oxygen consumption) at 28 weeks: 28.0±3 vs 25.5±3.8 |  |
| Guelfi et al 2016271  Australia  NCT01283854 | Intervention 84  Control 85 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of a supervised home-based exercise program on the recurrence and severity of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) together with other aspects of maternal health and obstetric and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Women with a history of gestational diabetes. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling 20-60 min, 3 times a week for 14 weeks from 13±1 weeks * *Intensity*: Moderate; 75–85% maximum HR; Borg scale 14–16. | Intervention vs control:   * Oxygen consumption [L/min] at 75% maximum heart rate: 1.65±0.38 vs 1.52±0.24; p<0.01 |  |
| Hopkins et al 2010;272  New Zealand | Intervention 47  Control 37 | **Aim**: to determine the effects of aerobic exercise training in the second half of pregnancy on maternal insulin sensitivity and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Healthy nulliparous women (age, 30±4 yr; BMI 25.5±4 kg/m2).  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 40 min, up to 5 times a week * *Intensity*: Moderate; 65% of predicted capacity. | Intervention vs control:   * Peak VO2: 20.0±3.5 vs 18.7±3.3; p<0.01 |  |
| Seneviratne et al 2016273  New Zealand | Intervention 37  Control 37 | **Aim:** To assess whether antenatal exercise in overweight/obese women would improve maternal and perinatal outcomes.  **Population:** Pregnant women with body mass index ≥25 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 25-45 min, 3-5 times a week depending on stage of pregnancy, from week 25 to 35. * *Intensity*: Moderate (40–59% VO2 reserve). | Intervention vs control:   * Change in fitness test time (seconds): 31.6±88.4 vs -12.6±69.1; p=0.19 * Change in test work load: 4.6±15.3 vs -3.6±12.2; p=0.019 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and quality of life — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Rodriguez-Blanque et al 2020275  SWEP  NCT02761967 | Intervention 65  Control 64 | **Aim**: To analyse the quality of life in pregnancy for women who complete a programme of moderate physical activity in water.  **Population**: **H**ealthy pregnant women with uncomplicated singleton pregnancies.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Intervention*: Aerobic and muscle strengthening exercises in water for 60 minutes 3 times/week from weeks 20 to 37. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14 | Intervention vs control at 35 weeks:   * SF36v2 physical component summary: 49.79±4.59 vs45.39±4.21; p group=0.001 * SF36v2 mental health component summary: 42.57±5.16 vs 39.2±4.16; p group =0.016. |  |
| Prabha et al 2019276 | Intervention 84  Control 86 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of structured antenatal exercise program and education on health-related quality of life.  **Population**:Healthy women aged 21-36 years, gestational age >20 weeks.  **Intervention**: Deep breathing exercises, pelvic floor exercise, neck exercises, arm and leg exercises, trunk exercises, pelvic tilting exercises, relaxation technique, Stretching exercise for low back, calf, adductors, wall exercises, Floor exercises for stretching hamstrings, low back, adductors (8-10 repetitions with the duration of 15-20 minutes; 3-5 times a week). | Intervention vs control at 32 weeks:   * SF36 physical component summary: 52.25±5.75 vs 49.97±6.92 * SF36v2 mental health component summary: 46.07±7.05 vs 43.02±5.61 |  |
| Gustafsson et al 2016277  Norway | 855 | **Aim**: To investigate whether a customised exercise programme influences pregnant women's psychological wellbeing and general health perception reflecting health-related quality of life (HRQoL) in late pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy Caucasian pregnant women.  **Intervention**: The intervention group was offered a 12-week exercise programme between 20 and 36 weeks of pregnancy. One weekly group session was led by physiotherapists, in addition women were encouraged to follow a home exercise programme at least twice a week. The exercise programme followed standard recommendations and included both aerobic and strength training. | Intervention vs control:   * PGWBI index at 32-36 weeks: 79.5 (78.5 to 80.6) vs 78.5 (77.5 to 79.6)   Higher score indicates a better outcome. |  |
| Montoya arizabaleta et al 2010279  Colombia | Intervention 24  Control 26 | **Aim**: To determine whether supervised aerobic exercise during pregnancy improves health-related quality of life.  **Population**: Nulliparous women aged 16-30 years between 16 and 20 weeks of gestation.  **Intervention**: The experimental group completed a 3-month supervised exercise program, commencing at 16 to 20 weeks of gestation. Each session included walking (10 min), aerobic exercise (30 min), stretching (10 min), and relaxation (10 min). | Difference between groups in improvement in health-related quality of life:   * Physical component: 6 points (2 to 11) * Physical function: 7 points (0 to 14) * Bodily pain: 7 points (1 to 13) * General health: 5 points (1 to 10) |  |
| Haakstad et al 2016278  Norway | Intervention 52  Control 53 | **Aim**: to examine the effects of supervised group exercise on maternal psychological outcomes and commonly reported pregnancy complaints.  **Population**: Sedentary, nulliparous pregnant women, mean age 30.7±4.0 years, pre-pregnancy BMI 23.8±4.3 at mean gestation week 17.7±4.2.  **Intervention**: the intervention included a 60 minutes general fitness class, with 40 minutes of endurance training/aerobic and 20 minutes of strength training and stretching/relaxation, performed at least twice per week for a minimum of 12 weeks. | Intervention vs control:   * Quality of life: 4.43±0.6 vs 4.28±0.7; p=0.3 |  |

#### Injury

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and injury — cohort study

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Vladutiu et al 2010274  United States | 1,469  Cohort | **Aim:** To conduct population-based research on the circumstances surrounding injuries from physical activity during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Physical activity and subsequent injuries among a cohort of 1469 pregnant women in North Carolina were examined prospectively from the third phase of the Pregnancy, Infection, and Nutrition Study between 2001 and 2005. Chi-square analyses were used to compare distributions of maternal characteristics among women who sustained injuries from physical activity and women who reported no injuries during pregnancy. Injury incidence rates were calculated. | Number of injuries:   * Physical activity-related injuries: 3.2 per 1,000 physical activity hours * Exercise-related injuries: 4.1 per 1,000 exercise hours   The most common types of injuries were bruises or scrapes (55%).  Exercise-related injuries occurred during walking (57.1%) or other exercise (42.9%) |  |

#### Common conditions in pregnancy

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and incontinence — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Woodley et al 2017280 | 38 studies | **Aim:** To determine the effectiveness of pelvic floor muscle training (PFMT) in the prevention or treatment of urinary and faecal incontinence in pregnant or postnatal women.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Incontinence Specialised Register (16 February 2017) and reference lists of retrieved studies. | Intervention vs control in continent women:   * urinary incontinence in late pregnancy: RR 0.38 (0.20 to 0.72); 6 trials, 624 women; low-certainty evidence * urinary incontinence in the mid-postnatal period (more than three to six months’ postpartum): RR 0.71 (0.54 to 0.95); 5 trials, 673 women; moderate-certainty evidence   Intervention vs control among women with or without incontinence   * Urinary incontinence in late pregnancy: RR 0.74 (0.61 to 0.90); 9 trials, n=3,164; low-certainty * Urinary incontinence in the mid-postnatal period: RR 0.73 (0.55 to 0.97); 5 trials, n=1,921; very low-certainty * Urinary incontinence late postpartum (6-12 months): RR 0.85 (0.63 to 1.14); 2 trials, n=244; low-certainty   Intervention vs control among women with or without faecal incontinence:   * faecal incontinence in late pregnancy (RR 0.61 (0.30 to 1.25); 2 trials, n=867; moderate-certainty |  |
| Davenport et al 2018281 | 24 studies  15,982 women | **Aim**: To examine the relationships between prenatal physical activity and prenatal and postnatal urinary incontinence (UI).  **Methods**: Systematic review with random effects meta-analysis and meta-regression. Online databases were searched up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were included (except case studies) if they were published in English, Spanish or French and contained information on the Population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), Intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise, alone ["exercise-only"] or in combination with other intervention components [e.g., dietary; "exercise + co-intervention"]), Comparator (no exercise or different frequency, intensity, duration, volume and type of exercise) and Outcome (prenatal or postnatal UI). | 'Low' to 'moderate' certainty evidence revealed prenatal pelvic floor muscle training (PFMT) with or without aerobic exercise decreased the odds of UI in pregnancy (15 RCTs, n=2,764 women; OR 0.50, 95%CI 0.37 to 0.68). When we analysed the data by whether women were continent or incontinent prior to the intervention, exercise was beneficial at preventing the development of UI in women with continence, but not effective in treating UI in women with incontinence.  There was 'low' certainty evidence that prenatal exercise had a moderate effect in the reduction of UI symptom severity (5 RCTs, SMD -0.54, 95%CI -0.88 to -0.20). |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Davenport et al 2019a282 | 32 studies  52,297 | **Aim**: To investigate the relationship between prenatal exercise, and low back (LBP), pelvic girdle (PGP) and lumbopelvic (LBPP) pain.  **Methods**: Online databases were searched up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were eligible (except case studies and reviews) if they were published in English, Spanish or French, and contained information on the population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise, alone ["exercise-only"] or in combination with other intervention components [eg, dietary; "exercise + co-intervention"]), comparator (no exercise or different frequency, intensity, duration, volume and type of exercise) and outcome (prevalence and symptom severity of LBP, PGP and LBPP). | 'Very low' to 'moderate' certainty evidence from RCTS showed prenatal exercise alone did not reduce the odds of experiencing LBP, PGP and LBPP either in pregnancy (OR 0.78; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.02; 13 studies) or the postpartum period (OR 0.89; 95%CI 0.51 to 1.56; 4 studies).  However, 'very low' to 'moderate' certainty evidence identified lower pain severity during pregnancy in women who exercised during pregnancy (SMD ‑1.03; 95%CI -1.58 to -0.48) compared with those who did not exercise. |  |
| Shiri et al 2018283 | 11 studies  2,347 | **Aim**: to assess the effect of exercise on low back pain, pelvic girdle pain and associated sick leave.  **Methods**: Literature searches were conducted in PubMed, EMBASE, Cochrane Library, Google Scholar, ResearchGate and ClinicalTrials.gov databases from their inception through May 2017. RCTs were eligible for inclusion in the review if they compared an exercise intervention with usual daily activities and at least some of the participants were free from low back pain and/or pelvic girdle pain at baseline. Methodological quality of included studies was evaluated using the Cochrane Collaboration's tool. A random-effects meta-analysis was performed, and heterogeneity and publication bias were assessed. | * Low back pain in pregnancy: RR 0.91, 95%CI 0.83 to 0.99; 7 studies; n=1,175 * Pelvic girdle pain: RR 0.99, 95%CI 0.81 to 1.21; 4 studies, n=565 * Lumbopelvic pain: RR 0.96, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.02; 8 studies; n=1,737 * New episodes of sick leave due to lumbopelvic pain: RR 0.79, 95%CI 0.64 to 0.99; 3 studies; n=1,168 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sklempe Kokic et al 2017284  Croatia | Intervention 20  Control 22 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of a supervised, structured exercise programme on the occurrence and severity of pregnancy-related lumbopelvic pain.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women and women with mild gestational diabetes controlled by lifestyle measures.  **Intervention**: Aerobic and resistance exercises performed bi-weekly from the date of inclusion into the study until the end of pregnancy, together with at least 30 min of brisk daily walks. | There were significant differences between the 2 groups on the numeric rating scale, PGQ and RMDQ scores in the 36th week of pregnancy (p = 0.017; p = 0.005; p < 0.001, respectively) in favour of the intervention group. |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pelvic girdle/low back pain — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Gjestland et al 2013285  Norway | 3,482 women | **Aim**: To investigate the association between exercise in mid-pregnancy and subsequent low-back pain, pelvic girdle pain and depression at 32 weeks of pregnancy.  **Methods**: The study included pregnant women participating in the Akershus Birth Cohort study (response rate 80.5%). Data were collected by a questionnaire in pregnancy weeks 17-21, pregnancy week 32 and electronic birth journal. The results were analysed by logistic regression and are presented as crude (cOR) and adjusted OR (aOR) with 95% CI. | Women who exercised ≥3 times a week vs women who exercised <1 time a week:   * Pelvic girdle pain: aOR: 0.76, 95%CI 0.61 to 0.96 * Low back pain: aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.68 to 1.02   Women exercising 1-2 times a week vs women who exercised <1 time a week:   * Pelvic girdle pain: aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.72 to 1.07 * Low-back pain: aOR 0.80, 95% CI 0.66 to 0.97 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and anaemia — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Barakat et al 2009286  Spain | Intervention 72  Control 70 | **Aim**: to examine the effect of light intensity resistance exercise training performed during the second and third trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy sedentary pregnant women; mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Resistance; Toning and joint mobilisation; 35-40 min 3 times a week from weeks 12-13 to 38-39. * *Intensity*: Light; ≤80% of age-predicted maximum HR | Mean haemoglobin concentration (g/dL) intervention vs control:   * 2nd trimester: 11.9±7.3 vs 11.7±7.0; p=0.132 * 3rd trimester: 12.2±8.2 vs 11.9±7.7; p=0.070   Mean iron level (μg/dL) intervention vs control:   * 2nd trimester: 76.5±31.1 vs 68.5±25.7; p=0.097 * 3rd trimester: 83.4±27.7 vs 71.9±21.8; p=0.007 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Yang et al 2020287 | 7 RCTs | **Aim**: To assess the effects of a specific exercise program on the sleep quality in pregnant women.  **Methods**: Searches were executed in seven databases since their inceptions until February 28, 2019, for randomized controlled trials evaluating the effects of an exercise program on the sleep quality and insomnia in pregnant women. A random-effects model was applied for meta-analysis, and odds ratio, mean differences (MDs), and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) are shown as parts of outcomes. | Compared with their not-exercising counterparts, analyses showed that regularly exercising women had significantly enhanced sleep quality (OR 6.21, 95% CI 2.02 to 19.11; p=0.001;  SMD -0.93 (95%CI -1.19 to -0.67; p<0.001).  However, exercising women showed no significant insomnia improvement (SMD -2.85, 95% CI -7.67 to 1.98; p =0.250), relative to their not-exercising counterparts. |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Kocsis et al 2017289  Romania | Intervention 79  Control 53 | **Aim**: to investigate the effect of a regular, specific, medium-term physical training program on sleep characteristics in healthy pregnant women.  **Population**: healthy pregnant women, with gestational age between 18 weeks and 22 weeks.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Muscle strengthening, relaxation; 2 hours twice a week for 10 weeks. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Interventions vs control:   * the same general pattern of decrease in sleep quality, which is related to the progression of pregnancy * a significant attenuation of the worsening of several sleep characteristics, such as restless sleep, snoring, diurnal tiredness, and excessive daytime sleepiness.   Nocturnal and diurnal sleep quantity increased significantly in both groups. | Non-randomised; data only presented as figures |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and sleep — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Loprinzi et al 2012290  United States | 138  Cohort | **Aim**: to examine the association between objectively-measured physical activity and sleep among a nationally representative sample of U.S. pregnant women.  **Methods**: Data from the National Health and Examination Survey 2005-2006 was used for the present study. Pregnant women who had worn an accelerometer on the right hip for at least 4 days for a minimum of 10 h per day were identified. Questions on sleep were asked during a household interview. | For every 1-min increase in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity, pregnant women were 17% less likely to have difficulty finishing a meal because of being tired or sleepy (OR 1.17; 95%CI 0.98 to 1.38; p=0.06). |  |

#### Labour

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and duration of labour — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Kramer et al 2006291 | 1 study  n=18 | **Aim**: To assess the effects of advising healthy pregnant women to engage in regular aerobic exercise (at least two to three times per week), or to increase or reduce the intensity, duration, or frequency of such exercise, on physical fitness, the course of labour and delivery, and the outcome of pregnancy.  **Methods**: We searched the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Group’s Trials Register (31 August 2009), MEDLINE (1966 to August 2009), EMBASE (1980 to August 2009), Conference Papers Index (earliest to August 2009), contacted researchers in the field and searched reference lists of retrieved articles. | Intervention vs control increase in exercise in sedentary women:   * First stage of labour: MD 2.00 (-1.15 to 5.15) * Second stage of labour: MD -5.72 (-15.22 to 3.78) |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and duration of labour — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Baciuk et al 2008;292 Cavalcante et al 2009312  Brazil | Intervention 34  Control: 37 | **Aim**: To evaluate the association between water aerobics, maternal cardiovascular capacity during pregnancy, labour and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Women of < 20 weeks of pregnancy with a singleton pregnancy and no gestational risk factors. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Aquatic; 50 min 3 times a week from <20 wks to birth * *Intensity*: Moderate 70% predicted HR | Intervention vs control:   * Length of labour: 457.9±249.6 vs 428.9±203.2 p=0.69 |  |
| Barakat et al 2008;293 Barakat et al 2009a;313 Barakat et al 2009b;303  Spain  NCT00813657 | Intervention 72  Control 70 | **Aim**: to examine the effect of light intensity resistance exercise training performed during the second and third trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy sedentary pregnant women; mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Resistance; Toning and joint mobilisation; 35-40 min 3 times a week from weeks 12-13 to 38-39. * *Intensity*: Light; ≤80% of age-predicted maximum HR | Intervention vs control:   * Dilation time (min): 426±20 vs 378±13 p>0.1 * Expulsion time (min): 32.5±24.7 vs 36.0±31.5 p>0.1 * Childbirth time (min): 8.1±2.3 vs 7.7±1.7 p>0.1 |  |
| Barakat et al 2018294  Spain  NCT02109588 | Intervention 176  Control 149 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of an exercise program throughout pregnancy on the duration of labour.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Aquatic; 50-55-min 3 times a week, from weeks 9-11 to 38–39 * *Intensity*: Moderate, HR<70%; Borg 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * First stage of labour: 409.15+185.74 vs 462.83±208.37 p=0.01 * Second stage of labour: 33.23±22.53 vs 36.21±25.93 p=0.68 * Cumulative first and second stage of labour: 442.37±188.72 vs 499.04±215.84 p=0.01 * Third stage of labour: 8.37±2.16 vs 8.14±1.86 p=0.66 * Total duration of labour: 450.74±188.64 vs 507.19±216.06 p=0.01 |  |
| Perales et al 2016a295  Spain | Intervention 83  Control 83 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of moderate physical exercise throughout pregnancy on the duration of labour stages.  **Population**: Pregnant women (31.6±3.8 years) with uncomplicated and singleton pregnancies. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 9-11 to 39-40. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * Stage 1 (min): 399.1±322.1 vs 537.4±409.3 p=0.01 * Stage 2 (min): 40.6±42.8 vs 37.4±44.7 p=0.87 * Stage 3 (min) 8±7.7 vs 8.8±7 p=0.46 |  |
| Perales et al 2016b296  Spain  NCT01723098 | Intervention 83  Control 59 | **Aim:** To examine the effects of pregnancy exercise on echocardiographic indicators of haemodynamics, cardiac remodelling, left ventricular function, and cardiovascular disease risk factors.  **Population**: Pregnant women with no obstetric complications, no serious medical condition preventing them from exercising safely,<16 wk gestation and not exercising regularly for more than 30 min on 3 d·wk−1. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 9-11 to 39-40. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * Dilation time (min): 360±309 vs 516±332; p>0.1 * Expulsion time (min): 98±73 vs 111±77; p>0.1 * Childbirth time (min): 6±4 vs 7±5; p>0.1 * Total duration of labour (min): 495±234 vs 656±360; p>0.1 |  |
| Perales et al 2020302 | Intervention 688  Control 660 | **Aim**: To study the influence of pregnancy exercise on maternal/offspring cardiometabolic health until delivery and at follow-up by pooling data from two randomised controlled trials that were performed following the same methodology (one unpublished).  **Population**: Sedentary women with a singleton uncomplicated pregnancy. BMI ≤25 kg/m2; BMI ≥25 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 50-55 min, 3 times a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; <60% of age-predicted maximum HR; Borg scale 10 to 12. | Intervention vs control:   * Duration of 1st stage of labour: 382±256 vs 430±501; p=0.039 * Duration of 2nd stage of labour: 45±50 vs 49±53; p=0.199 * Duration of 3rd stage of labour: 8±7 vs 9±11; p=0.060 |  |
| Salvesen et al 2004297  Norway | Intervention 111  Control 113 | **Aim**: To examine a possible effect on labour of training the muscles of the pelvic floor during pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy nulliparous women.  **Intervention**: A structured training programme with exercises for the pelvic floor muscles between the 20th and 36th week of pregnancy. | Intervention vs control   * First stage of labour: 260±349.4 vs 259±238.6; p=0.44 * Second stage of labour: 40±37.6 vs 45±38.0; p=0.06 |  |
| Salvesen et al 2014298  Norway | Intervention 427  Control 426 | **Aim**: To study effects of regular physical exercise in pregnancy on duration of the active phase of labour and the proportions of women with prolonged active second stage.  **Population**: Women >18 years with a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-70 min, 3 times a week from week 20 to 36 plus 45 min home exercise program at least twice a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 13-14. | Nulliparous women intervention (n=245) vs control (n=239)   * Duration of labour (min): 373±266 vs 377±373; p=0.90 * Duration of active second stage: 44±27 vs 38±24; p=0.03 * Prolonged active second stage: 41/208 (20%) vs 34/201 (17%)   Parous women intervention (n=182) vs control (n=187)   * Duration of labour (min): 182±158 vs 161±170; p=0.25 * Duration of active second stage: 16±14 vs 16±14; p=0.75 * Prolonged active second stage: 2/160 (1%) vs 4/157 (3%) |  |
| Taniguchi & Sato 2016299  Japan | Intervention 54  Control 53 | **Aim**: To examine the effects of home-based walking on sedentary women’s pregnancy outcomes and mood.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a healthy singleton pregnancy aged 20–30 years; sedentary in daily life by self-report; no physical, mental or social problems by self-report; no psychiatric drug use; in at least the 30th week of pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Walking; 30 min, 3 times a week from 30 weeks until birth. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention vs control:   * Duration of first stage of labour: 529.9±526.3 598.1±520.4; p=0.52 * Duration of second stage of labour (min): 41.4±99.5 30.3±19.0; p=0.44 * Duration of labour (min): 556.3±532.2 vs 627.8±525.3; p=0.51 |  |
| Rodriguez-Blanque et al 2018301  SWEP  NCT02761967 | Intervention 60  Control 60 | **Aim**: To determine the duration of labour in pregnant women who completed a program of moderate physical exercise in water and subsequently presented eutocic birth.  **Population**: **H**ealthy pregnant women with uncomplicated singleton pregnancies.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Intervention*: Aerobic and muscle strengthening exercises in water for 60 minutes 3 times/week from weeks 20 to 37. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * Duration of 1st stage of labour: 260.00 (137.50 to 390.000) vs 405 (295.00 to 498.75); p<0.001 * Duration of 2nd stage of labour: 90.00 (30.00 to 187.50) vs 152 (70.00 to 210.00); p=0.007 * Duration of 3rd stage of labour: 5.00 (5.00 to 10.00) vs 8.00 (5.00 to 10.00); p=0.383 * Average total duration of labour: 389.33±216.18 min vs 561.30±199.94 min; p<0.001 |  |
| Sanda et al 2018300  Fit for Delivery  Norway | Intervention 303  Control 303 | **Aim**: To present secondary analyses from the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomized controlled trial, aiming at studying the effect of a lifestyle intervention including group exercise classes, as well as the possible influence of physical activity level in late pregnancy, on labour outcomes.  **Population**: Pregnant women who were nulliparous, with a singleton pregnancy at ≤20 weeks of gestation, had a pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) of ≥19 kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Dietary counselling was performed by telephone, with an initial consultation and then a follow-up 4–6 weeks later, each of approximately 20 minutes. Counsellors were either experienced clinical dieticians or graduate students in public health.  Nutritional advice was based on recommendations from the Norwegian Directorate for Health with specific attention given to intake of fruits and vegetables, drinking water instead of drinks containing energy, regular meal patterns, and limiting consumption of snack foods and foods/drinks containing added sugar.  The physical activity component consisted of access to twice-weekly exercise classes at a local gym, all following the same pattern: 10 minutes of warm-up, 40 minutes of strength training and cardiovascular exercise at moderate intensity (using aerobics, calisthenics, and weight training), and 10 minutes of stretching. The intensity of the exercise was self-monitored using Borg’s scale with a target of 12-14. Classes were led by physical therapists or students in sports science. | Intervention vs control:   * duration of active labour: 322.7±166.8 vs 278.3±164.4; p=0.027 * duration of 1st stage of labour: 293.4±201.8 min vs 257.1±181.4 min, p=0.030 * duration of 2nd stage of labour: 69.5±43.4 vs 66.0±41.9; p=0.49 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and pain during labour — RCTs

| **Study ref** | | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Baciuk et al 2008;292 Cavalcante et al 2009312  Brazil | | Intervention 34  Control: 37 | **Aim**: To evaluate the association between water aerobics, maternal cardiovascular capacity during pregnancy, labour and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Women of < 20 weeks of pregnancy with a singleton pregnancy and no gestational risk factors. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Aquatic; 50 min 3 times a week from <20 wks to birth * *Intensity*: Moderate 70% predicted HR | Intervention vs control:   * Request for analgesia: 9/34 (27%) vs 24/37 (65%) RR 0.42 95%CI 0.23 to 0.77 |  |
| Barakat et al 2008;293 Barakat et al 2009a;313 Barakat et al 2009b;303  Spain  NCT00813657 | | Intervention 72  Control 70 | **Aim**: to examine the effect of light intensity resistance exercise training performed during the second and third trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy sedentary pregnant women; mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Resistance; Toning and joint mobilisation; 35-40 min 3 times a week from weeks 12-13 to 38-39. * *Intensity*: Light; ≤80% of age-predicted maximum HR | Intervention vs control:   * Epidural anaesthesia: 50/72 (69.4%) vs 48/70 (68.6%); p>0.1 |  |
| Salvesen et al 2014298  Norway | | Intervention 427  Control 426 | **Aim**: To study effects of regular physical exercise in pregnancy on duration of the active phase of labour and the proportions of women with prolonged active second stage.  **Population**: Women >18 years with a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-70 min, 3 times a week from week 20 to 36 plus 45 min home exercise program at least twice a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 13-14. | Epidural analgesia intervention vs control   * Nulliparous women: 87/239 (36%) vs 88/233 (38%); p=0.76 * Parous women: 34/177 (19%) vs 23/183 (13%); p=0.08 |  |
| Sanda et al 2018300  Fit for Delivery  Norway | Intervention 303  Control 303 | | **Aim**: To present secondary analyses from the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomized controlled trial, aiming at studying the effect of a lifestyle intervention including group exercise classes, as well as the possible influence of physical activity level in late pregnancy, on labour outcomes.  **Population**: Pregnant women who were nulliparous, with a singleton pregnancy at ≤20 weeks of gestation, had a pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) of ≥19 kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Dietary counselling was performed by telephone, with an initial consultation and then a follow-up 4–6 weeks later, each of approximately 20 minutes. Counsellors were either experienced clinical dieticians or graduate students in public health.  Nutritional advice was based on recommendations from the Norwegian Directorate for Health with specific attention given to intake of fruits and vegetables, drinking water instead of drinks containing energy, regular meal patterns, and limiting consumption of snack foods and foods/drinks containing added sugar.  The physical activity component consisted of access to twice-weekly exercise classes at a local gym, all following the same pattern: 10 minutes of warm-up, 40 minutes of strength training and cardiovascular exercise at moderate intensity (using aerobics, calisthenics, and weight training), and 10 minutes of stretching. The intensity of the exercise was self-monitored using Borg’s scale with a target of 12-14. Classes were led by physical therapists or students in sports science. | Intervention vs control:   * Epidural analgesia: 56/280 vs 76/287; p=0.068 * Fentanyl analgesia: 169/276 vs 168/282; p=0.69 |  |
| Taniguchi & Sato 2016299  Japan | | Intervention 54  Control 53 | **Aim**: To examine the effects of home-based walking on sedentary women’s pregnancy outcomes and mood.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a healthy singleton pregnancy aged 20–30 years; sedentary in daily life by self-report; no physical, mental or social problems by self-report; no psychiatric drug use; in at least the 30th week of pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Walking; 30 min, 3 times a week from 30 weeks until birth. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention vs control:   * Birth pain (VAS: 0–10 cm): 8.8±1.4 vs 8.5±1.7; p=0.37 |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and perineal tears — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Rodriguez-Blanque et al 2019305  SWEP  NCT02761967 | Intervention 65  Control 64 | **Aim**: To determine the effect of an aquatic physical exercise program performed during pregnancy on rate of intact perineum after childbirth.  **Population**: **H**ealthy pregnant women with uncomplicated singleton pregnancies.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Intervention*: Aerobic and muscle strengthening exercises in water for 60 minutes 3 times/week from weeks 20 to 37. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * intact perineum: aOR 8.57; 95% CI 1.85 to 39.68   Maternal weight gain did not influence the odds of intact perineum (OR 1.072, 95%CI 0.896 to 1.283).  Women who previously gave birth and followed the SWEP method had an OR of 10.197 (95% CI 2.190, 47.476 for an intact perineum.  The administration of anaesthesia and previous pregnancy also were associated with intact perineum (OR 6.68, 95%CI 1.21 to 36.84 and OR 5.42, 95%CI 1.64 to 17.89), respectively. |  |
| Salvesen et al 2004297  Norway | Intervention 111  Control 113 | **Aim**: To examine a possible effect on labour of training the muscles of the pelvic floor during pregnancy. DESIGN: Randomised controlled trial.  **Population**: Healthy nulliparous women.  **Intervention**: A structured training programme with exercises for the pelvic floor muscles between the 20th and 36th week of pregnancy. | Grade 3 and 4 perineal tears intervention vs control:   * 7/111 (6%) vs 9/113 (8%); p=0.64 |  |
| Salvesen et al 2014298  Norway | Intervention 427  Control 426 | **Aim**: To study effects of regular physical exercise in pregnancy on duration of the active phase of labour and the proportions of women with prolonged active second stage.  **Population**: Women >18 years with a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-70 min, 3 times a week from week 20 to 36 plus 45 min home exercise program at least twice a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 13-14. | Grade 3 and 4 perineal tears intervention vs control:   * Nulliparous women: 12/206 (6%) vs 12/207 (6%) p=0.99 * Parous women: 2/164 (1%) vs 4/164 (2%) p=0.41 |  |
| Seneviratne et al 2016273  New Zealand | Intervention 37  Control 37 | **Aim:** To assess whether antenatal exercise in overweight/obese women would improve maternal and perinatal outcomes.  **Population:** Pregnant women with body mass index ≥25 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 25-45 min, 3-5 times a week depending on stage of pregnancy, from week 25 to 35. * *Intensity*: Moderate (40–59% VO2 reserve). | Perineal tears intervention vs control:   * 6/37 (22%) vs 10/37 (35%); p=0.061 |  |
| Garnaes et al 2016;304 Garnaes et al 2017;314 Garnæs et al 2018315  Norway | Intervention 38  Control 36 | **Aim**: to assess whether regular supervised exercise training in pregnancy could reduce gestational weight gain in women with prepregnancy overweight/obesity.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a prepregnancy body mass index (BMI) ≥28 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Treadmill walking/jogging and muscle strengthening; 60 min, 3 times weekly plus 50 min home exercise program 2 times a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; 80% maximal capacity, Borg scale 12-15. | Grade 3 and 4 perineal tears intervention vs control:   * 4/38 (18%) vs 2/36 (10%); p=0.66 |  |

#### Effect on the infant and child

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and congenital anomaly — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Davenport et al 2019b306 | 14 studies  78,735 | **Aim**: To investigate the relationships between exercise and incidence of congenital anomalies.  **Methods**: Online databases were searched from inception up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were eligible (except case studies and reviews) if they were published in English, Spanish or French, and contained information on population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise, alone [“exercise-only”] or in combination with other intervention components [e.g., dietary; “exercise + co-intervention”]), comparator (no exercise or different frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise) and outcome (maternal temperature and fetal anomalies). | Prenatal exercise did not increase the odds of congenital anomalies (OR 1.23, 95% CI 0.77 to 1.95, I2=0%; very low certainty). |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and macrosomia — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Owe et al 2009307  Norway | 36,896  Cohort | **Aim**: To estimate the association between regular exercise during pregnancy and excessive infant birth weight.  **Methods**: Information on regular exercise was based on answers to two questionnaires to collect data from the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study at 17 and 30 weeks. | Adjusted odds ratio of macrosomia at week 17:  *Nulliparous*   * 1-3 times/month: aOR 0.93 (0.74 to 1.18) * 1-2 times/week: aOR 0.91 (0.73 to 1.14) * ≥3 times/week: aOR 0.72 (0.56 to 0.93)   *Multiparous*   * 1-3 times/month: aOR 1.05 (0.91 to 1.22) * 1-2 times/week: aOR 0.95 (0.83 to 1.10) * ≥3 times/week: aOR 0.90 (0.76 to 1.07)   Adjusted odds ratio of macrosomia at week 30:  *Nulliparous*   * 1-3 times/month: aOR 1.04 (0.86 to 1.27) * 1-2 times/week: aOR 0.90 (0.75 to 1.09) * ≥3 times/week: aOR 0.77 (0.61 to 0.96)   *Multiparous*   * 1-3 times/month: aOR 1.02 (0.90 to 1.15) * 1-2 times/week: aOR 1.00 (0.89 to 1.13) * ≥3 times/week: aOR 1.09 (0.90 to 1.32) |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and low birth weight — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Lieferman et al 2003308  United States | 2,245  Cohort | **Aim**: to determine the effect of regular leisure physical activity (RLPA) on two different adverse birth outcomes: timeliness of birth (<37 weeks, preterm; 37–42 weeks, term; and >42 weeks, postterm) and low birth weight (<1500 g, very low; 1500–2499 g, low).  **Methods**: The sample was obtained from the 1988 National Maternal and Infant Health Survey (NMIHS) data. The NMIHS was developed to examine adverse birth outcomes by assessing various maternal characteristics such as demographic, behavioural, and health care factors not found in vital statistics data. Women were grouped as exercising before and during pregnancy (Group 1), exercising before but not during pregnancy (Group 2), exercising during pregnancy but not before (Group 3), and not exercising before or during pregnancy (Group 4). | Preterm birth and level of exercise during pregnancy compared to Group 1:   * Group 2: OR 0.91 (0.71 to 1.17) * Group 3: OR 1.08 (0.76 to 1.55) * Group 4: OR 1.11 (0.93 to 1.31)   Post-term birth and level of exercise during pregnancy compared to Group 1:   * Group 2: OR 0.88 (0.64 to 1.19) * Group 3: OR 0.88 (0.60 to 1.30) * Group 4: OR 0.89 (0.75 to 1.05)   Low birth weight (1,500-2,499 g) and level of exercise during pregnancy compared to Group 1:   * Group 2: OR 1.28 (1.05 to 1.56) * Group 3: OR 0.85 (0.62 to 1.17) * Group 4: OR 1.15 (0.99 to 1.34)   Very low birth weight (<1,500 g) and level of exercise during pregnancy compared to Group 1:   * Group 2: OR 2.05 (1.69 to 2.48) * Group 3: OR 1.13 (0.85 to 1.49) * Group 4: OR 1.75 (1.50 to 2.04) |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and childhood weight

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Kong et al 2016309  United States | 802 mother-child dyads | **Aim**: to examine associations of maternal LTPA with offspring overall and central adiposity in mid-childhood.  **Methods**: We analysed data from mother-child dyads from Project Viva, a prospective pre-birth cohort study. Women reported average weekly LTPA before and during mid-pregnancy. At age 7-10 years, we measured fat, truncal fat and lean mass with dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Using multivariable linear regression, we examined associations of maternal LTPA with offspring adiposity, adjusting for child age and sex, maternal race/ethnicity, education, age, pre-pregnancy body mass index, marital status and smoking status. | Associations between mid pregnancy leisure time physical activity of >8 hours/week   * Fat mass index: 0.07 (−0.22, 0.36) * Truncal fat mass index: 0.03 (−0.10, 0.17) * Lean mass index: 0.03 (−0.18, 0.25) |  |

1. Q5 Physical activity in pregnancy and neurodevelopment of the child

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Nino Cruz et al 2018310 | 6 studies  1 RCT; 5 cohort  SLR | **Aim**: To review the literature on the association between physical activity (PA) during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment.  **Methods**: LILACS, MEDLINE and Web of Science were searched for studies published since 1977. Original studies conducted in humans, without language, country, or study type restriction, were eligible. Information on the study methodology like study design, sample size, PA exposure and neurodevelopment assessment, covariates, and the effect measure were extracted from the selected articles. | The instruments used to measure PA during pregnancy and neurodevelopment varied between the studies. PA was self-reported at different gestational ages and neurodevelopment was assessed prospectively in offspring aged 1-8 years old.  Only the randomised clinical trial found no effect of PA over offspring neurodevelopment. Cohort studies found a positive association between physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment. |  |

## **Q6**: What physical activities are associated with adverse maternal and perinatal outcomes?

### Existing guidelines on exercise in pregnancy

There are several activities that pose increased risks in pregnancy such as scuba diving and exertion in the supine position. Activities that increase the risk of falls, such as skiing, or those that may result in excessive joint stress, such as jogging and tennis, should include cautionary advice for most pregnant women, but evaluated on an individual basis with consideration for individual abilities.

### Any exercise

Systematic reviews have found:

* no increase in risk of miscarriage (OR 0.69; 95%CI 0.40 to 1.22; 10 studies) or perinatal mortality (OR 0.79; 95%CI 0.26 to 2.38; 6 studies) between women who exercised in pregnancy compared to those who did not (46 studies, n=266,778)316
* no adverse impact on fetal heart rate or uteroplacental blood flow metrics (9 studies; 4,651 women).317

### Vigorous exercise

A systematic review (5 RCTs, 10 cohort studies; n=32,703)318 found no clear difference in birthweight (p=0.79), small for gestational age (p=0.13), low birthweight (p=0.35) or maternal weight gain (p=0.5) between women who engaged in vigorous physical activity and those who did not. Women who engaged in vigorous physical activity had a small increase in gestational age at birth (p<0.001) and a small but significantly reduced risk of prematurity (p=0.03).

A secondary cohort analysis of an RCT (n=1,890)319 found no clear difference in low birthweight (p=0.946), high birthweight (p=0.278), large for gestational age (p=0.533) or small for gestational age (p=0.160).

Three cohort studies320-322 examined the association between vigorous leisure time physical activity and adverse outcomes (miscarriage and preterm and post-term birth).

One study (n=92,671)320 with potential bias from retrospective data collection suggested an increase in risk of miscarriage <18 weeks with high impact exercise (jogging, ball games and racket sports) or workout/fitness training (75-269 minutes/week). However, the authors noted that it is too early to draw any public health inferences on this basis.

In regard to preterm and post-term birth:

* in one study (n=1,699),321 there was no clear difference in risk of preterm birth with exercise in the first (OR 0.80; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.35) or second trimester (OR 0.52; 95%CI 0.24 to 1.11) and no clear difference in risk of post-term birth with exercise in the first (OR 0.93; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.89) or second (OR 1.15; 95%CI 0.47 to 2.79) trimester
* another study (n=1,647)322 found no clear difference in risk of preterm birth based on duration of vigorous activity up to >435 min/week (OR 1.2; 95%CI 0.5 to 3.1).

### Supine exercise

A systematic review323 found very low to low certainty evidence from three RCTs that exercise interventions that included supine exercise were not associated with low birth weight (narrative synthesis). Very low to low certainty evidence from four observational studies showed no adverse events in the mother but a potential association between an acute bout of supine exercise and abnormal fetal heart rate (narrative synthesis). The authors noted that there was insufficient evidence to ascertain whether maternal exercise in the supine position is safe or should be avoided during pregnancy.

### Swimming and aqua aerobics

A cohort study (n=92,671)320 found no association between swimming and risk of miscarriage <22 weeks (19-22 weeks HR 0.9; 95%CI 0.4 to 1.9).

A cohort study (n=109)324 found that moderate intensity aqua aerobics in water temperatures of 28.8 to 33.4°C did not significantly increase maternal body temperature (mean body temperature increase 0.16±0.35°C).

A case-control study (n=8,655)325 found no significant positive associations between any or frequent pool use and birth defect and a possible decrease in risk of spina bifida (aOR 0.68; 95%CI 0.47 to 0.99).

### Bicycling/horseback riding

A cohort study (n=92,671)320 found an association between bicycling or horseback riding and risk of miscarriage at 11-14 weeks (HR 1.7; 95%CI 1.4 to 2.0) but not at other times before 22 weeks.

### Occupational activities

#### Fetal loss

A systematic review of cohort and cross-sectional studies326 found no clear increase or decrease in the risk of miscarriage with lifting >100 kg per day (RR 1.32; 95%CI 0.93 to 1.87) but a possible increase in risk associated with standing >6 hours per day (RR 1.16; 95%CI 1.01 to 1.32).

A large cohort study (n=71,500)327 found an increased risk of early miscarriage (≤12 weeks) with occupational lifting of 101-200 kg per day (aHR 1.38; 95%CI 1.10 to 1.74) and a doubling of risk with lifting of >1,000 kg/day (aHR 2.02; 95%CI 1.23 to 3.33). The risk of late miscarriage (13-21 weeks) was increased with lifting of 201-500 kg per day (aHR 1.42; 95%CI 1.15 to 1.76). There was no clear difference in risk of stillbirth (≥22 weeks) with lifting of 201-500 kg per day (aHR 0.72; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.16). However, further analysis of the same cohort (n=68,086)328 found no clear difference in risk of early or late miscarriage with lifting loads of 101-975 kg a day but an increased risk of stillbirth with lifting of 201-975 kg per day (aHR 2.87; 95%CI 1.37 to 6.01) among women with a prior fetal death. There was no clear difference in fetal loss at any time or with any lifting load for women without a prior fetal death.

A case-control study (n=1,762) found that women who experienced spontaneous abortion were more likely than controls to have participated in high intensity occupational activity (59.8 vs 30.7%) and occupational lifting (53.9 vs 36.5%).329

#### Risk of preterm premature rupture of the membranes

A cohort study (n=2,929)330 found an increased risk of preterm premature rupture of the membranes with strenuous occupational physical exertion (OR 1.72; 95%CI 1.16 to 2.56).

#### Risk of preterm birth

A systematic review of cohort studies331 found possible associations between preterm birth and lifting and carrying >5 kg at any time (OR 1.24; 95%CI 1.00 to 1.54) or in the third trimester (OR 1.30; 95%CI 1.01 to 1.67), physical effort or exhaustion (OR 1.30; 95%CI 1.05 to 1.61) and standing and walking >3 hours per day (OR 1.25; 95%CI 0.99 to 1.57).

Cohort studies found an increased risk of preterm birth among:

* primigravid women lifting 101-200 kg/day (aHR 1.34; 95%CI 1.14 to 1.58) or 201-975 kg/day (aHR 1.43; 95%CI 1.13 to 1.80) but no clear increase in risk among multigravida women lifting 101-200 kg/day (aHR 1.17; 95%CI 1.00 to 1.36) or 201-975 kg/day (aHR 1.09; 95%CI 0.89 to 1.33) (n=65,530)328
* women engaging in moderate or heavy occupational activity (n=380)332
* women whose work at 34 weeks entailed trunk bending for >1 h/day (OR 2.92; 95%CI 1.27 to 6.70) (n=1,327).333

However, other cohort studies have found no clear association between preterm birth among women:

* who lifted repeatedly (RR 1.3; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.9) or stood at least 30 hours per week (RR 1.3; 95%CI 0.8 to 2.3) (n=1,908)334
* frequently lifted >25 kg (OR 0.55; 95%CI 0.13 to 2.28) or often had long periods of standing (OR 0.95; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.40) (n=4,680).335

Case-control studies found an increased risk of preterm birth among women:

* lifting and carrying loads of ≥25 kg (aOR 2.42; 95%CI 1.15 to 5.09) (n=938)336
* standing longer than 3 hours a day (OR 4.1; 95%CI 1,29 to 13.10) or engaging in physical exertion (OR 2.91; 95%CI 1.29 to 6.58) (n=223 pairs)337

#### Low birth weight

Cohort studies have found clear difference in birth weights among women:

* standing ≥3 hours a day versus those standing <3 hours a day (MD -27.80; 95%CI -86.34 to 30.74), women involved in occupational lifting versus those who were not (MD-8.70; 95%CI -69.13 to 51.73) and those engaging in medium or heavy physical exertion versus those engaging in light physical exertion (MD -1.20; 95%CI -55.93 to 53.53) (n=1,222)338
* frequently lifted >25 kg (OR 1.86; 95%CI 0.44 to 7.77) or often had long periods of standing (OR 1.02; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.73) (n=4,680).335

A small cohort study (n=380)332 found an increased risk of low birth weight among women engaging in moderate or heavy occupational activity.

#### Small-for-gestational age

Cohort studies have found no clear association between small-for-gestational age and:

* person lifting of 501-1,000 kg/day (aOR 1.34; 95%CI 0.98 to 1.83) or lifting >1,000 kg/day that did not involve lifting persons (aOR 1.51; 95%CI 0.83 to 2.76) (n=66,963)339
* lifting repeatedly (RR 1.0; 95%CI 0.6 to 1.5) or standing at least 30 hours per week (RR 1.2; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.2) (n=1,908).334
* frequently lifting >25 kg (OR 1.85; 95%CI 0.70 to 4.88) or often had long periods of standing (OR 0.95; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.45) (n=4,680).335

A case-control study (n=5,677)340 found no association between small-for-gestational age and standing ≥7 hours a day (OR 1.2; 95%CI 0.9 to 1.6) or lifting ≥7 kg (OR 1.2; 95%CI 0.9 to 1.5).

#### Risk of pelvic pain

A cohort study (n=50,143)341 found an increased risk of pelvic pain among women lifting 101-200 kg/day (aOR 1.21; 95%CI 1.09 to 1.34), 201-500 kg/day (aOR 1.45; 95%CI 1.31 to 1.60), 501-1,000 kg/day (aOR 1.45; 95%CI 1.23 to 1.72) or >1,000 kg/day (aOR 1.31; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.69).

A case-control study (n=2,758)342 found no clear difference in incidence of pelvic pain among women predominantly standing or walking at work (OR 1.04; 95%CI 0.80 to 1.35) but a probable increase among women engaging in physically strenuous work (OR 1.47; 95%CI 1.17 to 1.84).

Another case-control study (n=2,758)342 found an increased risk of pelvic pain associated with physically strenuous work (OR 1.47; 95%CI 1.17 to 1.84).

#### Risk of congenital anomalies

A case-control study (n=3,255)343 found associations between cleft lip and palate and longest versus shortest time standing (OR 1.33; 95%CI 1.04 to 1.69) and keeping or regaining balance (OR 1.32; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.68) but not bending or twisting or climbing. There was no association between any of these activities and cleft palate alone.

### Evidence summary

No evidence was identified to support an association between adverse effects in the mother and exercise, vigorous exercise or swimming during pregnancy. There is very low to low certainty evidence to suggest a potential association between an acute bout of supine exercise and abnormal fetal heart rate. Bicycling and horseback riding may be associated with miscarriage at 11-14 weeks. A systematic review noted that there was insufficient evidence to ascertain whether maternal exercise in the supine position is safe or should be avoided during pregnancy.

The evidence on risks associated with occupational physical activity during pregnancy is unclear. Heavy lifting (eg >200 kg/day) may be associated with an increased risk of pelvic pain, stillbirth among women with a previous fetal loss and preterm birth among primigravid women but is not associated with small-for-gestational age or low birth weight. There is a possible association between occupational standing and increased risk of miscarriage (>6 hours a day) or preterm birth (>3 hours a day) but no clear difference in small-for-gestational age, birth weight or pelvic pain. There is insufficient evidence to draw conclusions on strenuous occupational physical exertion in pregnancy but it may be associated with preterm premature rupture of the membranes and pelvic pain.

### Evidence tables

1. Q6 Potential adverse effects associated with any exercise — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Davenport et al 2019c316 | 46 studies  266,778 | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review of the relationship between prenatal exercise and fetal or newborn death.  **Methods**: Online databases were searched up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were included (except case studies) if they were published in English, Spanish or French and contained information on the population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise alone and outcome (miscarriage or perinatal mortality). | Risk in women who exercised in pregnancy compared to those who did not:   * Miscarriage: OR 0.69 (0.40 to 1.22); 10 studies * Perinatal mortality: OR 0.79 (0.26 to 2.38); 6 studies |  |
| Davenport et al 2018344 | 58 studies  8,699 women | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review and meta-analysis to explore the relationship between prenatal exercise and glycaemic control.  **Methods**: Online databases were searched up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were included (except case studies and reviews) if they were published in English, Spanish or French, and contained information on the population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of acute or chronic exercise, alone ('exercise-only') or in combination with other intervention components (eg, dietary; 'exercise+cointervention') at any stage of pregnancy), comparator (no exercise or different frequency, intensity, duration, volume and type of exercise) and outcome (glycaemic control). | There was very low certainty evidence showing that an acute bout of exercise was associated with a decrease in maternal blood glucose from before to during exercise (6 studies, n=123; MD -0.94 mmol/L, 95%CI -1.18 to -0.70) and following exercise (n=333; MD -0.57 mmol/L, 95% CI -0.72 to -0.41). Subgroup analysis showed that there were larger decreases in blood glucose following acute exercise in women with diabetes (n=26; MD -1.42, 95% CI -1.69 to -1.16, I(2)=8%) compared with those without diabetes (n=285; MD -0.46, 95% CI -0.60 to -0.32, I(2)=62%). Finally, chronic exercise-only interventions reduced fasting blood glucose compared with no exercise postintervention in women with diabetes (2 studies, n=70; MD -2.76, 95% CI -3.18 to -2.34; 'low' certainty of evidence), but not in those without diabetes (9 studies, n=2,174; MD -0.05, 95% CI -0.16 to 0.05). |  |
| Skow et al 2018317 | 91 studies  4,641 women | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review and meta-analysis examining the influence of acute and chronic prenatal exercise on fetal heart rate (FHR) and umbilical and uterine blood flow metrics.  Methods: Online databases were searched up to 6 January 2017. Studies of all designs were included (except case studies) if published in English, Spanish or French, and contained information on the population (pregnant women without contraindication to exercise), intervention (subjective or objective measures of frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of exercise, alone or in combination with other intervention components), comparator (no exercise or different frequency, intensity, duration, volume and type of exercise) and outcomes (FHR, beats per minute (bpm); uterine and umbilical blood flow metrics . | Overall, FHR increased during (MD 6.35bpm; 95%CI 2.30 to 10.41, p=0.002) and following acute exercise (MD 4.05; 95%CI 2.98 to 5.12, p<0.00001). The incidence of fetal bradycardia was low at rest and unchanged with acute exercise. There were no significant changes in umbilical or uterine S/D, PI, RI, blood flow or blood velocity during or following acute exercise sessions. Chronic exercise decreased resting FHR and the umbilical artery S/D, PI and RI at rest. |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Beetham et al 2019318 | 10 cohort studies;  32,080 women  5 RCTS;  623 women | **Aim**: To investigate the effects of vigorous intensity exercise performed throughout pregnancy, on infant and maternal outcomes.  **Methods**: Electronic searching of the PubMed, Medline, EMBASE, Cochrane Library, Web of Science and CINAHL databases was used to conduct the search up to November 2018. Study designs included in the systematic review were randomised control trials, quasi-experimental studies, cohort studies and case-control studies. The studies were required to include an intervention or report of pregnant women performing vigorous exercise during gestation, with a comparator group of either lower intensity exercise or standard care. | No significant difference existed in birthweight for infants of mothers who engaged in vigorous physical activity and those who lacked this exposure (MD 8.06 g, n=8006, p=0.79). Moreover, no significant increase existed in risk of small for gestational age (RR 0.15, n=4,504, p=0.13), risk of low birth weight (<2500 g) (RR 0.44, n=2,454; p=0.35) or maternal weight gain (MD -0.46 kg, n=1,834; p=0.5).  Women who engaged in vigorous physical activity had a small but significant increase in length of gestational age before delivery (MD 0.21 weeks, n=4,281; p<0.001) and a small but significantly reduced risk of prematurity (RR -0.20, n = 3025; p=0.03). |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy — RCT

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Hoffman et al 2019319  Germany  GeliS  NCT01958307 | 1,890 | **Aim**: To investigate the associations between prenatal physical activity and adverse obstetric and neonatal outcomes in a secondary cohort analysis of the cluster-randomized GeliS ("healthy living in pregnancy") trial.  **Population**: Women with a pre-pregnancy BMI between 18.5 and 40.0 kg/m(2) recruited from gynaecological and midwifery practices prior to the end of the 12(th) week of gestation.  **Intervention**: Four lifestyle counselling sessions covering a balanced healthy diet, regular physical activity and self-monitoring of weight gain were performed by trained healthcare providers alongside routine pre- and postnatal practice visits. | Association between vigorous physical activity at week 29:   * Low birthweight OR 0.97; 95%CI 0.36 to 2.57; p=0.946 * High birthweight: OR 1.38; 95%CI 0.77 to 2.49; p=0.278 * Large for gestational age: OR 1.24; 95%CI 0.64 to 2.40; p=0.533 * Small for gestational age: OR 1.48; 95%CI 0.86 to 2.55; p=0.160 |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with vigorous exercise during pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Madsen et al 2007320  Denmark | 92,671  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine the association between leisure time physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage.  **Methods**: Data on exercise during pregnancy and potential confounders were obtained through computer-assisted telephone interviews either during pregnancy or after an early miscarriage. Outcome of pregnancy was identified by register linkage. Using Cox regression analysis, we estimated the hazard ratio (HR) of miscarriage according to weekly amount of exercise and the type of exercise. The HR was estimated for <11, 11–14, 15–18, and 19–22 weeks of gestation, respectively. | Risk of miscarriage with high impact exercise (jogging, ball games and racket sports) (75 to 269 minutes/week) compared to no exercise:   * <11 weeks: HR 3.6 (2.5 to 5.2) * 11-14 weeks: HR 4.2 (3.4 to 5.2) * 15-18 weeks: HR 2.1 (1.2 to 3.5) * 19-22 weeks: HR 1.2 (0.5 to 3.0)   Risk of miscarriage with workout/fitness training (75 to 269 minutes/week) compared to no exercise:   * <11 weeks: HR 2.1 (1.3 to 3.4) * 11-14 weeks: HR 1.9 (1.4 to 2.6) * 15-18 weeks: HR 2.0 (1.2 to 3.6) * 19-22 weeks: HR 2.3 (1.0 to 5.2) | Potential bias arising from retrospective data collection may explain part of the association |
| Evenson et al 2002321  United States | 1,699  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine association between vigorous leisure activity and birth outcomes.  **Methods**: Women with a singleton pregnancy were recruited at 24–29 weeks’ gestation. The type and duration of any regular vigorous leisure activity was assessed in telephone interviews covering the 3-month period before pregnancy and during the first and second trimesters of pregnancy. | First trimester:   * Preterm birth: OR 0.80 (0.48 to 1.35) * Post-term birth: OR 0.93 (0.45 to 1.89)   Second trimester:   * Preterm birth: OR 0.52 (0.24 to 1.11) * Post-term birth: OR 1.15 (0.47 to 2.79) |  |
| Jukic et al 2012322  United States | 1,647  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine the associations between vigorous physical activity during pregnancy and length of gestation and birthweight.  **Methods**: Women were recruited before 10 weeks gestation. At 13–16 weeks gestation, participants reported the type, frequency, and duration of their typical weekly vigorous physical activities.  Birthweight (from vital records) was studied among term births. We analysed gestational age among 1,647 births using discrete-time survival analysis. | Vigorous activity in the first trimester and odds ratio for preterm birth:   * 1–30 min/week: OR 1.0 (0.4 to 2.3) * 31-60 min/week: OR 0.2 (0.05 to 1.0) * 61–435 min/week: OR 0.6 (0.3 to 1.2) * >435 min/week: OR 1.2 (0.5 to 3.1) |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with supine exercise during pregnancy — systematic review

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Mottola et al 2019323 | 7 studies  n=1,759 | **Aim**: To explore theoretical concerns regarding the supine position at rest due to the gravid uterus obstructing aorta and vena caval flow may impinge uterine blood flow (UBF) to the fetus and maternal venous return.  Eligible population (pregnant without contraindication to exercise), intervention (frequency, intensity, duration, volume or type of supine exercise), comparator (no exercise or exercise in left lateral rest position, upright posture or other supine exercise), outcomes (potentially adverse effects on maternal blood pressure, cardiac output, heart rate, oxygen saturation, fetal movements, UBF, fetal heart rate (FHR) patterns; adverse events such as bradycardia, low birth weight, intrauterine growth restriction, perinatal mortality and other adverse events as documented by study authors), and study design (except case studies and reviews) published in English, Spanish, French or Portuguese. | ‘Very low’ to ’low’ certainty evidence from three RCTs indicated no association between supervised exercise interventions that included supine exercise and low birth weight compared with no exercise.  There was ’very low’ to ’low’ certainty evidence from four observational studies that showed no adverse events in the mother; however, there were abnormal FHR patterns (as defined by study authors) in 20 of 65 (31%) fetuses during an acute bout of supine exercise. UBF decreased (13%) when women moved from left lateral rest to acute dynamic supine exercise. |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with swimming during pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Agopian et al 2013325  United States | Cases 191-1929  Controls 6,826  Case control | **Aim**:  To evaluate the relationship between maternal swimming pool use during early pregnancy and risk for select birth defects in offspring associated with water-borne pathogens and exposure to water-disinfection by products.  **Methods**: Data were evaluated for non-syndromic cases with 1 of 16 types of birth defects (n=191-1829) and controls (n=6826) from the National Birth Defects Prevention Study delivered during 2000-2006. Logistic regression analyses were conducted separately for each birth defect type. Separate analyses were conducted to assess any pool use (yes vs no) and frequent use (5 or more occasions in 1 month) during the month before pregnancy through the third month of pregnancy. | Adjusted odds ratio of birth defects associated with frequent pool use:   * Spina bifida: aOR 0.68 (0.47 to 0.99)   There were no significant positive association between any or frequent pool use and any of the types of birth defect. |  |
| Brearley et al 2015324  Australia | 109  Cohort | **Aim**: To examinethe body temperature response of healthy pregnant women exercising at moderate intensity in an aqua-aerobics class where the water temperature is in the range of 28.8 to 33.4°C, as typically found in community swimming pools.  **Methods:** Tympanic temperature was measured at rest pre-immersion (T1), after 35 minutes of moderate-intensity aqua-aerobic exercise (T2), after a further 10 minutes of light exercise while still in the water (T3) and finally on departure from the facility (T4). | Mean body temperature increase 0.16±0.35°C |  |
| Madsen et al 2007320  Denmark | 92,671 | **Aim**: To examine the association between leisure time physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage.  **Methods**: Data on exercise during pregnancy and potential confounders were obtained through computer-assisted telephone interviews either during pregnancy or after an early miscarriage. Outcome of pregnancy was identified by register linkage. Using Cox regression analysis, we estimated the hazard ratio (HR) of miscarriage according to weekly amount of exercise and the type of exercise. The HR was estimated for <11, 11–14, 15–18, and 19–22 weeks of gestation, respectively. | Risk of miscarriage with swimming (75-269 minutes/week) compared to no exercise:   * <11 weeks: HR 0.8 (0.5 to 1.3) * 11-14 weeks: HR 0.8 (0.6 to 1.1) * 15-18 weeks: HR 0.7 (0.4 to 1.2) * 19-22 weeks: HR 0.9 (0.4 to 1.9) |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with bicycling/horseback riding during pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Madsen et al 2007320  Denmark | 92,671 | **Aim**: To examine the association between leisure time physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage.  **Methods**: Data on exercise during pregnancy and potential confounders were obtained through computer-assisted telephone interviews either during pregnancy or after an early miscarriage. Outcome of pregnancy was identified by register linkage. Using Cox regression analysis, we estimated the hazard ratio (HR) of miscarriage according to weekly amount of exercise and the type of exercise. The HR was estimated for <11, 11–14, 15–18, and 19–22 weeks of gestation, respectively. | Risk of miscarriage with bicycling/horseback riding (75-269 minutes/week) compared to no exercise:   * <11 weeks: HR 1.3 (0.9 to 1.7) * 11-14 weeks: HR 1.7 (1.4 to 2.0) * 15-18 weeks: HR 1.3 (0.9 to 1.9) * 19-22 weeks: HR 0.7 (0.4 to 1.4) |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with occupational activities during pregnancy — systematic reviews

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Bonde et al 2013326 | 30 studies | **Aim:** To examine the effect of workplace exposures on the risk of miscarriage.  **Methods:** A search in Medline and EMBASE 1966–2012 identified 30 primary papers reporting the relative risk (RR) of miscarriage according to ≥1 of 5 occupational activities of interest. Following an assessment of completeness of reporting, confounding, and bias, each risk estimate was characterised as more or less likely to be biased. Studies with equivalent measures of exposure were pooled to obtain a weighted common risk estimate. Sensitivity analyses excluded studies most likely to be biased. | Risk of miscarriage:   * Lifting >100 kg/day: RR 1.32 (0.93 to 1.87) * Standing >6 hours/day: RR 1.16 (1.01 to 1.32) | Includes cohort and cross-sectional studies |
| van Beukering et al 2014331 | 11 cohort studies | **Aim**: To assess the association between physically demanding work and risk of preterm birth.  **Methods**:  A systematic search in Medline, Embase and Nioshtic for the period 1990 to June 2012 for observational and intervention studies on physically demanding work (prolonged standing, heavy lifting, physical exertion, occupational fatigue and demanding posture) and PTD. Selected studies were assessed for their risk of bias and pooled using a random effects model. | Association with preterm birth in cohort studies   * Standing and walking >3 h per day: OR 1.25 (0.99 to 1.57) * Lifting and carrying >5 kg: OR 1.24 (1.00 to 1.54) * Lifting and carrying >5 kg in the third trimester: OR 1.30 (1.01 to 1.67) * Physical effort or exertion: OR 1.30 (1.05 to 1.61) |  |

1. Q6 Adverse effects associated with occupational activities during pregnancy — observational studies

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Results** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Agopian et al 2017343  United States | 887 cleft lip and palate  436 cleft palate  1,932 controls  Case-control | **Aim**: To perform a case-control study of maternal occupational physical activity and risk for orofacial clefts in Texas during 1999-2009.  **Methods:** We used logistic regression to assess measures of physical activity estimated from a job exposure matrix, using the maternal occupation reported on the birth certificate. | Cleft lip and palate — longest vs shortest time performing:   * Bending or twisting: OR 1.22 (0.97 to 1.53) * Climbing: OR 0.91 (0.71 to 1.15) * Keeping or regaining balance: OR 1.32 (1.03 to 1.68) * Standing: OR 1.33 (1.04 to 1.69)   Cleft palate — longest vs shortest time performing:   * Bending or twisting: OR 0.93 (0.69 to 1.27) * Climbing: OR 1.04 (0.76 to 1.43) * Keeping or regaining balance: OR 1.10 (0.80 to 1.52) * Standing: OR 1.29 (0.95 to 1.77) |  |
| Bonzini et al 2009333  United Kingdom | 1,327 women  Cohort | **Aim**: To investigate risks of physical activity at work by pregnancy trimester, including the effects on head and abdominal circumference.  **Methods**: At 34 weeks of gestation we interviewed mothers from the prospective Southampton Women's Survey (SWS); we asked about their activities (working hours, standing/walking, kneeling/squatting, trunk bending, lifting and night shifts) in jobs held at each of 11, 19 and 34 weeks of gestation, and subsequently ascertained four birth outcomes (preterm delivery, small for gestational age (SGA) and reduced head or abdominal circumference) blinded to employment history. | Risk of preterm birth was elevated nearly threefold in women whose work at 34 weeks entailed trunk bending for >1 h/day (OR 2.92; 95%CI 1.27 to 6.70).  No statistically significant associations were found with small for gestational age or small abdominal circumference, and preterm birth showed little association with long working hours, lifting, standing or shift work. |  |
| Crotaeu et al 2006340  Canada | 1,536 cases  4,441 controls | **Aim**: To evaluate whether some occupational conditions during pregnancy increase the risk of delivering a small-for gestational-age (SGA) infant and whether taking measures to eliminate these conditions decreases that risk.  **Methods**: Cases and controls were selected from 43,898 women who had single live births between January 1997 and March 1999 in Québec, Canada. The women were interviewed by telephone after birth. | Association between small-for-gestational age:   * standing ≥7 hours a day: OR 1.2; 95%CI 0.9 to 1.6) * lifting ≥7 kg: OR 1.2; 95%CI 0.9 to 1.5) |  |
| El Metwalli et al 2001329  Egypt | 1,762  Case control | **Aim:** To determine the effect of occupational physical activities on the outcome of pregnancy.  **Methods:** Occupational physical activity was evaluated through energy expenditure and biomechanic load for women who had experienced spontaneous abortion (cases; n=562) and women who gave birth at full term (control; n=1,200). | Spontaneous abortion group vs completed pregnancy group:   * Low intensity score: 226/562 (40.2%) vs 831/1,200 (69.3%) * High intensity score: 336/562 (59.8%) vs 369/1,200 (30.7%) * No lifting: 259/562 (46.1%) vs 762/1,200 (63.5%) * Lifting: 303/562 (53.9%) vs 438/1,200 (36.5%) |  |
| Eunhee et al 2002338  China | 1,222  Cohort | **Aim**: To investigate the association between infant birth weight and standing at work during pregnancy.  **Methods**: Various work-related physical activities during pregnancy were assessed using a structured questionnaire, and generalised additive models (GAMs) were performed to examine their association with birth weight. | Birth weight (g):   * Standing ≥3 h/day vs <3 h/d: 3,396.0±418.9 vs 3,423.8±432.6; MD -27.80 (-86.34 to 30.74) * Lifting vs not lifting: 3410.6±450.6 vs 3,419.3±433.4; MD -8.70 (-69.13 to 51.73) * Medium or heavy vs light physical exertion: 3,416±435.0 vs 3,417.7±433.4; MD -1.20 (-55.93 to 53.53) |  |
| Juhl et al 2005342  Denmark | 1219 cases  1539 controls | **Aim**: To examine the relation between pelvic pain in pregnancy and physical and psychosocial working conditions.  **Methods**: This study used self-reported data on working conditions sampled as a nested case-control study within the Danish national birth cohort. Exposure data were collected prospectively; early in pregnancy and before the onset of pelvic pain. Main outcome measures were odds ratios for pelvic pain in pregnancy as a function of physical and psychosocial working conditions. | Physically strenuous work was associated with an almost 50% increased risk of pelvic pain in pregnancy (OR 1.47; 95%CI 1.17 to 1.84). |  |
| Juhl et al 2005342 | Cases 1,219  Controls 1,539  Cohort (nested case-control) | **Aim:** to examine the relation between pelvic pain in pregnancy and physical and psychosocial working conditions.  **Methods:** Cases and controls were selected on the basis of self-reported pelvic pain intensity, pain localisation, and pain impact on daily living activities. Exposure data were collected prospectively; early in pregnancy and before the onset of pelvic pain. Main outcome measures were odds ratios for pelvic pain in pregnancy as a function of physical and psychosocial working conditions. | Odds ratio of pelvic pain   * Predominantly standing or walking: OR 1.04 (0.80 to 1.35) * Physically strenuous work: OR 1.47 (1.17 to 1.84). |  |
| Juhl et al 2013; 2014327,339  Denmark | SGA: 66,693  Fetal loss: 71,500  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine the association between maternal occupational lifting and small for gestational-age (SGA) and fetal loss.  **Methods**: Analysis of information from the Danish Medical Birth Registry according to the mother’s self-reported information on occupational lifting from telephone interviews around gestational week 16. Linear and logistic regression models were used and adjustments made for confounders. | Small for gestational age among women who reported person-lifting compared to women with no lifting:   * 501-1,000 kg/day: aOR 1.34 (0.98 to 1.83) * >1,000 kg/day: aOR 1.51 (0.83 to 2.76)   Small for gestational age lifting with no person lifting:   * >1,000 kg/day: aOR 0.99 (0.71 to 1.39)   Early miscarriage (≤12 wks) lifting vs no lifting:   * 101-200 kg/day: adjusted hazard ratio (aHR) 1.38 (1.10 to 1.74) * 201-500kg/day: aHR 1.46 (1.15 to 1.85) * >1,000 kg/day: aHR 2.02 (1.23 to 3.33)   Late miscarriage (13-21 wks) lifting vs no lifting:   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.04 (0.80 to 1.35) * 201-500 kg/day: aHR 1.42 (1.15 to 1.76)   Stillbirth (≥22 wks) lifting vs no lifting   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.23 (0.78 to 1.92) * 201-500 kg/day: aHR 0.72 (0.45 to 1.16) |  |
| Larsen et al 2013341  Denmark | 50,143 women  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine the association between occupational lifting and pelvic pain in pregnancy.  **Methods:** During pregnancy, women provided information on occupational lifting (weight load and daily frequency) and 6 months postpartum on pelvic pain. Adjusted odds ratios for pelvic pain during pregnancy according to occupational lifting were calculated by logistic regression. | Lifting versus no lifting:   * 15-100 kg/day: aOR 1.06; 95%CI 0.99 to 1.13 * 101-200 kg/day: aOR 1.21; 95%CI 1.09 to 1.34 * 201-500 kg/day: aOR 1.45; 95%CI 1.31 to 1.60 * 501-1,000 kg/day: aOR 1.45; 95%CI 1.23 to 1.72 * >1,000 kg/day: aOR 1.31; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.69 |  |
| Mocevic et al 2014328  Denmark | Fetal death: 68,086  Preterm birth: 65,530  Cohort | **Aim:** examined the association between occupational lifting during pregnancy and risk of fetal death and preterm birth using a job exposure matrix (JEM).  **Methods:** For occupationally active women in the Danish National Birth Cohort, interview information on occupational lifting was collected around gestational week 16. A JEM was established based on information from women who were still pregnant when interviewed. The JEM provided mean total loads lifted per day within homogeneous exposure groups as informed by job and industry codes. All women were assigned an exposure estimate from the JEM. Cox regression models with gestational age as underlying time variable were used and adjustment for covariates conducted. | Multigravid women with prior fetal death  *Early miscarriage (≤12 wks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.23 (0.73 to 1.83) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 1.00 (0.57 to 1.77)   *Late miscarriage (13-21 weeks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.37 (0.92 to 2.03) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 1.14 (0.67 to 1.92)   *Stillbirth (≥22 weeks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 0.90 (0.36 to 2.24) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 2.87 (1.37 to 6.01)   Multigravid women without prior fetal death  *Early miscarriage (≤12 wks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.17 (0.88 to 1.56) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 1.00 (0.68 to 1.48)   *Late miscarriage (13-21 weeks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.27 (0.97 to 1.68) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 0.95 (0.64 to 1.40)   *Stillbirth (≥22 weeks)*   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.23 (0.73 to 2.05) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 0.75 (0.34 to 1.67)   Preterm birth among primigravid women   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.34 (1.14 to 1.58) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 1.43 (1.13 to 1.80)   Preterm birth among multigravid women:   * 101-200 kg/day: aHR 1.17 (1.00 to 1.36) * 201-975 kg/day: aHR 1.09 (0.89 to 1.33) |  |
| Nelson et al 2009336  Thailand | 938  Case control | **Aim**: To evaluate associations of maternal occupational physical exertion with preterm birth.  **Methods**: Maternal occupational exertion during pregnancy was assessed using a structured questionnaire administered after delivery. Logistic regression procedures were used to examine relationships between occupational physical activity and preterm birth. | Adjusted odds ratio for spontaneous preterm birth:   * Medium exertion: aOR 0.90 (0.64 to 1.27) * Heavy exertion: aOR 2.42 (1.15 to 5.09) |  |
| Newman et al 2001330  United States | 2,929  Cohort | **Aim:** To prospectively determine the relationship between occupational fatigue and spontaneous preterm birth.  **Methods**: Women with singleton pregnancies enrolled at 22 to 24 weeks’ gestation reported the number of hours worked per week and answered specific questions designed to determine sources of occupational fatigue. Fatigue was quantified (0-5 index) according to the number of these sources positively reported. Simple and Mantel-Haenszel χ2 tests were used to test the univariate association and hypothesis of a linear trend between sources of occupational fatigue and spontaneous preterm delivery. Covariables were considered by multivariate logistic regression analysis. Women who did not work outside the home were considered separately from those who worked but did not report any sources of occupational fatigue. | Adjusted odds ratios for preterm rupture of membranes (<37 wks)   * Physical exertion: OR 1.72 (1.16 to 2.56) |  |
| Pompeii et al 2005334  United States | 1,908 women  Cohort | **Aim**: To assess whether exposure to standing, lifting, night work, or long work hours during 3 periods of pregnancy are associated with an increased risk of preterm or small-for-gestational-age birth.  **Methods**: The Pregnancy, Infection and Nutrition study is a prospective cohort with a nested case-control component that was conducted through clinic and hospital settings. Women provided information during telephone and face-to-face interviews about physical exertion for the 2 longest-held jobs during pregnancy. | Risk of preterm birth:   * Lifting repeatedly: RR 1.3; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.9 * Standing at least 30 hours per week: RR 1.3; 95%CI 0.8 to 2.3   Risk of small-for-gestational age:   * Lifting repeatedly: RR 1.0; 95%CI 0.6 to 1.5 * Standing at least 30 hours per week: RR 1.2; 95%CI 0.6 to 2.2 |  |
| Ritsmitchai et al 1997337  Thailand | 223 case-control pairs  Case-control | **Aim:** To determine whether prolonged standing and/or physical exertion during pregnancy were associated with preterm birth.  **Methods**: Indicators of work activity and other potential risk factors were ascertained through medical records and by questionnaire after the birth. | There was an association between preterm birth and:   * standing longer than 3 hours a day throughout pregnancy: OR 4.1; 95%CI 1,29 to 13.10 * physical exertion throughout pregnancy: OR 2.91; 95%CI 1.29 to 6.58. |  |
| Salunkhe et al 2018332  India | 380  Cohort | **Aim**: To find out the relationship between occupation of women and the birth weight and gestational age of the baby.  **Population**: Pregnant women  **Methods**: Data on occupation was collected using a structured interview. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. | Sedentary vs moderate vs heavy occupation:   * Preterm birth: 7/109 (6.5%) vs 35/248 (12.6%) vs 6/23 (26.1%) * Low birth weight: 27/109 (24.8%) vs 59/248 (23.8%) vs 19/23 (82.6%) | Moderate occupation was defined as farm work; heavy as working as labourer on road construction and stone cutting. |
| Snijder et al 2012335  Netherlands | 4,680 women  Cohort | **Aim**: To examine associations between various aspects of physically demanding work with fetal growth in different trimesters during pregnancy and the risks of adverse birth outcomes.  **Methods**: Associations between physically demanding work and fetal growth were studied in a population-based prospective cohort study from early pregnancy onwards. Mothers who filled out a questionnaire during mid-pregnancy (response 77% of enrolment) were included if they conducted paid employment and had a spontaneously conceived singleton live born pregnancy. Questions on physical workload were obtained from the Dutch Musculoskeletal Questionnaire and concerned questions on lifting, long periods of standing or walking, night shifts and working hours. Fetal growth characteristics were repeatedly measured by ultrasound and were used in combination with measurements at birth. | Odds of preterm birth:   * Frequent periods of standing: OR 0.95; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.40 * Frequent lifting of >25 kg: OR 0.55; 95%CI 0.13 to 2.28   Odds of small-for gestational age:   * Frequent long periods of standing: OR 0.95; 95%CI 0.63 to 1.45 * Frequent lifting of >25 kg: OR 1.85; 95%CI 0.70 to 4.88   Odds of low birth weight:   * Frequent long periods of standing: OR 1.02; 95%CI 0.60 to 1.73 * Frequent lifting of >25 kg: OR 1.86; 95%CI 0.44 to 7.77 |  |

# Weight assessment and management

## **Q7**: When should maternal weight and height be measured and BMI calculated in pregnant women?

### Review of the IOM guidelines for weight gain in pregnancy

A number of studies have suggested that the IOM guidelines may not be applicable to all women or that the weight gain ranges require revision.

* An individual participant-level meta-analysis (25 cohort studies; n=196,670) 345 estimated optimal gestational weight gain ranges for each pre-pregnancy BMI category by selecting the range of gestational weight gain that was associated with lower risk for any adverse outcome. This process identified weight gain ranges for women who are overweight or obese that were considerably lower than the IOM recommendations. However, the authors noted that while the estimates may inform antenatal counselling, the gestational weight gain ranges had limited predictive value for the outcomes assessed.
* A systematic review of the utility of IOM-2009 guidelines among Indian and other Asian pregnant women in terms of maternal and fetal outcomes (n=13 studies)346 highlighted the need for appropriate gestational weight gain recommendations across the different body mass index levels specifically for Indian women and other Asian populations.
* A retrospective cohort study in China (n=8,209)347 found that the lowest accumulated risk of low birthweight and macrosomia was not always achieved among women who gained weight within recommendations and suggested that the IOM weight gain ranges are too high for Chinese women.
* A cohort study in the United States (n=181,948)348 found that adherence to the 2009 IOM guidelines for weight gain during pregnancy reduced risk for various adverse maternal outcomes in all ethnic groups studied. However, the guidelines were less predictive of infant outcomes with the exception of small and large for gestational age.
* A retrospective cohort study in the United States (n=~12,000,000 birth records)349 found that weight gain lower than the IOM guidelines among obese women reduced the risk of gestational hypertension, eclampsia, induction of labour and Caesarean section but was also associated with increased risks for multiple adverse neonatal outcomes with macrosomia the exception.

### Determinants of gestational weight gain

#### Weight gain below guidelines

A systematic review found that women with lower educational attainment had an increased risk of inadequate weight gain (OR 1.3; 95% CI 1.0 to 1.6, p =0.017).350

An analysis of observational data from a longitudinal cohort study of Aboriginal women during pregnancy (n=110)351 found that 32% of women had inadequate weight gain.

Cohort studies in the United States352-354 have found that African American women, Hispanic women and women in socially disadvantaged areas are more likely to experience inadequate weight gain.

#### Weight gain exceeding guidelines

Systematic reviews have found associations between weight gain exceeding recommendations and:

* body image dissatisfaction355,356
* lack of social support355
* concern about weight gain, negative attitude towards weight gain, inaccurate perceptions regarding weight, higher than recommended target weight gain, less knowledge about weight gain, higher levels of cognitive dietary restraint, and perceived barriers to healthy eating356
* lower educational attainment.350

There were no clear associations between weight gain exceeding recommendations and:

* anxiety,355,356 stress,355,356 self-efficacy,355 self-esteem355 or social support357
* parity (r 0.04, 95%CI 0.10 to 0.16, p=0.61; 17 studies), including after adjusting for pre-pregnancy BMI (r 0.08, 95% CI 0.19 to 0.03, p=0.16; 16 studies)358

The evidence on an association between weight gain exceeding recommendations and depression was inconsistent.355,356

Protective factors included an internal locus of control for weight gain, lower than recommended target weight gain and higher self-efficacy for healthy eating.356

Cohort studies have found associations between weight gain exceeding guidelines and:

* pre-pregnancy BMI (≥25 vs <25): OR 3.35; 95%CI 2.44 to 4.64; p<0.0001359
* stopping smoking (weekly weight gain in second and third trimesters compared to women who never smoked MD 0.09; 95%CI 0.03, 0.15)360

There was no clear association between weight gain exceeding guidelines and:

* experiencing hardship in childhood (OR 1.45, 95%CI 0.99 to 2.14), in adulthood (OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.41 to 1.26) or in pregnancy (OR 1.09; 95%CI 0.43 to 2.76)361
* maternal age (<30 vs ≥30) (OR 1.02; 95%CI 0.98 to 1.02; p=0.89)359
* household income (<$60,000 vs ≥$60,000) (OR 1.06; 95%CI 0.71 to 1.26; p=0.71)359
* education level (<university vs ≥university degree) (OR 1.26; 95%CI 0.93 to 1.70; p=0.14)359
* country of birth (other countries vs Canada) (OR 1.05; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.41; p=0.73).359

An analysis of observational data collected from a longitudinal cohort study of Aboriginal women during pregnancy (n=110)351 found that 54% of women had weight gain exceeding recommendations.

### Risks associated with low or high gestational weight gain

A meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362 found that low or high gestational weight gain was associated with pregnancy complications across all BMI classifications.

#### Weight gain among women of any BMI

##### Weight gain lower than recommendations

In a systematic review of cohort studies of pregnant women of any BMI (23 studies; 1,309,136 women)363, weight gain *lower* than recommendations was associated with an increased risk of:

* preterm birth (OR 1.70; 95%CI 1.32 to 2.20)
* small for gestational age babies (OR 1.53; 95% CI 1.44 to 1.64).

There was an association between weight gain *lower* than recommendations and a lower likelihood of:

* large-for-gestational-age babies (OR 0.59; 95%CI 0.55 to 0.64)
* macrosomia (OR 0.60; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.68).

There was an association between weight gain *lower* than recommendations and a possible lower likelihood of caesarean section (OR 0.98; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.02).

In an analysis of individual participant data from the control arms of 36 RCTs (n=4,429)364 the odds of preterm birth (aOR 1.94; 95%CI 1.31 to 2.28) and small-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 1.52; 95%CI 1.18 to 1.96) were increased with gestational weight gain *lower* than recommendations. Findings on caesarean section and large-for-gestational-age babies were inconclusive.

##### Weight gain higher than recommendations

The systematic review of cohort studies363 found that weight gain *higher* than recommendations was associated with an increased risk of:

* large-for-gestational age babies (OR 1.85; 95%CI 1.76 to 1.95)
* macrosomia (OR 1.95; 95%CI 1.79 to 2.11)
* caesarean section (OR 1.30; 95%CI 1.25 to 1.35).

There was an association between weight gain higher than recommendations and lower likelihood of small-for-gestational-age babies (OR 0.66; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.69) and preterm birth (OR 0.77; 95%CI 0.69 to 0.86).

The analysis of individual participant data from the control arms of RCTs364 found that weight gain higher than recommendations was associated with increased odds of caesarean section (aOR 1.50; 95%CI 1.25 to 1.80), large-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 2.00; 95%CI 1.58 to 2.54), and reduced odds of small-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 0.66; 0.50 to 0.87). No significant effect on preterm birth was detected.

A meta-analysis of individual participant data (37 studies, 162,129 mothers and children)365 found that, relative to the effect of maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, excessive gestational weight gain only slightly increased the risk of childhood overweight/obesity within each clinical BMI category (p-values for interactions of maternal BMI with gestational weight gain: p=0.038, p<0.001, and p=0.637 in early, mid, and late childhood, respectively).

Systematic reviews of cohort studies have found that:

* the risk of urinary incontinence increased with each 10 kg of weight gain (RR 1.34; 95%CI 1.11 to 1.62)366
* weight gain exceeding recommendations may increase the risk of autism spectrum disorder (OR 1.23; 95%CI 1.09 to 1.38; p=0.0008) but more studies are needed to confirm this result.367

##### High weight gain in early pregnancy

A secondary analysis of an RCT (n=7,895)368 found that among women who gained weight exceeding the IOM guidelines by week 15-18, 93% exceeded the recommended total gestational weight gain. In contrast, only 55% of women with early gestational weight gain within recommendations had total gestational weight gain higher than recommendations (p<0.001). Women with excessive early gestational weight gain had higher rates of gestational diabetes (OR 1.4; 95%CI 1.1 to 1.9), large-for-gestational-age babies (OR 1.4; 95%CI 1.2 to 1.6), and macrosomia >4,000 g (OR 1.5; 95%CI 1.3 to 1.8).

##### Outcomes among women from US/Europe and Asia

Weight gain lower than recommended was associated with preterm birth among women from the USA/Europe (OR 1.35; 95%CI 1.17 to 1.56) but not women from Asia (OR 1.06; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.44)369. It was associated with an increase in risk of small-for-gestational-age babies among women from both groups.

Weight gain higher than recommended was associated with large-for-gestational age babies, macrosomia and caesarean section among women from both groups.

#### Gestational weight gain among underweight women

A meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362 found that among underweight women:

* low weight gain was associated with an increased risk of preterm birth and small for gestational age (both p<0.001) and a reduced risk of gestational hypertension (p<0.05) and large for gestational age (p<0.001)
* high weight gain was associated with a reduced risk of small for gestational age (p<0.05).

#### Gestational weight gain among women with healthy pre-pregnancy weight

In the meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362, among women with healthy pre-pregnancy BMI:

* low weight gain was associated with an increased risk of preterm birth and small for gestational age and a reduced risk of large for gestational age (all p<0.001)
* high weight gain was associated with an increased risk of gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth and large for gestational age and a reduced risk of small-for-gestational age (all p<0.001).

#### Gestational weight gain among overweight women

In the meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362, among overweight women:

* low weight gain was associated gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, small for gestational age (all p<0.001) and preterm birth (p<0.05)
* high weight gain was associated with gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth and large for gestational age (all p<0.001).

#### Gestational weight gain among obese pregnant women

In the meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362, among obese women both low and high weight gain were associated with increased risk of gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth and large for gestational age (all p<0.001).

##### Weight gain lower than recommendations

A retrospective cohort study in the United States (n=~12,000,000 birth records)349 found that weight gain lower than the IOM guidelines among obese women reduced the risk of gestational hypertension, eclampsia, induction of labour and Caesarean section but was also associated with increased risks for multiple adverse neonatal outcomes with macrosomia the exception.

A systematic review of cohort studies of obese pregnant women (18 cohort studies; 99,723 women)370 found that weight gain *lower* than recommendations was associated with an increase in risk of:

* preterm birth (aOR 1.46; 95%CI 1.07 to 2.00)
* small-for-gestational-age babies (OR 1.24; 95%CI 1.13 to 1.36).

Weight gain lower than recommendations was associated with a lower likelihood of:

* large-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 0.77; 95%CI 0.73 to 0.81)
* macrosomia (aOR 0.64; 95%CI 0.54 to 0.77)
* gestational hypertension (aOR, 0.70; 95%CI 0.53 to 0.93)
* pre-eclampsia (aOR 0.90; 95%CI 0.82 to 0.99).
* caesarean section (aOR 0.87; 95%CI 0.82 to 0.92).

There was no difference in risk of gestational diabetes (aOR 1.15; 95%CI 0.91 to 1.45), low birthweight (aOR1.08; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.54), Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes (aOR 0.92; 95%CI 0.67 to 1.27) or postpartum weight retention (MD -5.3 kg; 95%CI -9.0 to 1.17).

##### Weight loss

A systematic review of cohort studies (n=60,913)371 found that, among women who were obese, gestational weight loss compared to weight gain within the guidelines:

* increased the risk of small-for-gestational-age babies (aOR 1.76; 95%CI 1.45 to 2.14; 2 studies) and low birthweight (aOR 1.68; 95%CI 1.10 to 2.57; 1 study)
* was associated with a lower likelihood of large for gestational age (aOR 0.57; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.62; 2 studies), macrosomia (aOR 0.58; 95%CI 0.38 to 0.89; 1 study) and caesarean section (aOR 0.73; 95%CI 0.67 to 0.80; 2 studies).

There was a possible reduction in risk of pre-eclampsia (aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.66 to 1.02; 1 study) and no clear difference in risk of gestational diabetes (aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.25; 1 study) or Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes (aOR 1.08; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.44; 2 studies). No studies reported on preterm birth.

### Women’s views on weight gain during pregnancy

A systematic review372 found that women are highly motivated to change their behaviour to improve fetal health, but may not recognise the link between excess gestational weight gain and negative fetal health outcomes. Regular, forthright, sensitive counselling geared to individual circumstances was frequently mentioned as a strong facilitator of healthy weight gain in pregnancy.

An Australia cross-sectional study (n=536)373 found that only half of pregnant women reported accurate gestational weight gain knowledge within the IOM recommendations.

Cross-sectional studies from overseas have found that:

* more than half (57%) of women reported that their healthcare provider talked to them about personal weight gain limits during pregnancy and a third of these were counselled regularly; among those not counselled over half (56%) reported that healthcare provider guidance would have been helpful to achieve their target weight374
* two-thirds (67%) of women received advice on gestational weight gain as part of antenatal care and women who reported following this advice had lower odds of weight gain exceeding recommendations (OR 0.18; 95%CI 0.03 to 0.91)(n=91)375
* experiences of regular weighing were positive and participants believed it should be part of standard antenatal care, that there was a lack of information provided on gestational weight gain and healthy lifestyle in pregnancy, and that healthcare professionals are ideally placed to provide this advice (n=10)376

### Health professional’s views on regular weighing as part of pregnancy care

An Australian focus group that examined barriers and enablers to the regular weighing of women throughout pregnancy (n=44),377 found that, while most health professionals supported regular weighing, various concerns were raised. Issues included access to resources and staff; the ability to provide appropriate counselling and evidence-based interventions; and the impact of weighing on women and the therapeutic relationship.

In an Australian study following introduction of a pregnancy weight gain chart (n=42),378 63% of health professionals surveyed used the chart, 76% reported that they needed more training in counselling pregnant women about weight gain, and insufficient time was a main barrier to weighing and conversing with women.

An Australian cohort study found that recording of weight is improved by providing scales and in-services (18.9%) and medical record prompts (61.8%) (n=~13,000 per cohort).379

A cohort study in the United States (n=733)380 found that introduction of a "best practice alert" into an electronic medical record (EMR) system improved documentation of pre-pregnancy weight (p=0.02) and pre-pregnancy height (p<0.001) but not BMI (p=0.34). It improved the rate of gestational weight counselling (p<0.001), documented weight gain (p<0.001) and weight gain consistent with guidelines (p=0.003).

### Regular weighing

#### Background

The Guidelines currently include consensus-based recommendations to:

* at the first antenatal visit, calculate women’s BMI and give them advice about appropriate weight gain during pregnancy in relation to their pre-pregnancy BMI
* at every antenatal visit, offer women the opportunity to be weighed and encourage self-monitoring of weight gain and discuss weight change, diet and level of physical activity with all women.

A recent commentary noted that it is unclear if the revised pregnancy care guidelines have recommended regular weighing as a screening tool for adverse pregnancy outcomes (eg low or high birth weight) or if it is being employed as a weight management strategy.381

#### Current review

A systematic literature review found no clear difference in weekly weight gain (WMD -0.00; 95%CI -0.03 to 0.02) or weight gain exceeding the IOM guidelines for women who were underweight (OR 1.50; 95%CI 0.14 to 16.54), in the healthy weight range (OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.09), overweight (OR 0.85; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.62) or obese (OR 1.60; 95%CI 0.72 to 3.54).382 The interventions assessed in the two included studies (n=977) differed in that one involved regular weighing by a health professional383 and the other involved self-weighing.384 This review focuses on regular weighing as part of antenatal care.

##### Regular weighing as part of antenatal care

An Australian RCT (n=782)383,385 addressed regular weighing at antenatal care visits plus advice on weight gain versus usual care. The study found no clear difference in weight gain, proportion of women gaining more weight than IOM recommended range or secondary outcomes.383 Among a subset of women who provided feedback (n=586), 73% were comfortable with being weighed routinely.385

A pilot study in the United Kingdom (n=76)386 combined regular weighing by midwives and advice on weight gain with self-weighing between antenatal visits. Compared to usual care, there was no clear difference in the percentage of women gaining excessive weight during pregnancy or in mean depression and anxiety scores. Feedback in a subset of participants showed support for routine weighing among participants (9/12) and midwives (7/7). The same group then conducted a larger study of the intervention (n=656),387 which also found no clear difference in weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines, depression or anxiety.

When these three trials were pooled, there was no clear difference in weight gain exceeding guidelines (RR 1.01 95% CI 0.92 to 1.12; 3 RCTs; n=1,327; very low certainty; analysis 2.1; page 411) or mean weekly weight gain (0.01 kg per week 95%CI –0.03 to 0.05; 2 RCTs; n=711; very low certainty; analysis 2.2; page 412). When the two United Kingdom studies were pooled, there was a small reduction in the risk of depression (MD -0.77; 95%CI -1.44 to -0.09; low certainty; analysis 2.3; page 412) and anxiety (MD -0.77; 95%CI -1.48 to ‑0.06; low certainty; analysis 2.4; page 412). There was no indication in the three trials that either excessive gestational weight gain or mean gestational weight gain differed in women of normal weight at the beginning of pregnancy compared with women who were overweight or obese.

| Summary of findings | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Regular weighing and advice on weight gain compared to usual care for gestational weight gain | | | | | |
| **Patient or population**: Pregnant women  **Setting**: Australia, United Kingdom  **Intervention**: Regular weighing and advice on weight gain  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with usual care** | **Risk with regular weighing and advice on weight gain** |
| Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines | 480 per 1,000 | **485 per 1,000** (442 to 538) | **RR 1.01** (0.92 to 1.12) | 1,327 (3 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Mean weight gain (kg per week) | The mean weight gain (kg per week) - Overall was **0** | MD **0.01 higher** (0.03 lower to 0.05 higher) | - | 711 (2 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Gestational diabetes | 53 per 1,000 | **55 per 1,000** (30 to 98) | **RR 1.03** (0.57 to 1.85) | 782 (1 RCT) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Gestational hypertension/ pre-eclampsia | 40 per 1,000 | **46 per 1,000** (24 to 90) | **RR 1.15** (0.60 to 2.23) | 782 (1 RCT) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Macrosomia | 71 per 1,000 | **70 per 1,000** (42 to 117) | **RR 0.99** (0.59 to 1.65) | 782 (1 RCT) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Depression (HADS score) | The mean depression (HADS score) was **0** | MD **0.77 lower** (1.44 lower to 0.09 lower) | - | 313 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Anxiety  (HADS score) | The mean anxiety (HADS score) was **0** | MD **0.77 lower** (1.48 lower to 0.06 lower) | - | 324 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. High risk of performance and detection bias

b. High risk of attrition bias

c. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

### Evidence statements

#### Determinants of gestational weight gain

There is evidence from systematic reviews of association between weight gain exceeding guidelines and body image dissatisfaction and lack of social support but not anxiety, stress, self-efficacy, self-esteem of parity. The evidence on depression was inconsistent.

There is evidence from cohort studies of association between weight gain exceeding guidelines and pre-pregnancy BMI and stopping smoking but not maternal age, household income, education level or country of birth or experience of hardship in childhood, adulthood or during pregnancy.

#### Risks associated with weight gain lower or higher than recommendations

There is high-certainty evidence that gestational weight gain lower than recommendations increases the risk of preterm birth and small-for gestational-age babies and decreases the risk of large-for-gestational-age babies and macrosomia. The risk of caesarean section was decreased among women who were obese and possibly decreased among all women. Among women who were obese, the risk of gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia was decreased and there was no clear difference in risk of gestational diabetes, low birth weight, Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes and postpartum weight retention.

There is high-certainty evidence that, compared to weight gain within recommendations, gestational weight gain higher than recommendations increased the risk of large-for-gestational-age babies, macrosomia and caesarean section and decreased the risk of small-for-gestational-age babies and preterm birth.

There is evidence from a systematic review of cohort studies that, while gestational weight loss among obese women decreased the risk of large-for-gestational-age babies, macrosomia and caesarean section, it increased the risk of small-for-gestational-age babies and low birth weight and no studies reported on preterm birth.

There is RCT evidence that weight gain higher than recommendations in early pregnancy (15-18 weeks) increases the risk of total gestational weight gain exceeding recommendations, gestational diabetes, large-for-gestational-age babies and macrosomia.

#### Women’s and health professionals’ views on gestational weight gain

There is evidence from a systematic review that women are highly motivated to change their behaviour to improve fetal health, but may not recognise the link between excess gestational weight gain and negative fetal health outcomes. There is evidence from cross-sectional studies that women lack accurate knowledge on gestational weight gain and would welcome advice from health professionals.

There is evidence from cross-sectional studies that health professionals would welcome more training in providing appropriate counselling and that resources and time are other barriers to discussing weight gain.

#### Regular weighing as part of antenatal care

There is very low certainty evidence that regular weighing as part of antenatal care has no clear effect on mean weekly weight gain, total weight gain exceeding guidelines, gestational diabetes, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy or macrosomia but low certainty evidence that it may reduce the risk of depression and anxiety.

### Evidence tables

1. Q7 Determinants of gestational weight gain

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| O’Brien et al 2019350  SLR | 21 trials  5,183 women | **Aim**: To identify if maternal educational attainment is a prognostic factor for gestational weight gain (GWG), and to determine the differential effects of lifestyle interventions (diet based, physical activity based or mixed approach) on GWG, stratified by educational attainment.  **Methods**: Individual participant data meta-analysis using the previously established International Weight Management in Pregnancy (i-WIP) Collaborative Group database. Maternal educational attainment was required for inclusion and was categorised as higher education (≥tertiary) or lower education (≤secondary). | Women with lower educational attainment had an increased risk of excessive (OR 1.182; 95% CI 1.008 to 1.385, p =0.039) and inadequate weight gain (OR 1.284; 95% CI 1.045 to 1.577, p =0.017).  Among women with lower education, diet-based interventions reduced risk of excessive weight gain (OR 0.515; 95% CI 0.339 to 0.785, p = 0.002) and inadequate weight gain (OR 0.504; 95% CI 0.288 to 0.884, p=0.017), and reduced kg/week gain (B -0.055; 95% CI -0.098 to -0.012, p=0.012). Mixed interventions reduced risk of excessive weight gain for women with lower education (OR 0.735; 95% CI 0.561 to 0.963, p=0.026).  Among women with high education, diet-based interventions reduced risk of excessive weight gain (OR 0.609; 95% CI 0.437 to 0.849, p=0.003), and mixed interventions reduced kg/week gain (B -0.053; 95% CI -0.069 to -0.037,p<0.001).  Physical activity based interventions did not impact GWG when stratified by education. |  |
| Ratan et al 2020357  United States  Cohort | 772 | **Aim**: To examine how social support factors affect compliance with gestational weight gain (GWG) recommendations in an obese, low-income, predominantly minority population.  **Methods**: A retrospective cohort of pregnant women with BMI >30 was reviewed. Univariate and multinomial logistic regression analyses were used to compare GWG with pregnancy planning, relationship status, participation in group prenatal care, nutritional education, and demographic factors. Subgroup analysis was performed to determine if differences existed in entry into prenatal care. | Social support factors in this study did not individually affect compliance with GWG recommendations in a low-income, obese pregnant population, although some factors were associated with earlier entry to prenatal care. |  |
| Hartley et al 2015355  SLR | 12 studies | **Aim**: To review the existing literature that explores the impact of psychosocial risk factors (psychological distress, body image dissatisfaction, social support, self-efficacy and self-esteem) on excessive gestational weight gain.  **Methods**: A systematic review of peer-reviewed English articles using Academic Search Complete, Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature, MEDLINE Complete, PsycINFO, Informit, Web of Science, and Scopus was conducted. Quantitative studies that investigated psychosocial factors of excessive GWG, published between 2000 and 2014 were included. Studies investigating mothers with a low risk of mental health issues and normally-developing foetuses were eligible for inclusion. | Significant associations were found between depression, body image dissatisfaction, and social support with excessive gestational weight gain. No significant relationships were reported between anxiety, stress, self-efficacy, or self-esteem and excessive gestational weight gain. |  |
| Hill et al 2017358  SLR | 17 studies in meta-analysis  41 studies in narrative synthesis | **Aim:** To systematically review and meta-analyse the associations between parity, pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI), gestational weight gain (GWG) and, when included, postpartum weight retention (PPWR).  **Methods**: Papers reporting associations between parity and BMI and/or GWG in adult women were eligible. | The weighted average effect of parity on gestational weight gain was small and non-significant (r 0.04, 95%CI 0.10 to 0.16, p=0.61; 17 studies).  After adjusting for pre-pregnancy BMI, the weighted average effect was small and non-significant (r 0.08, 95% CI 0.19 to 0.03, p=0.16; 16 studies). |  |
| Kapadia et al 2015356  SLR | 25 cohort  8 cross-section  2 case-control | **Aim**: To summarise the relation between psychological factors and GWG.  **Methods**: Eight databases were searched, and the guidelines on Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses were followed. Methodological quality of the included studies was assessed using a modified Newcastle-Ottawa scale. Two assessors independently reviewed titles, abstracts and full articles, extracted data and assessed quality. | Negative affective states such as depression, anxiety and stress were not related to excess gestational weight gain. Among weight-related and dietary-related cognitions, risk factors for excess gestational weight gain included concern about weight gain, negative body image and attitude towards weight gain, inaccurate perceptions regarding weight, higher than recommended target weight gain, less knowledge about weight gain, higher levels of cognitive dietary restraint, and perceived barriers to healthy eating. Protective factors included an internal locus of control for weight gain, lower than recommended target weight gain and higher self-efficacy for healthy eating. Only one study examined the relation between personality and excess gestational weight gain. |  |
| Provenzano et al 2015361  United States  Cohort | 2,128 women | **Aim**: To examine associations of material hardship with pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI), gestational weight gain (GWG), and substantial postpartum weight retention (SPPWR; ≥5 kg at 1 year).  **Methods**: At recruitment, women reported whether they experienced material hardship, defined as having ever received public assistance, welfare, or lacked basic necessities (food, rent, or medical care) during childhood, in adulthood before pregnancy, and/or in pregnancy. We used multivariable logistic models adjusted for age, race/ethnicity, and parity (and prepregnancy BMI for GWG and SPPWR) to examine associations of material hardship with the three weight-related outcomes (BMI, GWG, and SPPWR). | Weight gain exceeding guidelines:   * Hardship in childhood: OR 1.45, 95%CI 0.99 to 2.14 * Hardship in adulthood: OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.41 to 1.26 * Hardship in pregnancy: OR 1.09; 95%CI 0.43 to 2.76 |  |
| Schumacher et al 2018351  Australia  Cohort | 110 | **Aim**: to determine the adequacy of gestational weight gain for a cohort of Indigenous Australian women and investigate whether it is associated with pre-pregnancy body mass index.  **Methods**: analysis of observational data collected from a longitudinal cohort study that follows Indigenous Australian women through pregnancy.  **Population**: Women who either identified as being an Indigenous Australian or as carrying an Indigenous child recruited through antenatal clinics in regional and remote towns in NSW, Australia to the Gomeroi gaaynggal program.  **Outcomes measured**: Measurements included weight and height, self-reported pre-pregnancy weight and smoking status, parity and health conditions that may contribute to gestational weight gain, such as hypertensive or diabetic disorders. | Compared to IOM recommendations for gestational weight gain and based on prepregnancy body mass index, the rate of adequate gestational weight gain in this cohort was very low (15%). 32% of women had inadequate weight gain and 54% had excessive weight gain. The highest rate of excessive gestational weight gain was found in overweight women (74%), with rates of 48% and 50% found in healthy and obese (all classes) categories, respectively. Parity (coefficient 4.5, p<0.01) and hypertension (coefficient 4.8, p=0.04) were found to be significantly associated with gestational weight gain in mixed model linear regression.  Culturally acceptable ways of addressing this issue are needed for this group of women. |  |
| Headen et al 2015354  United States  Cohort | 6,849 | **Aim**: To investigate whether associations between race/ethnicity and GWG adequacy were modified by pre-pregnancy BMI among all births to African American, Hispanic, and Caucasian women.  **Methods**: We used generalised estimating equations, adjusted for marital status, parity, smoking during pregnancy, gestational age, and multiple measures of socioeconomic position. | Inadequate GWG compared to Caucasian women   * African American (healthy weight range): RR 1.34, 95%CI 1.18 to 1.52 * Hispanic women (healthy weight range): RR 1.33, 95%CI 1.15 to 1.54) * African American (underweight): RR 1.38, 95%CI 1.07 to 1.79.   Differences in risk of inadequate GWG were not significant among overweight and obese women. |  |
| Hulman et al 2017360  Canada  Cohort | 509 | **Aim:**  to compare patterns of GWG based on serial antenatal weight measurements between women who: never smoked, quit during pregnancy, continued to smoke.  **Methods**: Participants (N = 509) of our longitudinal study were recruited from seven antenatal clinics in Southwestern Ontario. Serial GWG measurements were abstracted from medical charts, while information on smoking status was obtained from a self-administered questionnaire at a median gestational age of 32 (27-37) weeks. GWG patterns were assessed by fitting piecewise mixed-effects models. First trimester weight gains and weekly rates for the last two trimesters were compared by smoking status. | Weight gain in the first trimester:   * Women who never smoked: 1.7 kg (95%CI 1.4 to 2.1) * Women who quit during pregnancy: 1.2 kg (95%CI 0.3 to 2.1) * Women who continued smoking: 3.5 kg, 95%CI 2.4 to 4.6).   Women who quit smoking versus those who never smoked:   * Weekly weight gain in second and third trimesters: MD 0.09; 95%CI 0.03, 0.15 |  |
| Mendez et al 2014352  United States  Cohort | 55,608 | **Aim**: To explore the relationship between neighbourhood socioeconomic disadvantage (NSED) and gestational weight gain and loss and if the association differed by race.  **Methods**: A census tract level NSED index (categorized as low, mid-low, mid-high, and high) was generated from 12 measures from the 2000 US Census data. Gestational weight gain and other individual-level characteristics were derived from vital birth records. Crude and adjusted relative risks were estimated using modified multilevel Poisson regression models to estimate the association between NSED and excessive and inadequate gestational weight gain (GWG) and weight loss (versus adequate GWG). | African American women were more likely than Caucasian women to have inadequate weight gain or weight loss. Mid-high (aRR 1.3, 95%CI 1.2 to 1.3) and high (aRR 1.5, 95%CI 1.5 to 1.6) NSED compared to low NSED was associated with inadequate weight gain while NSED was not associated with excessive weight gain. Among African American women, high versus low NSED was associated with weight loss during pregnancy (RR 1.6, 95%CI 1.1 to 2.5). Among Caucasian women, each level of NSED compared to low NSED was associated with weight loss during pregnancy. |  |
| Mendez et al 2016353  United States  Cohort | 73,061 | **Aim**: To examine whether neighbourhood racial composition and neighbourhood poverty was associated with weight before pregnancy and weight gain during pregnancy and if this association differed by race.  **Methods**: We used vital birth records of singleton births of 73,061 African American and Caucasian women. Maternal race and ethnicity, pre-pregnancy body-mass-index (BMI), gestational weight gain and other individual-level characteristics were derived from vital birth record data, and measures of neighbourhood racial composition (percentage of black residents in the neighbourhood) and poverty (percentage of households in the neighbourhood below the federal poverty) were derived using US Census data. Multilevel log binomial regression models were performed to estimate neighbourhood racial composition and poverty in association with pre-pregnancy weight (ie overweight/obese) and gestational weight gain (ie inadequate and excessive). | African American women as compared to Caucasian women were more likely to be overweight/obese before pregnancy and to have inadequate gestational weight gain (53.6% vs. 38.8%; 22.5% vs. 14.75 respectively). African American women living in predominately African American neighbourhoods were slightly more likely to be obese prior to pregnancy compared to African American women living in predominately Caucasian neighbourhoods (PR 1.10; 95% CI: 1.03, 1.16). African American and Caucasian women living in high poverty areas compared with women living in lower poverty areas were more likely to be obese prior to pregnancy; while only Caucasian women living in high poverty areas compared to low poverty areas were more likely gain an inadequate amount of weight during pregnancy. |  |
| Morisset et al 2017359  Canada  Cohort | 1,145 women | **Aim**: To describe adherence to gestational weight gain (GWG) recommendations and identify determinants of excessive GWG in a sample of women from Quebec, Canada.  **Methods**: Data were collected from the multi-centre 3D (Design, Develop, Discover) pregnancy cohort study, which included women who delivered between May 2010 and August 2012 at 9 obstetrical hospitals in Quebec, Canada. GWG was calculated for 1145 women and compared to the 2009 Institute of Medicine (IOM) recommendations. | Risk of exceeding gestational weight gain recommendations:   * Maternal age (<30 vs ≥30): OR 1.02; 95%CI 0.98 to 1.02; p=0.89 * Pre-pregnancy BMI (≥25 vs <25): OR 3.35; 95%CI 2.44 to 4.64; p<0.0001 * Household income (<$60,000 vs ≥$60,000): OR 1.06; 95%CI 0.71 to 1.26; p=0.71 * Education level (<university vs ≥university degree): OR 1.26; 95%CI 0.93 to 1.70; p=0.14 * Country of birth (other countries vs Canada): OR 1.05; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.41; p=0.73 |  |

1. Q7 Risks associated with weight gain above or below the IOM guidelines

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Aune et al 2019366  SLR | 24 cohort studies | **Aim:** To conduct a systematic literature review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies on adiposity and risk of urinary incontinence.  **Methods**: We searched PubMed and Embase databases up to 19 July 2017. Prospective cohort studies were included. Data were extracted by one reviewer and checked for accuracy by a second reviewer. Summary relative risks (RRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated using random effects models. \ | Two prospective studies (6,015 cases and 41,679 participants) were included in the analysis of weight gain and risk of urinary incontinence. The summary RR was 1.34 per 10 kg of weight gain (95% CI 1.11 to 1.62). |  |
| Tian et al 2019367  SLR | 5 cohort studies  3,793 children | **Aim**: to evaluate the relationship between gestational weight gain and risk of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) in offspring.  **Methods**: Four electronic databases were searched up to August 28 2018 to identify observational studies reporting the association between gestational weight gain and risk of ASD in the offspring. Five studies with a total of 3793 children with ASD were included in the meta-analysis. | The-results indicated that excessive gestational weight gain may increase the risk of ASD in offspring (p=0.0008, OR 1.23, 95%CI 1.09 to 1.38). More high quality cohort studies are needed to confirm this result. |  |
| Santos et al 2019362  Meta-analysis  Europe, North America, and Oceania | 39 cohorts  265,270 births | **Aim**: To assess the separate and combined associations of maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) and gestational weight gain with the risks of pregnancy complications and their population impact.  **Methods**: Information on maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain, and pregnancy complications was obtained. Multilevel binary logistic regression models were used. | Compared with healthy weight women with medium gestational weight gain, overweight and obese women had higher risks of any pregnancy complication, independent of their gestational weight gain (P < 0.05).  The highest risk of any pregnancy complication was observed for obese women with high weight gain (OR 2.51, 95%CI 2.31 to 2.74).  Low and high gestational weight gain were also, among healthy weight women, associated with a higher risk of any pregnancy complication (p<0.05). Obese women with high gestational weight gain had the highest risks of gestational hypertension (OR 4.52, 95%CI 3.86 to 5.31), pre-eclampsia (OR 4.58, 95%CI 3.90 to 5.37), gestational diabetes (OR 7.84, 95% CI 6.38 to 9.62), preterm birth (OR 2.14, 95% CI 1.86–2.46), and large for gestational age at birth (OR 4.77, 95% CI 4.35 to 5.22). Underweight mothers with low gestational weight gain had the highest risk of small for gestational age at birth (OR 3.12, 95% CI 2.75 to 3.54). |  |
| Goldstein et al 2017363  SLR | 23 studies  1,309,136 women | **Aim**: To perform a systematic review, meta-analysis, and metaregression to evaluate associations between gestational weight gain above or below the IOM guidelines and maternal and infant outcomes.  **Methods**: Search of EMBASE, Evidence-Based Medicine Reviews, MEDLINE, and MEDLINE In-Process between January 1, 1999, and February 7, 2017, for observational studies stratified by prepregnancy BMI category and total gestational weight gain. Data were extracted by 2 independent reviewers. Odds ratios (ORs) and absolute risk differences (ARDs) per live birth were calculated using a random-effects model based on a subset of studies with available data. | *Gestational weight gain below the recommendations*   * Small for gestational age: OR 1.53; 95% CI, 1.44 to 1.64 * Preterm birth: OR 1.70; 95%CI 1.32 to 2.20 * Large for gestational age: OR 0.59; 95%CI 0.55 to 0.64 * Macrosomia: OR 0.60; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.68 * Caesarean section: OR 0.98; 95%CI 0.96 to 1.02   *Gestational weight gain above the recommendations*   * Small for gestational age: OR 0.66; 95%CI 0.63 to 0.69 * Preterm birth: OR, 0.77; 95%CI 0.69 to 0.86 * Large for gestational age: OR 1.85; 95%CI 1.76 to 1.95 * Macrosomia: OR 1.95; 95%CI 1.79 to 2.11 * Caesarean section: OR 1.30; 95%CI 1.25 to 1.35 |  |
| Goldstein et al 2018369  SLR | 23 studies  1,309,136 women | **Aim**: To explore ethnic differences in maternal prepregnancy body mass index (BMI), GWG and health outcomes across regions.  **Methods**: Systematic review, meta-analysis and meta-regression of observational studies were used for the study. MEDLINE, MEDLINE In-Process, Embase and all Evidence-Based Medicine (EBM) Reviews were searched from 1999 to 2017. Studies were stratified by prepregnancy BMI category and total pregnancy GWG. Odds ratio (ORs) 95% confidence intervals (CI) applied recommended GWG within each BMI category as the reference. Primary outcomes were small for gestational age (SGA), preterm birth and large for gestational age (LGA). Secondary outcomes were macrosomia, caesarean section and gestational diabetes. | Gestational weight gain below guidelines versus within guidelines:   * Small for gestational age: OR 1.51; 95%CI 1.39 to 1.63 (USA/Europe); OR 1.63; 95%CI 1.45 to 1.82 (Asia) * Preterm birth: OR 1.35; 95%CI 1.17 to 1.56 (USA/Europe); OR 1.06; 95%CI 0.78 to 1.44 (Asia)   Gestational weight gain above guidelines versus within guidelines:   * Large for gestational age: OR 1.93; 95%CI 1.81 to 2.06 (USA/Europe); OR 1.68; 95%CI 1.51 to 1.87 (Asia) * Macrosomia: OR 1.87; 95%CI 1.70 to 2.06 (USA/Europe); OR 2.18; 95%CI 1.91 to 2.49 (Asia) * Caesarean section: OR 1.26; 95%CI 1.21 to 1.33 (USA/Europe); OR 1.37; 95%CI 1.30 to 1.45 (Asia) |  |
| Carreno et al 2012368  Secondary analysis of RCT  United States | 7,895 | **Aim**: To estimate whether there is an association between excessive early gestational weight gain and the development of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) and excessive fetal growth.  **Methods**: This is a secondary analysis of a randomised controlled trial of vitamins C and E in nulliparous low-risk women. Maternal weight gain from prepregnancy (self-reported) to 15-18 weeks of gestation was measured, and expected gestational weight gain was determined using the Institute of Medicine 2009 guidelines for each prepregnancy body mass index category. Excessive early gestational weight gain was defined as gestational weight gain greater than the upper range of the Institute of Medicine guidelines. Rates of GDM, birth weight greater than 4,000 g, and large for gestational age (LGA, birth weight 90 percentile or higher) were calculated and compared between women with excessive early gestational weight gain and early nonexcessive gestational weight gain (within or below Institute of Medicine guidelines). | Excessive early gestational weight gain occurred in 47.5% of women. Ninety-three percent of women with excessive early gestational weight gain had total gestational weight gain greater than Institute of Medicine guidelines. In contrast, only 55% of women with non-excessive early gestational weight gain had total gestational weight gain greater than Institute of Medicine guidelines (P<.001). Rates of GDM (OR 1.4; 95%CI 1.1 to 1.9), LGA (OR 1.4; 95%CI 1.2 to 1.6), and macrosomia >4,000 g (OR 1.5; 95%CI 1.3 to 1.8) were higher in women with excessive early gestational weight gain. |  |
| Kapadia et al 2015370  SLR | 18 cohort studies  99,723 women | **Aim**: To determine the risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes with gestational weight gain (GWG) below the 2009 Institute of Medicine guidelines compared with within the guidelines in obese women.  **Methods**: MEDLINE, Embase, Cochrane Register, CINHAL and Web of Science were searched from 1 January 2009 to 31 July 2014. Quality was assessed using a modified Newcastle-Ottawa scale. Three primary outcomes were included: preterm birth, small for gestational age (SGA) and large for gestational age (LGA). | Gestational weight gain below the guidelines vs within the guidelines:   * Preterm birth: aOR 1.46; 95%CI 1.07 to 2.00; 2 studies, n=2,660 * Small for gestational age: OR 1.24; 95%CI 1.13 to 1.36; 5 studies; n=11,975 * Large for gestational age: aOR 0.77; 95%CI 0.73 to 0.81; 5 studies; n=11,983 * Low birth weight: aOR1.08; 95%CI 0.76 to 1.54; 2 studies; n=8,680 * Macrosomia: aOR 0.64; 95%CI 0.54 to 0.77; 4 studies; n-9,994 * Gestational hypertension: aOR, 0.70; 95%CI 0.53 to 0.93; 2 studies; n=2,781 * Gestational diabetes: aOR1.15; 95%CI 0.91 to 1.45; 1 study; n=882 * Pre-eclampsia: aOR 0.90; 95%CI 0.82 to 0.99; 4 studies; n=22,500 * Caesarean section: aOR 0.87; 95%CI 0.82 to 0.92; 4 studies; n=27,241 * Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes: aOR 0.92; 95%CI 0.67 to 1.27; 3 studies; n=26,449 * Postpartum weight retention: MD -5.3; 95%CI -9.0 to 1.17; 2 studies; n=31 |  |
| Kapadia et al 2015371  SLR | 6 cohort studies  60,913 obese women | **Aim**: To summarise pregnancy outcomes in obese women with gestational weight loss compared to gestational weight gain within the 2009 Institute of Medicine guidelines (5-9 kg).  **Methods**: Five databases were searched from 1 January 2009 to 31 July 2014. The Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions and the PRISMA Statement were followed. A modified version of the Newcastle-Ottawa scale was used to assess individual study quality. Small for gestational age (SGA), large for gestational age (LGA) and preterm birth were our primary outcomes. | Gestational weight loss versus weight gain within the guidelines:   * Small for gestational age: aOR 1.76; 95%CI 1.45 to 2.14; 2 studies * Large for gestational age: aOR 0.57; 95%CI 0.52 to 0.62; 2 studies * Low birth weight: aOR 1.68; 95%CI 1.10 to 2.57; 1 study * Macrosomia: aOR 0.58; 95%CI 0.38 to 0.89; 1 study * Caesarean section: aOR 0.73; 95%CI 0.67 to 0.80; 2 studies * Gestational diabetes: aOR 0.88; 95%CI 0.62 to 1.25; 1 study * Pre-eclampsia: aOR 0.82; 95%CI 0.66 to 1.02; 1 study * Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes: aOR 1.08; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.44; 2 studies   No studies reported on preterm birth. |  |
| Voerman et al 2019365  Meta-analysis | 162,129 mothers and their children | **Aim**: To assess the separate and combined associations of maternal BMI and gestational weight gain with the risk of overweight/obesity throughout childhood, and their population impact.  **Methods**: We conducted an individual participant data meta-analysis of data from 37 pregnancy and birth cohort studies from Europe, North America, and Australia. We assessed the individual and combined associations of maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and gestational weight gain, both in clinical categories and across their full ranges, with the risks of overweight/obesity in early (2.0-5.0 years), mid (5.0-10.0 years) and late childhood (10.0-18.0 years), using multilevel binary logistic regression models with a random intercept at cohort level adjusted for maternal sociodemographic and lifestyle-related characteristics. | Weight gain exceeding guidelines:   * Early childhood overweight/obesity: OR 1.39; 95% CI: 1.30 to 1.49 * Mid childhood overweight/obesity: OR 1.55; 95%CI 1.49 to 1.60 * Late childhood overweight/obesity: OR 1.72; 95%CI 1.56 to 1.91   Relative to the effect of maternal BMI, excessive gestational weight gain only slightly increased the risk of childhood overweight/obesity within each clinical BMI category (p-values for interactions of maternal BMI with gestational weight gain: p = 0.038, p < 0.001, and p = 0.637 in early, mid, and late childhood, respectively). |  |

1. Q7 Women’s perceptions and views on weight gain in pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Vanstone et al 2017372  SLR | 42 studies  1,339 women | **Aim**: To understand the continuing increase in the proportion of pregnant women gaining weight in excess of national guidelines continues to increase. .  **Methods**: We conducted a systematic review of qualitative research on pregnant women's perceptions and experiences of weight gain in pregnancy. We used the methodology of qualitative meta-synthesis to analyse empirical qualitative research studies conducted in high-income countries and published between 2005 and 2015. | Women are highly motivated to change their behaviour to improve fetal health, but may not recognise the link between excess gestational weight gain and negative fetal health outcomes.  Weight gain in pregnancy occurs within a complex social environment and is affected by intrapersonal, interpersonal, social, structural, and environmental factors. Women facing social disadvantage may face additional barriers to appropriate weight gain, and may not have access to mitigating resources.  Weight gain is a sensitive topic, and thorough counselling takes significant clinician time. Regular, forthright, sensitive counselling geared to individual circumstances was frequently mentioned as a strong facilitator of healthy weight gain in pregnancy. |  |
| Weeks et al 2020374  Canada, United States  Cross-section | 1,507 women | **Aim**: To determine pregnant women and new mothers' perceptions of healthcare provider GWG and dietary counselling during the pregnancy period.  **Methods**: A reliable and validated cross-sectional electronic survey was administered to currently pregnant women and women who had recently given birth. The web-based questionnaire was self-administered and took 10-25min. | More than half (57%) reported that their healthcare provider talked to them about personal weight gain limits. Of these participants, about a third (34%) of participants were counselled regularly at each or most visits. Among the women that were not counselled on personal GWG limits, over half (56%) reported that healthcare provider guidance would have been helpful to achieve their target weight. Less than half (45%) of participants reported that their healthcare providers discussed dietary requirements or changes in pregnancy. |  |
| Lopez-Cepero et al 2018375  United States  Cross-section | 91 | **Aim**: To examine associations between pregnant women's report of obstetric provider GWG advice, self-reported adherence to such advice, and GWG.  **Methods**: Healthy pregnant women who started obstetric care prior to 17 weeks of gestation completed assessments between 30 and 34 weeks of gestation. These included survey (questions on receipt of and adherence to provider GWG advice, and demographics) and anthropometric measures. GWG data were abstracted from electronic health records. Analyses included Chi square and Mann-Whitney tests, and binary and multivariate logistic regressions. | Sixty-seven percent of women reported having received GWG advice from their obstetric providers and, of those, 54.1% reported that they followed their provider's advice. Controlling for race, education and pre-pregnancy BMI, receipt of GWG advice was marginally associated with increased odds of excessive weight gain (OR 2.52, 95%CI 0.89 to 7.16). However, women who reported following the advice had lower odds of excessive GWG (OR 0.18, 95%CI 0.03 to 0.91) and, on average, gained 11.3 pounds less than those who reported following the advice somewhat or not at all. |  |
| Allen-Walker et al 2017376  Ireland  Cross-section | 10 | **Aim:** To explore routine weighing in antenatal care and weight management in pregnancy with women who have been weighed during pregnancy.  **Population**: Women who gave birth 9 months previously and had been weighed during pregnancy.  **Methods**: a qualitative study utilising semi-structured telephone interviews, and thematic analysis. | Experiences of routine weighing were positive, and participants believed it should be part of standard antenatal care. Several benefits to routine weighing were cited, including providing reassurance and minimising postpartum weight retention. It was felt that there was a lack of information provided on gestational weight gain and healthy lifestyle in pregnancy, and that healthcare professionals are ideally placed to provide this advice. Increased information provision was seen as a method to improve healthy lifestyle behaviours in pregnancy. |  |
| Hill et al 2019373  Australia  Cross-section | 265 preconception women  271 pregnant women | **Aim**: To explore knowledge and belief formation regarding gestational weight gain for preconception and pregnant women.  **Methods**: Women ≥18 years (preconception; pregnant women at 16 weeks gestation) completed questionnaires assessing knowledge and beliefs about gestational weight gain. Responses were categorised according to the 2009 Institute of Medicine gestational weight gain recommendations. | Only half of pregnant women reported accurate gestational weight gain knowledge within the Institute of Medicine recommendations. Beliefs about gestational weight gain were also inaccurate for both preconception and pregnant women, with 34.1% of pregnant and 44.6% of preconception women expecting to gain less than recommendations. |  |

1. Q7 Health professionals’ views on regular weighing in pregnancy

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Hasted et al 2016377  Australia  Cross-section | 44 | **Aim:** To identify clinicians' perspectives of barriers and enablers to routinely weighing pregnant women and variations in current practice, knowledge, and attitudes between different staff groups.  **Methods**: Forty-four maternity staff from three professional groups were interviewed in four focus groups. Staff included midwives; medical staff; and dietitians. Transcripts underwent qualitative content analysis to identify and examine barriers and enablers to the routine weighing of women throughout pregnancy. | While most staff supported routine weighing, various concerns were raised. Issues included access to resources and staff; the ability to provide appropriate counselling and evidence-based interventions; and the impact of weighing on patients and the therapeutic relationship. |  |

1. Q7 Weighing as a stand-alone intervention to reduce weight gain — SLRs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Fealy et al 2017382  SLR | 2 RCTs | **Aim**: To test if routine weighing as a stand-alone intervention can reduce total pregnancy weight gain and, in particular, excessive gestational weight gain.  **Methods**: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) was conducted between November 2014 and January 2016, and reported using the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses. Seven databases were searched. A priori eligibility criteria were applied to published literature by at least two independent reviewers. Studies considered methodologically rigorous, as per the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics Quality Criteria Checklist for Primary Research, were included. Meta-analysis was conducted using fixed-effects models. | Intervention versus control:  Gestational weight gain (kg/week): WMD -0.00; 95%CI -0.03 to 0.02  Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines:   * BMI <18.5: OR 1.50; 95%CI 0.14 to 16.54 * BMI 18.5 to 24.9: OR 0.72; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.09 * BMI 25 to 29.9: OR 0.85; 95%CI 0.45 to 1.62 * BMI >30: OR 1.60; 95%CI 0.72 to 3.54 | The RCTs assessed different interventions (clinician weighing versus self-weighing). |

1. Q7 Regular weighing and advice on weight gain versus usual care — RCTs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Outcomes** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Brownfoot et al 2016383  Australia | Intervention 355  Control 288 | **Aim**: To assess whether routinely weighing women at each antenatal visit leads to a difference in gestational weight gain and weight gain within the IOM recommendations.  **Population**: Healthy women were enrolled during their antenatal booking visit if they were between 18 and 45 years of age, were <21 weeks’ gestation with a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**: The intervention was weighing at each antenatal clinic appointment followed by counselling by their treating clinician according to IOM gestational weight gain guidelines. The control group had standard antenatal care comprising recording weight at booking and then at 36 weeks. Primary analysis was by intention-to-treat. | *Intervention versus control*  Weekly weight gain (kg per week):   * Overall: 0.54±0.28 (n=355) vs 0.53±0.24 (n=288) * BMI <18.5: 0.68±0.22 (n=5) vs 0.71±0.21 (n=6) * BMI 18.5 to 24.9: 0.56±0.26 (n=192) vs 0.54±0.22 (n=152) * BMI 25 to 19.9: 0.53±0.3 (n=104) vs 0,53±0,24 (n=93) * BMI >30: 0.48±0.26 (n=56) vs 0.42±0.28 (n=37)   Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines:   * Overall: 267/355 vs 204/288 * BMI <18.5: 3/5 vs 3/6 * BMI 18.5–24.9: 131/190 vs 96/152 * BMI 24.9–30: 87/104 vs 77/93 * BMI >30: 46/56 vs 28/37   Intervention vs control:   * Gestational hypertension/pre-eclampsia: 18/386 vs 16/288 |
| Brownfoot et al 2016385  Australia | 586 | **Aim**: To assess the opinions of pregnant women regarding their weight gain and to assess the level of satisfaction and anxiety provoked by being weighed in clinic.  **Population**: In all, 782 healthy pregnant women participated in the randomised controlled trial and 586 responded to the questionnaire.  **Intervention**: Questionnaires were given to women participating in a randomised controlled trial comparing routine weighing in the antenatal clinic with standard care.  A questionnaire was offered to all participants at 36 weeks of gestation gauging their satisfaction with their weight gain during pregnancy. The intervention group was asked about their level of satisfaction and anxiety provoked by being weighed in clinic. The control group was asked whether they would have liked to be weighed in clinic. Both groups were questioned about the influences on their weight gain. | Women in both groups were satisfied with their weight gain during pregnancy. Of women in the intervention group. 73% were very comfortable with being weighed in clinic. Approximately half of those in the control group would have favoured being weighed. Twenty-one percent of women said other people influenced their weight gain; mostly family members and two-thirds of them encouraged weight gain. Less than half of the women in the study used weighing scales at home.  Women were satisfied with being weighed antenatally and it did not cause anxiety. Pregnant women accepted the re-introduction of weighing in the antenatal clinic. |
| Daley et al 2015386  United Kingdom | Intervention 34  Control 34 | **Aim**: to establish the feasibility and acceptability of incorporating regular weighing, setting maximum weight gain targets and feedback by community midwives.  **Population**: Low risk pregnant women at 10–14 weeks.  **Intervention**: Community midwives weighed and plotted weight on a weight gain chart, setting weight gain limit targets, giving brief feedback at each antenatal appointment and encouraging women to weigh themselves weekly between antenatal appointments. Women and midwives were interviewed about their views of the intervention. | *Intervention versus control*  Gestational weight gain:   * Overall: 12.0±4.5 (n=34) vs 12.1±5.9 (n=34) * BMI 18.5 to 24.9: 12.3±4.0 (n=18) vs 12.6±5.1 (n=19) * BMI 25 to 29.9: 11.6±5.1 (n=16) vs 11.6±7.0 (n=15)   Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines:   * Overall: 8/34 vs 10/34 * BMI 18.5 to 24.9: 2/18 vs 2/19 * BMI 25 to 29.9: 6/16 vs 8/15   Depression (HADS score): 3.8±2.7 (n=20) vs 5.4±3.4 (n=24)  Anxiety (HADS score): 4.7±2.7 (n=31) vs 5.7±3.0 (n=24)  Most women in a subset (9/12) commented the intervention was useful in encouraging them to think about their weight and believed it should be part of routine antenatal care.  A subset of community midwives (7/7) felt the intervention could be implemented within routine care without adding substantially to consultation length. |
| Daley et al 2019387  United Kingdom | Intervention 329  Control 327 | **Aim**: To assess the effectiveness of a brief behavioural intervention based on routine antenatal weighing to prevent excessive gestational weight gain (defined by US Institute of Medicine).  **Population**: Women between 10(+0) and 14(+6) weeks gestation, not requiring specialist obstetric care.  **Intervention**: Participants were randomised to usual antenatal care or usual care (UC) plus the intervention. The intervention involved community midwives weighing women at antenatal appointments, setting maximum weight gain limits between appointments and providing brief feedback. Women were encouraged to monitor and record their own weight weekly to assess their progress against the maximum limits set by their midwife. The comparator was usual maternity care. | *Intervention versus control*  Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines   * Overall: 81/305 (27.6%) versus 90/311 (28.9%)   Anxiety: 5.18±3.09 (n=136) vs 5.89±3.58 (n=133)  Depression: 3.93±3.04 (n=136) vs 4.56±3.04 (n=133) |

## **Q8**: What specific risk assessments are required for pregnant women with high or low BMI at the first antenatal visit?

### Risks associated with pre-pregnancy underweight

Systematic reviews are consistent in finding that low pre-pregnancy BMI is associated with an increased risk of preterm birth388,389, small for gestational age389-392 and low birthweight388-390,392. Systematic reviews have also found a possible increase in risk of miscarriage393 and placental abruption394 and a decreased risk of gestational diabetes.395 There was no clear effect on risk of congenital heart defects.396

### Risks associated with pre-pregnancy healthy weight

A meta-analysis of individual participant data (n=265,270)362 found that among women with healthy pre-pregnancy BMI:

* low weight gain was associated with an increased risk of ‘any pregnancy complication’ (p<0.05), preterm birth (p<0.001) and small for gestational age (p<0.001) and a reduced risk of large for gestational age (p<0.001)
* high weight gain was associated with an increased risk of ‘any pregnancy complication’, gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, preterm birth and large for gestational age and a reduced risk of small-for-gestational age (all p<0.001).

### Risk associated with pre-pregnancy overweight and obesity

Systematic reviews were consistent in finding that pre-pregnancy overweight and obesity was associated with large for gestational age389,390,392, macrosomia,389,390,392 and childhood overweight/obesity392.365

Systematic reviews have also found associations between high pre-pregnancy BMI and:

* increased risk of gestational diabetes,395 preterm birth, neonatal asphyxia,390 admission to neonatal intensive care, stillbirth,389 and congenital heart defects396,397
* reduced risk of small for gestational age391 and placental abruption.394

Systematic reviews also found a decreased likelihood of initiating breastfeeding among obese women.398,399

1. Q8 Risks associated with low pre-pregnancy BMI — SLRs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Zhu et al 2018396 | 13 case-control studies  4 cohort studies | **Aim**: To address the open question of a possible association between maternal body mass index (BMI) and congenital heart defects (CHDs) in infants.  **Methods**: We conducted a comprehensive computerised search of PubMed, Web of Science, Medline, and Embase databased (January 1980 through August 2017). We assessed the association between maternal BMI and the risk for congenital heart defects in their offspring. Study-specific relative risk estimates were polled according to random-effect or fixed-effect models. | Risk of congenital heart defects relative to healthy weight:   * Underweight OR 1.0 (95%CI 0.98 to 1.05; P=0.085 |  |
| Han et al 2011388 | 78 cohort studies  1,025,794 women | **Aim**: To determine the relationship between maternal underweight and preterm birth (PTB) and low birth weight (LBW) in singleton pregnancies in developing and developed countries.  **Methods**: We searched MEDLINE and EMBASE from their inceptions. We included studies that assessed the effect of maternal underweight compared with normal weight according to body mass index in singleton gestations on our two primary outcomes: PTB (<37 weeks) and LBW (<2500 g). Two assessors independently reviewed citations, extracted data and assessed quality. | Underweight women had a higher risk of:   * preterm birth: RR 1.29, 95%CI 1.15 to 1.46 * spontaneous preterm birth: RR 1.32, 95%CI 1.10 to 1.57 * induced preterm birth: RR 1.21, 95%CI 1.07 to 1.36 * low birthweight: RR 1.64, 95%CI 1.38 to 1.94.   Risk of preterm birth among underweight women:   * developed countries: RR 1.22, 95%CI 1.15 to 1.30 * developing countries (RR 0.99, 95%CI 0.67 to 1.45).   Risk of low birthweight:   * Developed countries: RR 1.48, 95%CI 1.29 to 1.68, * Developing countries: RR 1.52, 95%CI 1.25 to 1.85. |  |
| Liu et al 2016389 | 60 cohort studies  1,392,799 women | **Aim**: To quantify the association between maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) and perinatal outcomes.  **Methods**: We systematically reviewed and collected studies on maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and perinatal outcomes published up to 31 August 2015. For each study, we constructed separate two-by-two tables to calculate the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). | When mothers were underweight, their infants had a higher risk of:   * preterm birth: OR 1.30, 95%CI, 1.13 to 1.49 * small for gestational age: OR 1.67, 95%CI 1.49 to 1.87) * low birth weight: OR 1.67, 95%CI, 1.39 to 2.02 |  |
| Liu et al 2019390 | 46 cohort studies | **Aim**: To evaluate maternal BMI and the risk of harmful neonatal outcomes in China.  **Methods**: Six databases identified 2454 articles; 46 met the inclusion criteria for this study. The dichotomous data on maternal BMI and harmful neonatal outcomes were extracted. Pooled statistics (odds ratios, ORs) were derived from Stata/SE, ver. 12.0. Sensitivity analyses assessed the robustness of the results. Meta-regression and subgroup meta-analyses explored heterogeneity. | Compared with healthy BMI, maternal underweight increased the risk of   * low birth weight: OR 1.61, 95% CI 1.33 to 1.93 * small for gestational age: OR 1.75, 95% CI 1.51 to 2.02 |  |
| Torloni et al 2009395 | 70 studies (59 cohorts and 11 case-controls)  671 945 women | **Aim**: To assess and quantify the risk for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) according to prepregnancy maternal body mass index (BMI).  **Methods**: Four electronic databases were searched for publications (1977-2007). BMI was elected as the only measure of obesity, and all diagnostic criteria for GDM were accepted. Studies with selective screening for GDM were excluded. There were no language restrictions. The methodological quality of primary studies was assessed. Most studies were of high or medium quality. | Risk in underweight women compared with women with a healthy BMI:   * gestational diabetes: OR 0.75; 95%CI 0.69 to 0.82) |  |
| Goto et al 2017391 | 323,243 women | **Aim**: To determine the dose-response relationships between maternal anthropometric variables and risk of small for gestational age (SGA).  **Methods**: Linear and nonlinear dose-response meta-analyses were performed to summarize the adjusted relative risks of SGA. Ten databases, including PubMed (MEDLINE), were searched. Study quality was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa scale. | Risk of SGA relative to the mean (21.5 kg/m2):   * 12.5 kg/m: RR 1.907 (1.477 to 2.461) * 15.5 kg/m2: RR 1.514 (1.282 to 1.786) * 18.5 kg/m2: RR 1.210 (1.119 to 1.309) |  |
| Yu et al 2013392 | 45 studies | **Aim**: To determine if pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) is related to infant birth weight (BW) and offspring overweight/obesity.  **Methods**: Three electronic bibliographic databases (MEDLINE, EMBASE and CINAHL) were searched systematically from January 1970 to November 2012. The dichotomous data on pre-pregnancy overweight/obesity and BW or offspring overweight/obesity were extracted. Summary statistics (odds ratios, ORs) were used by Review Manager, version 5.1.7. | Compared with healthy-weight women, pre-pregnancy underweight increased the risk of:   * small for gestational age: OR 1.81; 95%CI 1.76 to 1.87 * low birthweight: OR 1.47; 95%CI 1.27 to 1.71. |  |
| Balsells et al 2016393 | 32 studies (30 cohort, 2 case control)  265,760 women | **Aim:** To review the literature and summarise the risk of miscarriage in underweight women vs those with healthy weight.  **Methods**: A Medline Search (1st January 1990-20th November 2015, human, in English, French, Italian, Spanish or Portuguese) was conducted. Both spontaneous pregnancies and pregnancies after assisted reproduction techniques were considered. Cohort and case control studies were included if they reported data on the outcome of interest (clinical miscarriage), in underweight and normal weight women. Information on clinical miscarriage in other body mass index categories was collected when available. Two investigators reviewed the abstracts, full text papers and extracted data. Review Manager 5.1 software was used to summarize the results. | Risk of miscarriage among underweight women:   * cohort studies: RR 1.08, 95% CI 1.05 to 1.11; p<0.0001 * case control studies: OR 1.02, 95% CI 0.46 to 2.30; p=0.95. |  |
| Adane et al 2019394 | 15 observational studies | **Aim**: To evaluate the associations between pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain and placental abruption.  **Methods**: Relevant studies were identified from PubMed, EMBASE, Scopus and CINAHL. Unpublished findings from analyses of linked population-based data sets from Western Australia (2012–2015, n = 114,792) were also included. Studies evaluating pre-pregnancy body mass index and/or gestational weight gain and placental abruption were included. Two independent reviewers evaluated studies for inclusion and quality. Data including odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were extracted and analysed by random effects meta-analysis. | Risk of placental abruption compared to healthy weight women:   * Underweight: OR 1.4; 95% CI 1.1 to 1.7 |  |

1. Q8 Risks associated with high pre-pregnancy BMI — SLRs

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/methods** | **Outcomes** | **Comments** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Adane et al 2019394 | 15 observational studies | **Aim**: To evaluate the associations between pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain and placental abruption.  **Methods**: Relevant studies were identified from PubMed, EMBASE, Scopus and CINAHL. Unpublished findings from analyses of linked population-based data sets from Western Australia (2012–2015, n = 114,792) were also included. Studies evaluating pre-pregnancy body mass index and/or gestational weight gain and placental abruption were included. Two independent reviewers evaluated studies for inclusion and quality. Data including odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were extracted and analysed by random effects meta-analysis. | Risk of placental abruption compared to healthy weight women:   * Overweight: OR 0.8; 95% CI 0.8 to 0.9 * Obese: OR 0.8; 95% CI 0.7 to 0.9 |  |
| Huang et al 2019398 | 30 cohort studies | **Aim**: To explore the effect of different prepregnancy BMI and gestational weight gain (GWG) categories on breastfeeding initiation and cessation.  **Methods**: Cohort studies were systematically searched in Embase, Web of Science, PubMed, and CINAHL databases from database establishment to February 2019. Summary risk ratio (RR) on breastfeeding initiation and cessation was estimated with the use of a random-effects model. | Prepregnancy obesity was associated with increased likelihood of:   * not initiating breastfeeding: RR 1.49, 95%CI 1.33 to 1.67 * not initiating exclusive breastfeeding: RR 1.26, 95%CI 1.17 to 1.36 * lower duration of any breastfeeding: RR 1.34 95%CI 1.16 to 1.56. |  |
| Liu et al 2016389 | 60 studies  1,392,799 women | **Aim**: To quantify the association between maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) and perinatal outcomes.  **Methods**: We systematically reviewed and collected studies on maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and perinatal outcomes published up to 31 August 2015. For each study, we constructed separate two-by-two tables to calculate the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). | When mothers were overweight, their infants had a significantly higher risk of:   * large for gestational age: OR, 1.45, 95%CI 1.29 to 1.63 * macrosomia: OR, 1.70, 95%CI 1.55 to 1.87 * admission to the neonatal intensive care unit: OR, 1.29, 95%CI 1.12 to 1.48 * stillbirth: OR, 1.27, 95%CI 1.18 to 1.36   When mothers were obese, their infants had a significantly higher risk of:   * low birth weight: OR, 1.24, 95%CI 1.09 to 1.41 * large for gestational age: OR 1.88, 95%CI 1.67 to 2.11 * macrosomia: OR 2.92, 95%CI 2.67 to 3.20 * admission to neonatal intensive care unit: OR 1.91, 95%CI 1.60 to 2.29 * stillbirth: OR 1.81, 95%CI 1.69-1.93, |  |
| Liu et al 2019390 | 46 cohort studies | Aim: To evaluate maternal BMI and the risk of harmful neonatal outcomes in China.  **Methods**: Six databases identified 2454 articles; 46 met the inclusion criteria for this study. The dichotomous data on maternal BMI and harmful neonatal outcomes were extracted. Pooled statistics (odds ratios, ORs) were derived from Stata/SE, ver. 12.0. Sensitivity analyses assessed the robustness of the results. Meta-regression and subgroup meta-analyses explored heterogeneity. | Compared with normal BMI, high maternal BMI is associated with:   * macrosomia ≥4000 g: OR 1.91, 95% CI 1.75 to 2.09 * large for gestational age: OR 1.88, 95% CI 1.64 to 2.15 * preterm birth: OR 1.38, 95% CI 1.25 to 2.52 * neonatal asphyxia: OR 1.74, 95% CI 1.39 to 2.17 |  |
| Torloni et al 2009395 | 70 studies (59 cohorts and 11 case-controls)  671 945 women | **Aim**: To assess and quantify the risk for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) according to prepregnancy maternal body mass index (BMI).  **Methods**: Four electronic databases were searched for publications (1977-2007). BMI was elected as the only measure of obesity, and all diagnostic criteria for GDM were accepted. Studies with selective screening for GDM were excluded. There were no language restrictions. The methodological quality of primary studies was assessed. Most studies were of high or medium quality. | Compared with women with a healthy BMI, risk of gestational diabetes:   * overweight: 1.97; 95% CI 1.77 to 2.19 * moderately obese: 3.01; 95% CI 2.34 to 3.87 * morbidly obese: 5.55; 95% CI 4.27 to 7.21.   For every 1 kg m(-2) increase in BMI, the prevalence of GDM increased by 0.92% (95% CI 0.73 to 1.10). |  |
| Goto et al 2017391 | 323,243 women | **Aim**: To determine the dose-response relationships between maternal anthropometric variables and risk of small for gestational age (SGA).  **Methods**: Linear and nonlinear dose-response meta-analyses were performed to summarize the adjusted relative risks of SGA. Ten databases, including PubMed (MEDLINE), were searched. Study quality was assessed using the Newcastle-Ottawa scale. | Risk of SGA relative to the mean (21.5 kg/m2):   * 24.5 kg/m2: RR 0.876 (0.814 to 0.942) * 27.5 kg/m2: RR 0.805 (0.693 to 0.936) * 30.5 kg/m2: RR 0.763 (0.603 to 0.964) |  |
| Yu et al 2013392 | 45 studies | **Aim**: To determine if pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) is related to infant birth weight (BW) and offspring overweight/obesity.  **Methods**: Three electronic bibliographic databases (MEDLINE, EMBASE and CINAHL) were searched systematically from January 1970 to November 2012. The dichotomous data on pre-pregnancy overweight/obesity and BW or offspring overweight/obesity were extracted. Summary statistics (odds ratios, ORs) were used by Review Manager, version 5.1.7. | Pre-pregnancy overweight increased the risk of:   * large for gestational age: OR 1.53; 95% CI, 1.44 to 1.63 * high birthweight: OR 1.53; 95% CI 1.44 to 1.63 * macrosomia: OR 1.67; 95% CI 1.42 to 1.97 * subsequent offspring overweight/obesity: OR 1.95; 95% CI 1.77 to 2.13.   Pre-pregnancy obesity increased the risk of:   * large for gestational age: OR 2.08; 95% CI 1.95 to 2.23 * high birthweight: OR 2.00; 95% CI 1.84 to 2.18 * macrosomia: OR 3.23; 95% CI 2.39 to 4.37 * subsequent offspring overweight/obesity: OR 3.06; 95% CI 2.68 to 3.49. | Sensitivity analyses revealed that sample size, study method, quality grade of study, source of pre-pregnancy BMI or birthweight had a strong impact on the association between pre-pregnancy obesity and large for gestational age. |
| Voerman et al 2019365  Meta-analysis | 162,129 mothers and their children | **Aim**: To assess the separate and combined associations of maternal BMI and gestational weight gain with the risk of overweight/obesity throughout childhood, and their population impact.  **Methods**: We conducted an individual participant data meta-analysis of data from 37 pregnancy and birth cohort studies from Europe, North America, and Australia. We assessed the individual and combined associations of maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and gestational weight gain, both in clinical categories and across their full ranges, with the risks of overweight/obesity in early (2.0-5.0 years), mid (5.0-10.0 years) and late childhood (10.0-18.0 years), using multilevel binary logistic regression models with a random intercept at cohort level adjusted for maternal sociodemographic and lifestyle-related characteristics. | Maternal overweight pre-pregnancy:   * Early childhood overweight/obesity: OR 1.66; 95%CI 1.56 to 1.78 * Mid childhood overweight/obesity: OR 1.91; 95%CI 1.85 to 1.98 * Late childhood overweight/obesity: OR 2.28; 95%CI 2.08 to 2.50   Maternal obesity pre-pregnancy:   * Early childhood overweight/obesity: OR 2.43; 95%CI 2.24 to 2.64 * Mid childhood overweight/obesity: OR 3.12; 95%CI 2.98 to 3.27 * Late childhood overweight/obesity: OR 4.47; 95%CI 3.99 to 5.23 |  |
| Zhu et al 2018396 | 13 case-control studies  4 cohort studies | **Aim**: To address the open question of a possible association between maternal body mass index (BMI) and congenital heart defects (CHDs) in infants.  **Methods**: We conducted a comprehensive computerised search of PubMed, Web of Science, Medline, and Embase databased (January 1980 through August 2017). We assessed the association between maternal BMI and the risk for congenital heart defects in their offspring. Study-specific relative risk estimates were polled according to random-effect or fixed-effect models. | Risk of congenital heart defects relative to healthy weight:   * Overweight: 1.06; 95%CI 1.02 to 1.10; P=0.001) * Obesity: OR: 1.174; 95%CI 1.15 to 1.2, P=0.161 |  |
| Cai et al 2014397 | 14 observational studies | **Aim**: To investigate the relationship between maternal body mass index and all congenital heart defects (CHDs) combined and 11 individual defects.  **Methods**: PubMed, ELSEVIER ScienceDirect, and Springer Link (up to February 2013) were searched, and the reference list of retrieved articles was reviewed. Three authors independently extracted the data. Statistical software was used to perform all statistical analyses. Fixed-effects or random-effects model was used to pool the results of individual study (expressed as odds ratios [ORs] with 95% confidence intervals [CIs]). | Risk of CHD compared to women of healthy weight:   * Overweight: OR 1.08; 95% CI, 1.02 to 1.15 * Moderate obesity (BMI 30.1-34.9): OR 1.15; 95% CI 1.11 to 1.20 * Severe obesity (BMI ≥35): OR 1.39; 95% CI 1.31 to 1.47 |  |
| Garcia et al 2016399 | 81 studies | **Aim**: To examine the associations between maternal weight status or dietary characteristics and breastfeeding or complementary feeding.  **Methods**: A systematic literature search of the Embase, Cochrane Library, Google Scholar, MEDLINE, PubMed, and Web of Science databases was performed. Interventional and cohort studies in healthy mothers and infants that reported on maternal weight status, diet, or supplement use were selected. Outcomes assessed included delayed onset of lactogenesis; initiation, exclusivity, duration, and cessation of breastfeeding; and timing of complementary feeding. | Compared to women of healthy weight, obese women had increased risk of:   * not initiating breastfeeding: RR 1.23; 95%CI 1.03 to 1.47 * delayed onset of lactogenesis: RR 2.06; 95%CI 1.18 to 3.61   The RR for breastfeeding cessation was 1.11 (95%CI, 1.07-1.15) per increase in category of body mass index. |  |

### 

# Interventions to prevent excessive weight gain in pregnancy

## **Q9**: What lifestyle interventions are effective in preventing excessive weight gain and other adverse outcomes in pregnant women?

### Dietary interventions

#### Types of study

The review included 7 studies reported in 9 papers and including 1,664 women. Study populations were heterogeneous and included women of mixed risk,400 women at low risk,240,401 women with uncomplicated pregnancies and BMI ≥29402 or ≥30 kg,403,404 and women without gestational diabetes who had previously had a baby weighing >4,000 g.405,406

Most studies were small with between 100 and 200 participants (n=4). One study had fewer than 100 participants404 and the Walsh et al study had 759 participants.405,406

Studies were conducted in Egypt,400 Ireland,405-407 Italy,401 Finland240 and the United States.403 One multicentre study402 was conducted in the United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium.

#### Types of intervention

Interventions included dietary counselling240,400,402,404-406 or a personalised diet plan with dietician follow-up.401,403

One study used current dietary recommendations for pregnancy,240 one based advice on a nutrition regimen used for gestational diabetes403 and three had a focus on kilocalorie intake.401-403 One study advised a low glycaemic index diet from early pregnancy.405,406

Common themes in dietary advice provided included reducing intake of saturated fats,240,400-402 carbohydrates402 and sugar (eg in soft drinks)400 and increasing consumption of fruit and vegetables,400 protein402 and fibre.400,402

#### Maternal outcomes

Mean gestational weight gain was significantly lower in the intervention groups than in the standard care groups (MD -3.76 kg; 95%CI -6.38 to -1.13; 6 RCTs; n=1,432; very low certainty; analysis 3.1; page 412).

Compared to women in the control groups, among women in the intervention groups, there was a clear reduction in risk of:

* weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines (RR 0.65; 95%CI 0.54 to 0.77; 4 RCTs; n=538; very low certainty; analysis 3.2; page 413)
* gestational hypertension (RR 0.29; 95%CI 0.13 to 0.61; 3 RCTs; n=429; moderate certainty; analysis 3.4; page 413).

There was no clear difference in:

* gestational diabetes (RR 0.86; 95%CI 0.64 to 1.17; 6 RCTs; n=1,424; very low certainty; analysis 3.3; page 413)
* pre-eclampsia (RR 0.61; 95%CI 0.25 to 1.46; 2 RCTs; n=282; low certainty; analysis 3.5; page 414)
* caesarean section (RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.64 to 1.11; 6 RCTs; n=1,461; very low certainty; analysis 3.6; page 414)
* postnatal weight retention (MD -0.22; 95%CI -1.17 to 0.72; 2 RCTs; n=556; very low certainty; analysis 3.7; page 414).

#### Infant outcomes

The risk of preterm birth was lower in the intervention group than in the usual care group (RR 0.43; 95%CI 0.24 to 0.79; 4 RCTs; n=1,296; moderate certainty; analysis 3.8; page 415).

There was no clear difference in risk of:

* macrosomia >4,000 g (RR 0.97; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.11; 3 RCTs; n=1,138; very low certainty; analysis 3.9; page 415)
* early childhood weight (MD -0.03; 95%CI -0.26 to 0.31; 2 RCTs; n=565; low certainty; analysis 3.10; page 415).

A single study found no clear difference in rates of small for gestational age (RR 0.59; 95%CI 0.22 to 1.69; n=131) or large for gestational age (RR 0.89; 95%CI 0.35 to 2.25; n=131).

#### Summary of findings

| Dietary interventions compared to usual care in pregnancy — maternal outcomes | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Patient or population**: Pregnant women with low or high risk pregnancies  **Setting**: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Dietary intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with standard care** | **Risk with Diet** |
| Mean gestational weight gain | The mean gestational weight gain was **0** | MD **3.76 lower** (6.38 lower to 1.13 lower) | - | 1,432 (6 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b |
| Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines | 607 per 1,000 | **395 per 1,000** (328 to 468) | **RR 0.65** (0.54 to 0.77) | 538 (4 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b |
| Gestational diabetes | 118 per 1,000 | **102 per 1,000** (76 to 138) | **RR 0.86** (0.64 to 1.17) | 1,424 (6 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Gestational hypertension | 130 per 1,000 | **38 per 1,000** (17 to 79) | **RR 0.29** (0.13 to 0.61) | 429 (3 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Pre-eclampsia | 84 per 1,000 | **51 per 1,000** (21 to 123) | **RR 0.61** (0.25 to 1.46) | 282 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Caesarean section | 320 per 1,000 | **272 per 1,000** (205 to 355) | **RR 0.85** (0.64 to 1.11) | 1,461 (6 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,c,d |
| Postnatal weight retention | The mean postpartum weight retention was **0** | MD **0.22 lower** (1.17 lower to 0.72 higher) | - | 556 (2 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,d,e |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. High or unclear risk of performance bias in all studies

b. Considerable heterogeneity

c. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

d. Substantial heterogeneity

e. Weight measured at different time points

| Dietary intervention compared to usual care in pregnancy — infant outcomes | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Patient or population**: pregnant women  **Setting**: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Dietary intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with standard care** | **Risk with Diet** |
| Preterm birth | 49 per 1,000 | **21 per 1,000** (12 to 39) | **RR 0.43** (0.24 to 0.79) | 1,296 (4 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Macrosomia | 377 per 1,000 | **366 per 1,000** (317 to 419) | **RR 0.97** (0.84 to 1.11) | 1,138 (3 RCTs) | ⨁◯◯◯ VERY LOW a,b,c |
| Childhood weight | The mean childhood weight was **0** | MD **0.03 higher** (0.26 lower to 0.31 higher) | - | 565 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. High or unclear risk of performance bias in all studies

b. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

c. Substantial heterogeneity

#### Comparability of results with other reviews

Other systematic reviews have included some RCTs that were excluded from this review due to wrong study population (eg women with high risk pregnancies for reasons other than BMI) or wrong comparator (eg not standard care). However, the results are largely comparable with those of this review, with most reviews finding a lower weight gain among women with mixed BMIs.

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of dietary interventions — maternal outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **# studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Mean gestational weight gain* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD -3.76 (-6.38 to -1.13) | 6 |
| \*Zhang et al 2018408 | Mixed BMis | MD -0.69 (-1.74 to 0.36) | 9 |
| Rogozińska et al 2017409 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.72 (−1.48 to 0.04) | 4 |
| Shieh et al 2018410 | Mixed BMIs | MD -5.77 (-9.34 to -2.21) | 4 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | MD -3.36 (-4.73 to -1.99) | 9 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | MD -3.84 (-5.22 to -2.45) | 10 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | MD -4.70 (-8.07 to -1.34) | 5 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | MD -1.23 (-4.08 to 1.61) | 4 |
| Walker et al 2018 | Mixed BMIs | MD -3.27 (-4.96 to -1.58) | 9 |
| Craemer et al 2019414 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.81 (−2.61 to −1.02) | 6 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | MD −0.72 (−1.48 to 0.04) | 4 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | MD −2.84 (−4.77 to −0.491) | 12 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | MD -3.10 (-8.32 to 2.13) | 4 |
| *Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.65 (0.54 to 0.77) | 4 |
| \*Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.74 (0.55 to 0.99) | 2 |
| *Gestational diabetes* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.86 (0.64 to 1.17) | 6 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.56 (0.32 to 0.96) | 6 |
| Guo et al 2019419 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.75 (0.59 to 0.95) | 11 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.54 (0.27 to 1.07) | 2 |
| Madhurvata et al 2015420 | Overweight and obese | OR 0.33 (0.14 to 0.76) | 3 |
| Song et al 2016421 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.80 (0.58 to 1.10) | 5 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 1.03 (0.30 to 3.61) | 4 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.79 (0.37 to 1.69) | 8 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.52 (0.27 to 1.03) | 2 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.39 (0.23 to 0.69) | 3 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.93 (0.64 to 1.36) | 2 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | BMI ≥25 | RR 0.39 (0.19 to 0.79) | 3 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.63 to 1.31) | 4 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.57 (0.30 to 1.08) | 3 |
| *Gestational hypertension* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.29 (0.13 to 0.61) | 3 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.59 (0.07 to 4.65) | 3 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.57 (0.18 to 1.79) | 5 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012411,412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.30 (0.10 to 0.88) | 2 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.30 (0.10 to 0.88) | 2 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.70 (0.30 to 1.61) | 4 |
| *Pre-eclampsia* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.61 (0.25 to 1.46) | 2 |
| Allen et al 2014422 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.67 (0.53 to 0.85) | 6 |
| Syngelaki et al 2019423 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.00 (0.79 to 1.27) | 11 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012411,412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.67 (0.53 to 0.85) | 6 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.61 (0.25 to 1.46) | 2 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.80 (0.49 to 1.31) | 5 |
| *Caesarean section* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.64 to 1.11) | 6 |
| \*Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.99 (0.33 to 3.01) | 2 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.78 (0.50 to 1.22) | 4 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.88 (0.65 to 1.17) | 7 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.093 (0.84 to 1.04) | 5 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.98 (0.78 to 1.24) | 4 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.27 (0.79 to 2.04) | 2 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 1.09 (0.93 to 1.28) | 3 |

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of dietary interventions — infant outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **# studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Preterm birth* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.43 (0.24 to 0.79) | 4 |
| \*Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.33 (0.11 to 1.02) | 2 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411,412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.68 (0.48 to 0.96) | 4 |
| Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.51 (0.21 to 1.25) | 3 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.58 (0.19 to 1.70) | 2 |
| *Macrosomia* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.97 (0.84 to 1.11) | 3 |
| \*Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 0.93 (0.75 to 1.17) | 2 |
| \*Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 2.47 (0.68 to 8.95) | 2 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.73 (0.49 to 1.09) | 2 |
| *Small for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.35 to 2.25) | 1 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.92 (0.45 to 1.88) | 4 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 1.05 (0.62 to 1.77) | 6 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.02 (0.75 to 1.37) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.02 (0.75 to 1.37) | 3 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.88 (0.53 to 1.45) | 3 |
| *Large for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.35 to 2.25) | 1 |
| \*Zhang et al 2018408 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.52 (0.31 to 0.89) | 8 |
| \*Oostdam et al 2011424 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.14 (0.05 to 0.41) | 3 |
| Dodd et al 2010416 | Overweight and obese | RR 2.02 (0.84, 4.86) | 3 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.91 (0.60 to 1.37) | 4 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.82 (0.54 to 1.22) | 6 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012411,412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.78 (0.51 to 1.19) | 5 |
| \*Tieu et al 2017413 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.60 (0.19 to 1.86) | 3 |

\* Low glycaemic index diet

### Exercise interventions

#### Types of study

The review included 42 studies reported in 59 papers and including 9,057 women. Among the studies, 27 included an aerobic and resistance exercise intervention,269,294-296,304,402,425-447 11 an aerobic exercise intervention270-273,292,299,448-452 and 2 a resistance exercise intervention.313,453 Study populations were heterogeneous and included women of mixed BMI,270-272,292,294-296,299,313,425-432,434-436,440-442,444-446,453 BMI ≤25,443 BMI 24-28,452 BMI ≥25,273,438,439,443,449 BMI ≥26,437 BMI ≥28,304 BMI ≥29,402 BMI ≥30269,433,448,450,451

Most studies were small with fewer than 100 participants (n=15), between 100 and 200 participants (n=15) or between 201 and 400 participants (n=5). There were seven larger studies — Barakat et al 2013428 (n=428), , Barakat et al 2018294 (n=429), da Silva et al 2017a432 (n=639), Stafne et al445 (n=855), SongØYgard et al 2012444 (n=719), Barakat et al 2016430 (n=765), Ruiz et al 2013443 (n=962).

Studies were conducted in Argentina (n=1),425 Australia (n=3),271,448,450 Brazil (n=4),270,292,432,437 Canada (n=1),269 China (n=1),452 Colombia (n=1),441 Denmark (n=1),451 Iran (n=1),434 Japan (n=1),299 Kosovo (n=1),436 the Netherlands (n=1),438 New Zealand (n=2),272,273 Norway (n=4),304,435,444,445 Spain (n=15),294-296,313,427-431,439,440,446,447,454 Sweden (n=1),453 United Kingdom (n=1),433 United States (n=2).442,449 One multicentre study402 was conducted in the United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium.

#### Types of intervention

Aerobic and resistance exercise interventions generally comprised warm-up and cool-down periods with a core segment of aerobic (treadmill, stationary cycling, walking, dance, circuit training, swimming) and muscle strengthening exercises (including pelvic floor exercises). The exercise session was supervised in 78% of studies. In most studies, exercise was carried out for around 60 minutes, three times a week. Some included additional home-based sessions. The timing of initiation of intervention varied but most continued until close to the time of birth (weeks 36-39). Most studies specified an intensity of 60-80% of maximum heart rate or 12-14 on the Borg scale.

Aerobic exercise interventions included walking, stationary cycling or swimming. The exercise session was supervised in 64% of studies. Duration ranged from 15 minutes, three times a week to 60 minutes, three times a week. In a little more than half of the studies (57%), the intervention was continued until close to the time of birth (weeks 37 to birth). In the remainder, the intervention was discontinued at 27-32 weeks. Intensity was in the range of 60-80% of maximum heart rate or Borg scale 12-16.

Resistance exercise interventions included toning and joint mobilisation and weight training. The timing, duration and intensity of interventions varied. All interventions were supervised.

#### Maternal outcomes

Mean gestational weight gain was significantly lower in the intervention groups than in the standard care groups (MD -0.95 kg; 95%CI -1.20 to -0.69; 29 RCTs; n=5,680; moderate certainty; analysis 2.1; page 416).

Compared to women in the control groups, among women in the intervention groups, there was a clear reduction in risk of:

* weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines (RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.69 to 0.87; 16 RCTs; n=4,333; low certainty; analysis 4.2; page 417).
* gestational diabetes (RR 0.74; 95%CI 0.60 to 0.90; 20 RCTs; n=5,592; low certainty; analysis 4.3; page 417).
* gestational hypertension (RR 0.51; 95%CI 0.37 to 0.71; 7 RCTs; n=3,060; moderate certainty; analysis 4.4; page 418).
* caesarean section (RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.74 to 0.98; 25 RCTs; n=5,704; moderate certainty; analysis 4.6; page 419).
* antenatal depression (RR 0.44; 95%CI 0.32 to 0.61; 6 RCTs; n=798; moderate certainty; analysis 4.7; page 480)
* postnatal depression (RR 0.47; 95%CI 0.34 to 0.65; 5 RCTs; n=1,613; moderate certainty; analysis 4.8; page 481).

There was no clear difference in:

* risk of pre-eclampsia between groups (RR 0.78; 95%CI 0.53 to 1.15; 7 RCTs; n=2,855; moderate certainty; analysis 4.5; page 479)
* postnatal weight retention (RR -0.20; 95%CI –1.48 to 1.09; 5 RCTs; n=388; moderate certainty; analysis 4.9; page 481).

#### Infant outcomes

The risk of macrosomia (>4,000 g) was lower in the intervention group than in the standard care group (RR 0.75; 95%CI 0.59 to 0.96; 15 RCTs; n=4,759; moderate certainty; analysis 4.12; page 421).

There was no clear difference in risk of:

* preterm birth (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.74 to 1.22; 15 RCTs; n=4,388; moderate certainty; analysis 4.10; page 420)
* low birth weight (RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.68 to 1.28; 11 RCTs; n=3,247; moderate certainty; analysis 4.11; page 421)
* small for gestational age (RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.50 to 1.17; 10 RCTs; n=1,581; moderate certainty; analysis 4.13; page 422)
* large for gestational age (RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.61 to 1.36; 9 RCTs; n=1,600; moderate certainty; analysis 4.14; page 422)
* Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes (RR 1.23; 95%CI 0.44 to 3.42; 5 RCTs; n=1,918; moderate certainty; analysis 4.15; page 422).

A small study reporting on outcomes among women who were overweight or obese found no clear difference in infant weight at 1 month (MD –0.19; 95%CI –0.54 to 0.16; n=36) or 6 months (MD –0.04; 95%CI –1.51 to 1.44; n=33).

#### 

| Summary of findings | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Exercise interventions compared to usual care in pregnancy — maternal outcomes | | | | | |
| **Patient or population**: Pregnant women with low or high risk pregnancies  **Setting**: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Colombia, Denmark, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kosovo, Poland, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Exercise intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with standard care** | **Risk with Any exercise intervention** |
| Gestational  weight gain | The mean gestational weight gain was **0** | The mean gestational weight gain in the intervention group was 0.95 kg lower (1.20 lower to 0.69 lower) | - | 5,680 (29 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines | 402 per 1,000 | **310 per 1,000** (278 to 350) | **RR 0.77** (0.69 to 0.87) | 4,333 (16 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Gestational diabetes | 122 per 1,000 | **90 per 1,000** (73 to 109) | **RR 0.74** (0.60 to 0.90) | 5,592 (20 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Gestational hypertension | 70 per 1,000 | **36 per 1,000** (26 to 50) | **RR 0.51** (0.37 to 0.71) | 3,060 (7 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Pre-eclampsia | 39 per 1,000 | **35 per 1,000** (24 to 51) | **RR 0.78** (0.53 to 1.15) | 2,855 (7 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Caesarean section | 220 per 1,000 | **187 per 1,000** (163 to 216) | **RR 0.85** (0.74 to 0.98) | 5,704 (25 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Antenatal depression | 235 per 1,000 | **104 per 1,000** (75 to 144) | **RR 0.44** (0.32 to 0.61) | 798 (6 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Postnatal depression | 114 per 1,000 | **53 per 1,000** (39 to 74) | **RR 0.47** (0.34 to 0.65) | 1,613 (5 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. High or unclear risk of performance bias in all studies

b. Moderate heterogeneity

| Exercise interventions compared to usual care in pregnancy — infant outcomes | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Patient or population**: Pregnant women with low or high risk pregnancies  **Setting**: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Colombia, Denmark, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kosovo, Poland, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Exercise intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with usual care** | **Risk with exercise intervention** |
| Preterm birth | 61 per 1,000 | **58 per 1,000** (45 to 75) | **RR 0.95** (0.74 to 1.22) | 4,388 (15 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Low birth weight | 49 per 1,000 | **46 per 1,000** (34 to 63) | **RR 0.94** (0.68 to 1.28) | 3,247 (11 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Macrosomia >4,000 g | 103 per 1,000 | **77 per 1,000** (61 to 99) | **RR 0.75** (0.59 to 0.96) | 4,759 (15 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Small for gestational age | 72 per 1,000 | **64 per 1,000** (42 to 99) | **RR 0.76** (0.50 to 1.17) | 1,581 (10 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Large for gestational age | 130 per 1,000 | **128 per 1,000** (98 to 170) | **RR 0.91** (0.61 to 1.36) | 1,600 (9 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Apgar score <7 at 5 min | 6 per 1,000 | **8 per 1,000** (3 to 22) | **RR 1.23** (0.44 to 3.42) | 1,918 (5 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. High or unclear risk of performance bias in all studies

#### 

#### Comparability of results with other reviews

Other systematic reviews have included some RCTs that were excluded from this review due to wrong study population (eg women with high risk pregnancies for reasons other than BMI) or wrong comparator (eg not standard care). However, the results are largely comparable with those of this review, with most reviews finding a lower weight gain among women with mixed BMIs. While this review found that intervention appeared to reduce gestational weight gain among women who were overweight or obese, other reviews found no clear difference in weight gain in this group.

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of exercise interventions — maternal outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **Number of studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Mean gestational weight gain* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.95 kg (−1.20 to −0.69) | 29 |
| BMI ≥25 | MD −0.84 kg (−1.51 to −0.17) | 14 |
| Bernabé et al 2018455 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.28 kg (−0.37 to −0.19) | 42 |
| da Silva et al 2017b456 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.11 (−1.53 to −0.69) | 18 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.96 (−1.66 to −0.27) | 11 |
| Kramer & McDonald 2006291 | Mixed BMIs | MD 0.79 (−0.73 to 2.31) | 4 |
| Sanabria-Martínez et al 2015458 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.14 kg (−1.50 to −0.78) | 13 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.12 (−1.61 to -0.62) | 15 |
| Choi et al 2013460 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.74 kg (−3.66 to 0.19) | 2 |
| Elliott-Sale et al 2015461 | Mixed BMIs | MD −2.2 kg (−3.13 to −1.30) | 5 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | MD −0.73 (−1.11 to −0.34) | 15 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | MD −0.72 (−1.04 to −0.41) | 37 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.00 (−2.01 to 0.01) | 4 |
| Streuling et al 2011462 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.61 (−1.17 to −0.06) | 12 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.07 (−1.08 to 0.93) | 15 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.72 (−1.20 to −0.25) | 14 |
| Walker et al 2018463 | Mixed BMIs | MD 􀀀−1.02 (−1.56 to −0.49) | 27 |
| Wang et al 2019464 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.02 (−1.35 to −0.70) | 23 |
| Rogozińska et al 2017409 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.73 (−1.11 to −0.08) | 15 |
| Craemer et al 2019414 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.37 (−0.66 to −0.24) | 11 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | BMI ≥25 | MD −0.34 (−1.15 to 0.47) | 5 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | BMI ≥25 | MD −0.3 (−1.13 to 0.52) | 3 |
| Shieh et al 2018410 | BMI ≥25 | MD −0.28 (−1.50 to 0.94) | 6 |
| *Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.77 (0.69 to 0.87) | 16 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Low risk | RR 0.69 (0.47 to 1.02) | 2 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 0.77 (0.66 to 0.88) | 3 |
| Ruchat et al 2018465 |  | RR 0.68 (0.57 to 0.80) | 15 |
| Song et al 2016421 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.77 (0.54 to 1.09) | 10 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 0.84 (0.73 to 0.95) | 5 |
| *Gestational diabetes* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.74 (0.60 to 0.90) | 20 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.80 (0.60 to 1.07) | 10 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.62 (0.52 to 0.75) | 26 |
| Guo et al 2019419 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.70 (0.59 to 0.84) | 19 |
| da Silva et al 2017b456 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.67 (0.49 to 0.92) | 10 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.65 (0.50 to 0.85) | 5 |
| Han et al 2012467 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.10 (0.66 to 1.84) | 3 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.67 (0.46 to 0.95) | 10 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.66 (0.53 to 0.83) | 27 |
| Russo et al 2015468 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.72 (0.58 to 0.91) | 10 |
| Sanabria-Martinez et al 2015458 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.69 (0.52 to 0.91) | 8 |
| Zheng et al 2017469 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.62 (0.43 to 0.89) | 4 |
| Ming et al 2018470 | Healthy weight | RR 0.58 (0.37 to 0.90) | 8 |
| Nasiri-Amiri et al 2019471 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.76 (0.56 to 1.03) | 8 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Overweight and obese | RR 0.62 (0.37 to 1.02) | 6 |
| Madhurvata et al 2015420 | Obese | OR 0.77 (0.33 to 1.79) | 3 |
| *Gestational hypertension* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.51 (0.37 to 0.71) | 7 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.63 (0.37 to 1.06) | 5 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.59 (0.37 to 0.94) | 15 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.74 (0.42 to 1.33) | 7 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.68 (0.49 to 0.93) | 20 |
| Magro-Malosso et al 2017472 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.54 (0.40 to 0.74) | 17 |
| *Pre-eclampsia* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.78 (0.53 to 1.15) | 7 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.87 (0.58 to 1.32) | 6 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.61 (0.43 to 0.85) | 23 |
| da Silva et al 2017b456 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.93 (0.55 to 1.57) | 3 |
| Han et al 2012467 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.00 (0.51 to 1.97) | 2 |
| Magro-Malosso et al 2017472 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.79 (0.45 to 1.38) | 7 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.99 (0.58 to 1.66) | 4 |
| Syngelaki et al 2019423 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.13 (0.45 to 2.86) | 3 |
| Zheng et al 2017469 | Mixed BMIs | OR 1.05 (0.53 to 2.07) | 2 |
| *Caesarean section* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.74 to 0.98) | 25 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.99 (0.85 to 1.17) | 9 |
| Davenport et al 2019d473 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.91 (0.79 to 1.05) | 46 |
| Domenjoz et al 2014474 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.73 to 0.99) | 16 |
| Poyatos-Leon et al 2015475 | Mixed BMIS | RR 0.78 (0.58 to 1.05) | 10 |
| Han et al 2012467 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.33 (0.97 to 1.84) | 2 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.82 (0.67 to 1.01) | 13 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.83 (0.73 to 0.95) | 32 |
| Magro-Malosso et al 2017472 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.84 (0.73 to 0.98) | 14 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 0.96 (0.76 to 1.22) | 6 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.92 (0.68 to 1.24) | 4 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.88 (0.66 to 1.17) | 5 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 0.98 (0.81 to 1.20) | 5 |
| *Antenatal depression* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.44 (0.32 to 0.61) | 6 |
| Davenport et al 2019e476 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.33 (0.21 to 0.53) | 5 |
| *Postnatal depression* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.47 (0.34 to 0.65) | 5 |
| Nakamura et al 2019477 | Mixed BMIs | SMD −0.58 (−1.09 to −0.08) | 6 |
| *Postnatal weight retention* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.20 (−1.48 to 1.09) | 5 |
| Ruchat et al 2018465 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.92 (−1.84 to 0.00) | 3 |

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of exercise interventions — infant outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **Number of studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Preterm birth* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.95 (0.74 to 1.22) | 15 |
| Aune et al 2017478 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.72 to 1.15) | 21 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.11 (0.57 to 2.19) | 6 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.12 (0.88 to 1.42) | 27 |
| Di Mascio et al 2016480 | Normal weight range | RR 1.01 (0.68 to 1.50) | 8 |
| Zheng et al 2017469 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.93 (0.44 to 1.99) | 2 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 1.92 (0.75 to 4.93) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.12 (0.44 to 2.85) | 4 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.22 (0.51 to 2.90) | 5 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 1.34 (0.51 to 3.55) | 3 |
| Magro-Malosso et al 2017480 | High risk | RR 0.62 (0.41 to 0.95) | 10 |
| *Low birthweight* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.94 (0.68 to 1.28) | 11 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.70 to 1.20) | 15 |
| *Macrosomia >4,000g* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.75 (0.59 to 0.96) | 15 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.97 (0.83 to 1.13) | 15 |
| Han et al 2012467 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.68 to 1.22) | 2 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 0.81 (0.64 to 1.02) | 7 |
| Oostdam et al 2011424 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.36 (0.13 to 0.99) | 2 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 0.65 (0.22 to 1.91) | 3 |
| *Small for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.76 (0.50 to 1.17) | 10 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 1.05 (0.84 to 1.34) | 14 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 1.01 (0.83 to 1.24) | 21 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.31 (0.50 to 3.42) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.28 (0.52 to 3.15) | 4 |
| da Silva et al 2017b456 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.08 (0.66 to 1.76) | 4 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | Low risk | OR 1.10 (0.73 to 1.66) | 8 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | Overweight and obese | OR 0.90 (0.31 to 2.63) | 2 |
| *Large for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.61 to 1.36) | 9 |
| Chatzakis et al 2019457 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.00 (0.66 to 1.49) | 7 |
| Guillemette et al 2018481 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.51 to 1.44) | 7 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.96 (0.59 to 1.54) | 15 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.96 (0.67 to 1.37) | 21 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.37 (0.06 to 2.30) | 2 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.52 (0.25 to 1.09) | 4 |
| da Silva et al 2017b456 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.51 (0.30 to 0.87) | 3 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | Low risk | OR 0.68 (0.54 to 0.87) | 13 |
| Wiebe et al 2015459 | Overweight and obese | OR 0.71 (0.36 to 1.41) | 3 |
| *Apgar score <7 at 5 min* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.23 (0.44 to 3.42) | 5 |
| Han et al 2012467 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.00 (0.27 to 3.65) | 2 |
| Zheng et al 2017469 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.78 (0.21 to 2.91) | 2 |

### Lifestyle counselling on weight gain, diet, exercise and self-monitoring

#### Types of study

This review includes 42 studies described in 64 papers and including 13,618 women. Study populations were heterogeneous and included women with BMI in the healthy weight range,482-484 of mixed BMIs,485-498 with BMI ≥25,499-509 BMI ≥29402,510,511 or BMI ≥30451,512-515 or women at increased risk of gestational diabetes — defined as one or more risk factors for gestational diabetes (including BMI ≥25)516-518 or as BMI≥30 and at risk.519,520 Most studies were small with fewer than 200 participants (n=25) or between 200 and 400 participants (n=12). There were six larger studies — Pears in Ireland (n=565),506 Fit for Delivery in Norway (n=591),487 OPTIMISE in Australia (n=629),484 UPBEAT in the United Kingdom (n=1,555),513 GeLis in Germany (n=2,009),497 and LIMIT in Australia (n=2,212).521

The studies were conducted in Australia (n=4),484,500,520,521 Belgium (n=2),510,511 Canada (n=3),482,490,491 China (n=2,492,517 Denmark (n=2),451,515 Finland (n=3),516,519,522 Germany (n=2),496,497 Hong Kong (n=1),518 India (n=1),493 Iran (n=1),498 Ireland (n=1),506 Italy (n=2),499,504 the Netherlands (n=1),485 Norway (n=1),487 Puerto Rico (n=1),509 Sweden (n=1),486 Turkey (n=1),489 United Kingdom (n=2),512,513 and United States (n=10).483,488,494,495,502,503,505,507,508,514 One multicentre study402 was conducted in the United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium.

#### Types of intervention

Of the 42 studies included in this meta-analysis, the majority (n=38) were counselling interventions with a focus on gestational weight gain, diet and exercise. Six studies also involved some form of supervised physical activity.

Weight gain recommendations were based on IOM guidelines in 33 studies.402,451,482-492,494-500,502,504-508,510,511,513-515,520,522

Most studies encouraged some form of self-monitoring.402,451,483,484,486,490,491,494-496,500-505,508,513-515,520,522 This included providing women with weight gain charts,486,495,507,508,520 log books,490,491,494,496,503,508,513,514,522 pedometers,402,451,494,502-504,507,508,513-515,520 self-monitoring text messages500 or a smart phone app.505,506

##### Dietary components

Some studies provided specific recommendations on fat, carbohydrate and protein intake482,488,508,510,511,522 and some on kilocalorie intake.451,482,494,504,509,516 There was little consistency in approach between these studies.

Common themes in other studies included reducing intake of saturated fats402,451,482,484,485,493,495,496,498,499,505,509,512,513,519,521 and sugar (eg in soft drinks)485,487,496,498,500,505,512,513,519 and increasing consumption of fruit and vegetables,484,487,493,495,496,498,500,503,505,519,521 low glycaemic index foods,482,499,506 and fibre intake402,483,484,496,503,505,509,519,521

Not all studies provided detail on the diet promoted through the intervention.

##### Exercise component

Six studies included supervised exercise programs, which ranged from 60 minutes of moderate intensity exercises twice weekly487 to weekly sessions of 60-90 minutes,493 60 minutes515 or 45 minutes.490,491 Two studies described weekly access to swimming pools and/or guided exercise groups519 or monthly meetings including group exercise522 but did not describe content or duration.

The goals of exercise counselling included:

* 30 minutes of moderate intensity exercise daily,486,505,506,514,517 most days,485,494,496,498,500,503,508,516 every second day,489 three or more times a week,482,488,499,518 or three times a week504
* moderate intensity exercise 30 to 60 minutes daily515
* a minimum of 800 MET (multiples of resting metabolic equivalents) minutes weekly522
* a daily step count of 5,000 (women with BMI≥25) or 11,000 (women with BMI≥30)451
* 150 min of moderate-intensity exercise per week.519

Other studies did not specify the amount of exercise but were consistent in promoting an increase in physical activity in general402,483,484,502,509-513,520 and walking specifically.495,512,513,521

#### Maternal outcomes

Mean gestational weight gain was significantly lower in the intervention groups than in the usual care groups (MD -1.25 kg; 95%CI -1.64 to -0.86; 36 RCTs; n=9,083; low certainty; analysis 5.1; page 423).

Compared to women in the control groups, among women in the intervention groups, there was a clear reduction in risk of:

* weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines (RR 0.83; 95%CI 0.78 to 0.89; 29 RCTs; n=7,905; low certainty; analysis 5.2; page 424)
* postnatal weight retention (at last time reported) (MD -1.19; 95%CI -1.62 to -0.76; 11 RCTs; n=2,483; moderate certainty; analysis 5.8; page 427).

There was a probable reduction in risk of:

* gestational diabetes (RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.01; 26 RCTs; n=9,011; moderate certainty; analysis 5.3; page 425)
* caesarean section (RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.89 to 1.02; 25 RCTs; n=9,049; low certainty; analysis 5.6; page 426).

There was no clear difference in:

* gestational hypertension (RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.77 to 1.28; 13 RCTs; n=4,890; low certainty; analysis 5.4; page 425)
* pre-eclampsia (RR 1.06; 95%CI 0.87 to 1.29; 14 RCTs; n=7,069; low certainty; analysis 5.5; page 487)
* antenatal depression (RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.80 to 1.22; 2 RCTs; n=2,908; low certainty; analysis 5.7; page 488)

A single study found no clear difference in antenatal anxiety (RR 1.14; 95%CI 0.88 to 1.46; n=1,382) or postnatal (at 4 months) depression (RR 1.20; 95%CI 0.8 to 1.79; n=1,221) or anxiety (RR 1.24; 95%CI 0.92 to 1.67; n=1,220).

#### Infant outcomes

Compared to usual care, among women in the intervention groups, there was a clear reduction in risk of macrosomia >4,500 g (RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.97; 5 RCTs; n=3,435; moderate certainty; analysis 5.11; page 428).

There was a probable reduction in risk of:

* preterm birth (RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.72 to 1.01; 18 RCTs; n=7,497; moderate certainty; analysis 5.9; page 427)
* macrosomia >4,000 g (RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.82 to 1.01; 17 RCTs; n=7,644; low certainty; analysis 5.11; page 428)
* low birth weight (RR 0.87; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.17; 3 RCTs; n=3,665; low certainty; analysis 5.10; page 428)
* large for gestational age (RR 0.89; 95%CI 0.79 to 1.00; 22 RCTs; n=8,455; moderate certainty; analysis 5.13; page 429)

There was no clear difference in risk of:

* small for gestational age (RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.89 to 1.25; 16 RCTs; n=5,072; low certainty; analysis 5.12; page 429)
* Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes (RR 0.80; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.32; 3 RCTs; n=2,864; low certainty; analysis 5.14; page 430)
* weight in early childhood (MD –0.09; 95%CI –0.26 to 0.08; 4 RCTs; n=985; low certainty; analysis 5.15; page 430).

#### Cost-effectiveness

One study522 (n=93) reported on costs associated with counselling sessions during routine antenatal visits among women at risk of gestational diabetes in Finland. The study found no clear difference in costs to families for care during labour and birth (MD3.00€; 95%CI –10.82 to 16.82) or neonatal care (MD3.00€ 95%CI –13.67 to 19.67). There were also no clear differences in total intervention costs (MD 769.00€; 95%CI –1032.23 to 2570.23) or in costs of maternal primary health care (MD ‑43.00€; 95%CI -127.61 to 41.61), maternal specialist health care (MD -47.00€; 95%CI ‑195.33 to 101.33), diabetes nurse visits (MD 6.00€; 95% CI -7.02 to 19.02), dietitian visits (not estimable), costs of use of insulin/other diabetes medications (MD -1.00€; 95%CI -7.83 to 5.83), costs of hospital days before and after birth (MD 101.00€; 95% CI -206.71 to 408.71), birthing cost to the municipality (MD 22.00€; 95% CI -234.43 to 278.43), costs of absence from work (MD 128.00€; 95%CI ‑1295.58 to 1551.58) or neonatal care cost to municipality (MD 453.00€; 95%CI -298.20 to 1204.20).

The study indicated that intensive lifestyle counselling among women at risk of gestational diabetes was not significantly cost-effective compared to usual care for birth weight, quality of life on a 15-dimension questionnaire or perceived health as measured with a visual analogue scale.

#### 

#### Summary of findings

| Lifestyle counselling (weight, diet, exercise, self-monitoring) compared to usual pregnancy care — maternal outcomes | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Population**: Pregnant women  **Setting**: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, China, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Hong Kong, India, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Puerto Rico, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Diet and exercise intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with usual care** | **Risk with diet and exercise intervention** |
| Gestational weight gain |  | The mean gestational weight gain in the intervention group was 1.25 kg lower  (1.64 lower to 0.86 lower) | - | 9,083 (36 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Weight gain >IOM guidelines | 481 per 1,000 | **399 per 1,000** (375 to 428) | **RR 0.83** (0.78 to 0.89) | 7,905 (29 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Gestational diabetes | 180 per 1,000 | **162 per 1,000** (145 to 181) | **RR 0.90** (0.81 to 1.01) | 9,011 (26 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Gestational hypertension | 84 per 1,000 | **83 per 1,000** (64 to 107) | **RR 0.99** (0.77 to 1.28) | 4,980 (13 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Pre-eclampsia | 51 per 1,000 | **54 per 1,000** (44 to 65) | **RR 1.06** (0.87 to 1.29) | 7,069 (14 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Caesarean section | 282 per 1,000 | **268 per 1,000** (251 to 287) | **RR 0.95** (0.89 to 1.02) | 9,049 (25 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Antenatal depression | 104 per 1,000 | **103 per 1,000** (83 to 127) | **RR 0.99** (0.80 to 1.22) | 2,908 (2 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| Postnatal weight retention (latest time reported) |  | The mean postnatal weight retention (latest time reported) in the intervention group was 1.19 kg lower  (1.62 lower to 0.76 lower) | - | 2,483 (11 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | | |

a. Risk of performance bias high or unclear in all studies

b. Considerable heterogeneity

c. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

| Lifestyle counselling (weight, diet, exercise, self-monitoring) compared to usual pregnancy care — infant outcomes | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Population**: Pregnant women  **Setting**: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Hong Kong, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Puerto Rico, Poland, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States  **Intervention**: Diet and exercise intervention  **Comparison**: Usual care | | | | | |
| Outcomes | **Anticipated absolute effects\*** (95% CI) | | Relative effect (95% CI) | № of participants  (studies) | Certainty of the evidence (GRADE) |
| **Risk with usual care** | **Risk with lifestyle counselling** |
| Preterm birth | 68 per 1,000 | **58 per 1,000** (49 to 69) | **RR 0.85** (0.72 to 1.01) | 7,497 (18 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Low birth weight | 50 per 1,000 | **44 per 1,000** (33 to 59) | **RR 0.87** (0.65 to 1.17) | 3,665 (3 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Macrosomia - >4000 g | 160 per 1,000 | **146 per 1,000** (132 to 162) | **RR 0.91** (0.82 to 1.01) | 7,664 (17 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Macrosomia - >4500 g | 38 per 1,000 | **26 per 1,000** (18 to 37) | **RR 0.67** (0.46 to 0.97) | 3,435 (5 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Small for gestational age | 94 per 1,000 | **98 per 1,000** (83 to 117) | **RR 1.05** (0.89 to 1.25) | 5,072 (16 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Large for gestational age | 117 per 1,000 | **104 per 1,000** (92 to 117) | **RR 0.89** (0.79 to 1.00) | 8,445 (22 RCTs) | ⨁⨁⨁◯ MODERATE a |
| Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes | 23 per 1,000 | **19 per 1,000** (11 to 31) | **RR 0.80** (0.48 to 1.32) | 2864 (3 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,b |
| Childhood weight |  | The mean childhood weight in the intervention group was 0.09 kg lower  (0.26 lower to 0.08 higher) | - | 985 (4 RCTs) | ⨁⨁◯◯ LOW a,c |
| \***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).  **CI:** Confidence interval; **MD:** Mean difference; **RR:** Risk ratio | | | | | |
| **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence** **High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect **Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different **Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: The true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: The true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect | | | | | |

a. Risk of performance bias high or unclear in all studies

b. Confidence interval crosses line of no effect

c. Weights measured at different times

#### Comparability of results with other reviews

Other systematic reviews have included some RCTs that were excluded from this review due to being outside the timeframe of this review, wrong study population (eg women with high risk pregnancies for reasons other than BMI) or wrong comparator (eg not usual care). However, the results for the primary outcome are largely comparable with those of this review, with most reviews finding a lower weight gain in women in the intervention groups.

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of lifestyle counselling interventions — maternal outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **Number of studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Mean gestational weight gain* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD -1.25 kg (-1.64 to -0.86) | 36 |
| O’Brien et al 2016523 | BMI in healthy range | MD -1.25 kg (-2.39 to -0.11) | 4 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Low risk | MD -0.92 kg (-2.12 to 0.29) | 2 |
| Choi et al 2013460 | Mixed BMIs; supervised | MD -1.17 (-2.14 to -0.21) | 2 |
| Mixed BMIs; unsupervised | MD 0.44 (-1.86 to 2.74) | 3 |
| Gardner et al 2011524 | Mixed BMIs | MD -1.19 kg (-1.74 to -0.65) | 10 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | MD −0.71 (−1.10 to −0.31) | 15 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | MD −1.00 (−1.39 to −0.61) | 35 |
| Morison et al 2018525 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.21 (−0.34 to −0.08) | 10 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | MD -1.80 kg (-3.36 to -0.24) | 3 |
| Rogozińska et al 2017409 | Mixed BMIs | MD –0.71 (–1.10 to –0.31) | 15 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | MD -0.89 kg (-1.39 to -0.40) | 16 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | MD –0.57 (–1.60 to 0.65) | 7 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.06 (−1.67 to −0.46) | 10 |
| Craemer et al 2019414 | Mixed BMIs | MD −0.37 (−0.49 to −0.24) | 22 |
| \*Vincze et al 2019527 | Mixed BMIs | MD –0.76 (–2.01 to 0.49) | 13 |
| Walker et al 2018463 | Mixed BMIs | MD -0.84 (-1.29 to -0.39) | 24 |
| Shieh et al 2018410 | BMI≥25 | MD -0.82 (-1.28 to -0.36) | 11 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | MD -0.71 kg (-1.34 to -0.08) | 11 |
| Oteng-Ntim 2012528 | Overweight and obese women | MD -2.21 kg (-2.86 kg to -1.59) | 10 |
| *Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.83 (0.78 to 0.89) | 29 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Low risk | RR 0.72 (0.55 to 0.95) | 2 |
| O’Brien et al 2016523 | BMI in normal range | RR 0.72 (0.60 to 0.86) | 5 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed risk | RR 0.98 (0.83 to 1.15) | 1 |
| Ruchat et al 2018465 | Mixed risk | RR 0.66 (0.54 to 0.82) | 19 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.87 (0.79 to 0.96) | 11 |
| Thangaratinam 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.92 (0.49 to 1.72) | 2 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.71 to 1.13) | 4 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | High risk | RR 0.85 (0.71 to 1.02) | 9 |
| *Gestational diabetes* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.90 (0.81 to 1.01) | 26 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Normal weight range | RR 0.79 (0.51 to 1.22) | 4 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.90 (0.74 to 1.10) | 22 |
| Guo et al 2019419 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.86 (0.71 to 1.04) | 18 |
| Bennett et al 2018418 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.73 (0.43 to 1.22) | 4 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 1.02 (0.79 to 1.32) | 14 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.88 (0.72 to 1.07) | 27 |
| Madhuvrata et al 2015420 | Mixed BMIs | OR 1.44 (0.96 to 2.14) | 6 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.71 to 1.01) | 19 |
| Song et al 2016421 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.70 to 1.03) | 14 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.96 (0.49 to 1.86) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.18 (0.78 to 1.77) | 6 |
| Bennet et al 2018418 | Overweight and obese women | RR 0.96 (0.82 to 1.14) | 14 |
| Oteng-Ntim 2012528 | Overweight and obese women | OR 0.80 (0.58 to 1.10) | 6 |
| *Gestational hypertension* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.99 (0.77 to 1.28) | 13 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.95 (0.72 to 1.27) | 11 |
| O’Brien et al 2016523 | BMI in normal range | RR 0.34 (0.13 to 0.91) | 2 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 1.05 (0.86 to 1.28) | 13 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 1.01 (0.87 to 1.17) | 21 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.19 (0.74 to 1.90) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.08 (0.75 to 1.55) | 4 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.46 (0.16 to 1.29) | 4 |
| *Pre-eclampsia* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.06 (0.87 to 1.29) | 14 |
| Allen et al 2014422 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.93 (0.66 to 1.32) | 6 |
| Davenport et al 2018a466 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.73 to 1.08) | 12 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.00 (0.75 to 1.34) | 7 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.48 (0.56 to 3.94) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.16 (0.70 to 1.90) | 4 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 098 (0.79 to 1.22) | 8 |
| *Caesarean section* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.95 (0.89 to 1.02) | 25 |
| Davenport et al 2019d473 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.87 (0.79 to 0.97 | 21 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.80 to 1.00) | 9 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.95 (0.84 to 1.08) | 16 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.92 (0.80 to 1.06) | 28 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.95 (0.7 to 1.28) | 5 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.94 (0.79 to 1.13) | 8 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.95 (0.88 to 1.02) | 14 |
| Oteng-Ntim 2012528 | Overweight and obese women | OR 0.96 (0.68 to 1.36) | 6 |
| *Postnatal weight retention* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD −1.19 (−1.62 to −0.76) | 11 |
| Ruchat et al 2018465 | Mixed risk | MD −0.85 (−1.46 to −0.25) | 8 |

\* Includes one study that involved only dietary advice.

1. Q9 Findings of systematic reviews of lifestyle counselling interventions — infant outcomes

| **Ref** | **Population** | **Effect (95% CI)** | **Number of studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| *Preterm birth* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.85 (0.72 to 1.01) | 18 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.88 (0.67 to 1.16) | 14 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.94 (0.57 to 1.55) | 7 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.02 (0.47 to 2.21) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.90 (0.55 to 1.47) | 4 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.80 (0.65 to 0.98) | 11 |
| *Low birthweight* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.87 (0.65 to 1.17) | 3 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.90 (0.62 to 1.33) | 5 |
| *Macrosomia > 4,000g* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.91 (0.82 to 1.01) | 17 |
| Davenport et al 2018b479 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.97 (0.83 to 1.13) | 16 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.92 (0.77 to 1.11) | 10 |
| Madhuvrata et al 2015420 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.99 (0.72 to 1.36) | 5 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.78 to 1.01) | 9 |
| *Macrosomia > 4,500g* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.67 (0.46 to 0.97) | 5 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.63 (0.42 to 94) | 4 |
| *Small for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.05 (0.89 to 1.25) | 16 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 1.08 (0.92 to 1.28) | 16 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 1.08 (0.93 to 1.27) | 20 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.20 (0.95 to 1.52) | 6 |
| Thangaratinam 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.76 (0.39 to 1.48) | 2 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.88 (0.53 to 1.44) | 4 |
| *Large for gestational age* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.89 (0.79 to 1.00) | 22 |
| Madhuvrata et al 2015420 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.88 (0.38 to 2.02) | 2 |
| Morison et al 2018525 | Mixed BMIs | OR 0.58 (0.36 to 0.94) | 5 |
| Muktabhant et al 2015417 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.39 (0.75 to 2.56) | 1 |
| International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative 2017415 | Mixed BMIs; IPD | OR 0.89 (0.67 to 1.17) | 16 |
| Mixed BMIs; IPD and non-IPD | OR 0.83 (0.62 to 1.10) | 21 |
| Thangaratinam 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.75 (0.41 to 1.38) | 5 |
| Thangaratinam et al 2012b412 | Mixed BMIs | RR 1.05 (0.79 to 1.40) | 9 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.93 (0.81 to 1.07) | 11 |
| Oteng-Ntim 2012528 | Overweight and obese women | OR 0.91 (0.62 to 1.32) | 6 |
| *Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.80 (0.48 to 1.32) | 3 |
| Thangaratinam 2012a411 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.45 (0.04 to 4.87) | 1 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | RR 0.80 (0.48 to 1.32) | 3 |
| *Weight in early childhood* | | | |
| Current review | Mixed BMIs | MD -0.09 (-0.26 to 0.08) | 4 |
| Shepherd et al 2017526 | Mixed BMIs | MD -0.05 (-0.33 to 0.22) | 3 |

### Cost-effectiveness

A systematic review that assessed cost-effectiveness analyses of lifestyle interventions compared with usual care found that results were inconsistent and further research is required to determine the effective components of lifestyle interventions and to guide future cost-effectiveness analyses.529

Three studies examined the cost-effectiveness of interventions to promote healthy eating and/or exercise among pregnant women at risk of gestational diabetes530,531 or women who were overweight or obese.532

* The cost-effectiveness analyses of the FitFor2 exercise program530 showed that it was not cost-effective in comparison to the control group for blood glucose levels, insulin sensitivity, infant birth weight or quality-adjusted life years.
* In the DALI program, women were randomised to a healthy eating and physical activity intervention, a healthy eating intervention, a physical activity intervention or usual care. The cost-effectiveness analyses of the program,531 found that between-group total cost and effect differences were not significant, other than significantly less gestational weight gain in the healthy eating and physical activity group compared with the usual care group at 35–37 weeks. Cost-effectiveness acceptability curves indicated that the healthy eating and physical activity intervention was the preferred intervention strategy. At 35–37 weeks, it depends on the decision-makers’ willingness to pay per kilogram reduction in gestational weight gain whether the HE + PA intervention is cost-effective for gestational weight gain, whereas it was not cost-effective for fasting glucose and HOMA-IR. After birth, the healthy eating and physical activity intervention was cost-effective for quality-adjusted life years, which was predominantly caused by a large reduction in birth-related costs.
* A cost-effectiveness analysis of Pears dietary and exercise advice intervention, found that such an intervention could be cost-effective but a better understanding of the short- and long-term costs of large for gestational age and weight gain exceeding IOM recommendations is necessary to confirm the results.532

### Evidence summary

This review and meta-analysis assessed the effectiveness in reducing weight gain and other adverse outcomes among pregnant women of dietary interventions with no exercise component, exercise interventions, and lifestyle counselling about weight gain, diet, exercise and self-monitoring.

Databases searched included Embase, CINAHL, Pubmed (1998 to 6/7/18) and Cochrane Library (01/01/2016 to 17/08/2018). Studies were included if they were randomised controlled trials, in English, the population studied was healthy pregnant women (ie women who do not have identified pre-existing conditions and are not at higher risk of complications such as in multiple pregnancy), a dietary, exercise or lifestyle counselling intervention was compared to usual care and any of the pre-specified outcomes were reported.

#### Outcomes

Maternal outcomes were mean gestational weight gain, weight gain exceeding Institute of Medicine (IOM) guidelines, gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, caesarean section, depression and postnatal weight retention. Infant outcomes were preterm birth, low birth weight, macrosomia, small for gestational age, large for gestational age, Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes and early childhood weight.

#### Results

The evidence shows a lower mean gestational weight gain among women participating in a dietary intervention (very low certainty), exercise intervention (moderate certainty) or lifestyle counselling intervention (low certainty). These interventions also lowered the risk of weight gain exceeding guidelines (very low to low certainty).

Dietary interventions showed no clear difference in risk of gestational diabetes (very low certainty), exercise interventions showed reduced risk (low certainty) and lifestyle counselling showed a probable reduction in risk (moderate certainty).

There was a reduction in risk of gestational hypertension with dietary intervention or exercise intervention (moderate certainty) but no clear difference in risk with lifestyle counselling (low certainty). There was no clear difference in risk of pre-eclampsia with any type of intervention (low to moderate certainty).

There was no clear difference in risk of caesarean section with a dietary intervention (very low certainty) but a reduction in risk with exercise intervention (moderate certainty) and a probable reduction in risk with lifestyle counselling (low certainty).

There was a reduction in risk of antenatal and postnatal depression with exercise intervention (moderate certainty) and no clear difference with lifestyle counselling.

There was no clear difference in postnatal weight retention with a dietary intervention (very low certainty) or exercise intervention (moderate certainty) and a reduction with lifestyle counselling (moderate certainty).

The risk of preterm birth was reduced with a dietary intervention, probably reduced with lifestyle counselling and not changed exercise intervention (moderate certainty). There was no clear difference in risk of macrosomia >4,000g with dietary intervention (very low certainty) but a reduction in risk with exercise intervention (moderate certainty) and a probable reduction in risk with lifestyle counselling (low certainty). There was a reduction of risk of macrosomia >4,500 g with lifestyle counselling (moderate certainty). There was no clear difference in risk of low birth weight with an exercise intervention (moderate certainty) but a possible reduction in risk with lifestyle counselling (low certainty). There was a possible reduction in risk of large-for-gestational age with lifestyle counselling (moderate certainty) but no clear difference in risk with the other interventions.

There was no clear difference in risk of small-for-gestational age, Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes or weight in early childhood with any intervention.

1. Q9 Summary of maternal outcomes by intervention

| **Outcome** | **Intervention** | **Effect** | **Certainty** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Gestational weight gain | Diet | MD -3.76 kg; 95%CI -6.38 to -1.13 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | MD -0.95 kg; 95%CI -1.20 to -0.69 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | MD -1.25 kg; 95%CI -1.64 to -0.86 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Weight gain exceeding guidelines | Diet | RR 0.65; 95%CI 0.54 to 0.77 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.77; 95%CI 0.69 to 0.87 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.83; 95%CI 0.78 to 0.89 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Gestational diabetes | Diet | RR 0.86; 95%CI 0.64 to 1.17 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.74; 95%CI 0.60 to 0.90 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.90; 95%CI 0.81 to 1.01 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Gestational hypertension | Diet | RR 0.29; 95%CI 0.13 to 0.61 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.51; 95%CI 0.37 to 0.71 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.77 to 1.28 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Pre-eclampsia | Diet | RR 0.61; 95%CI 0.25 to 1.46 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.78; 95%CI 0.53 to 1.15 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.85 to 1.29 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Caesarean section | Diet | RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.64 to 1.11 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.74 to 0.98 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.89 to 1.02 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Antenatal depression | Exercise | RR 0.44; 95%CI 0.32 to 0.61 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.99; 95%CI 0.80 to 1.22 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Postnatal depression | Exercise | RR 0.47; 95%CI 0.34 to 0.65 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Postnatal weight retention | Diet | MD -0.55; 95%CI -2.02 to 0.92 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | MD –0.20; 95%CI –1.48 to 1.09 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | MD -1.19; 95%CI -1.62 to -0.76 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |

1. Q9 Summary of infant outcomes by intervention

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Outcome** | **Intervention** | **Effect** | **Certainty** |
| Preterm birth | Diet | RR 0.43; 95%CI 0.24 to 0.79 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.95; 95%CI 0.74 to 1.22 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.85; 95%CI 0.72 to 1.01 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Macrosomia >4,000 g | Diet | RR 0.97; 95%CI 0.84 to 1.11 | ⨁◯◯◯ |
| Exercise | RR 0.75; 95%CI 0.59 to 0.96 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.82 to 1.01 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Macrosomia >4,500 g | Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.67; 95%CI 0.46 to 0.97 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Low birth weight | Exercise | RR 0.94; 95%CI 0.68 to 1.28 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.87; 95%CI 0.65 to 1.17 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Small for gestational age | Diet | RR 0.59; 95%CI 0.22 to 1.69 | Single study |
| Exercise | RR 0.76; 95%CI 0.50 to 1.17 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 1.10; 95%CI 0.12 to 1.32 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Large for gestational age | Diet | RR 0.89; 95%CI 0.35 to 2.25 | Single study |
| Exercise | RR 0.91; 95%CI 0.61 to 1.36 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.89; 95%CI 0.79 to 1.00 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes | Exercise | RR 1.23; 95%CI 0.44 to 3.42 | ⨁⨁⨁◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | RR 0.80; 95%CI 0.48 to 1.32 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Weight in early childhood | Diet | MD -0.03; 95%CI -0.26 to 0.31 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |
| Lifestyle counselling | MD –0.09 kg; 95%CI –0.26 to 0.08 | ⨁⨁◯◯ |

#### Conclusions

##### Dietary interventions

The evidence suggests that, among pregnant women, a dietary approach that focuses on healthy eating and includes reducing saturated fats and sugars and increasing consumption of fruit and vegetables, protein and fibre reduces mean gestational weight gain. It also appears to reduce the risk of gestational weight gain exceeding the IOM guidelines, gestational hypertension and preterm birth. There was no clear difference in the risk of other adverse outcomes (gestational diabetes, pre-eclampsia, caesarean section or macrosomia). There was no clear effect on postnatal weight retention or early childhood weight. The certainty of the evidence ranged from very low to moderate.

##### Exercise interventions

The evidence suggests that, among pregnant women, a combination of moderate (60-80% of maximum heart rate or Borg scale 12-16) aerobic and resistance exercise for 180 minutes per week reduces gestational weight gain. It also appears to reduce the risk of gestational weight gain exceeding the IOM guidelines, gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, having a caesarean section, experiencing depression during pregnancy and having a baby with macrosomia. There was no clear difference in the risk of other adverse outcomes (pre-eclampsia, preterm birth, low birth weight, small for gestational age, large for gestational age, Apgar score lower than 7 at 5 minutes). The certainty of the evidence ranged from low to moderate.

##### Lifestyle counselling and self-monitoring

The evidence suggests that, among pregnant women, antenatal lifestyle counselling about weight gain, diet and exercise and advice on self-monitoring may reduce gestational weight gain. It may also reduce the risk of gestational weight gain exceeding the IOM guidelines, postnatal weight retention, preterm birth and macrosomia >4,500 g. It probably reduces the risk of gestational diabetes, caesarean section, macrosomia >4,000g, low birthweight and large for gestational age. It was not clear if lifestyle counselling influences the risk of other adverse outcomes (gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, depression, anxiety, small for gestational age, Apgar score lower than 7 at 5 minutes and childhood weight). The certainty of the evidence ranged from very low to moderate.

#### Consumer summary

A healthy diet during pregnancy reduces weight gain and the risk of some pregnancy complications (such as high blood pressure and preterm birth). Dietary approaches include increasing the amount of vegetables, fruit and fibre (eg through wholegrain foods) and reducing intake of saturated fats (eg by replacing them with polyunsaturated fats) and sugar (eg in soft drinks). These approaches do not appear to change the risk of gestational diabetes, pre-eclampsia, caesarean section or having a large baby and do not appear to affect weight retention after the birth or early childhood weight.

Exercise during pregnancy reduces weight gain and the risk of some pregnancy complications (such as gestational diabetes, high blood pressure, caesarean section and having a large baby). It also reduces the risk of experiencing depression during pregnancy. These benefits are gained from a combination of moderate intensity physical activity (eg brisk walking, swimming, dancing, stationary cycling) and muscle strengthening exercises for 3 hours a week throughout pregnancy. These activities do not appear to change the risk of giving birth preterm or having a small baby.

When women receive lifestyle counselling about recommended weight gain, diet, exercise and self-monitoring as part of pregnancy care, they are more likely to gain an appropriate amount of weight during pregnancy, to retain less weight after the birth; and probably less likely to have gestational diabetes or a caesarean birth. The risk of giving birth preterm or having a baby with a high birth weight may also be reduced. These activities do not appear to change the risk of experiencing high blood pressure, depression or anxiety. They do not appear affect the growth of the baby or weight in early childhood.

### Evidence tables

1. Q9 Outcomes associated with dietary intervention versus usual care in randomised controlled trials

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/setting/intervention** | **Outcomes** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Abdel-Aziz et al 2018400  Egypt | Intervention 75  Control 72 | **Aim**: To assess the effect of dietary counselling on excessive gestational weight gain.  **Population**: Primigravidae aged between 20 and 30 years <12 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group received standard care and attended six extra counselling sessions with the nutrition counsellor, with face-to-face appointments every 2 weeks during the implementation phase. All women in the intervention group received three brief (10–15 minutes) supportive phone calls from the nutrition counsellor during the intervention.  The nutrition counsellor educated participants on how to choose healthier foods (whole grains, fruits and vegetables, healthy fats, and protein sources); how to limit intake of unhealthy foods (refined grains and sweets) and beverages (sugary drinks); and how to get rid of the unhealthy habits (frying food, eating fast food, skipping meals, and eating unhealthy snacks between meals). | Intervention vs control:   * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 38/75 vs 54/72 * Gestational diabetes: 2/75 vs 5/72 * Pregnancy-induced hypertension: 4/75 vs 14/72 * Caesarean section: 10/75 vs 21/72 * Preterm birth: 7/75 vs 18/72 * Macrosomia: 5/75 vs 14/72 |
| Di Carlo 2014401  Italy | Intervention 61  Control 59 | **Aim**: To compare the efficacy of a personal dietary intervention on gestational weight gain control with a general intervention promoting healthy eating.  **Population**: Low-risk pregnant women.  **Intervention**: Women received a personalised diet plan and close follow-up by a dietician.  Individualised diet plans had an average daily caloric intake of 1,916 kcal. A typical weekly diet plan included five meals per day, distributed throughout the day as follows: breakfast (milk or yoghurt, biscuits or toasted bread), snack (fruits or crackers), lunch (pasta or rice with vegetables, limiting the association of potatoes and tomato sauce, and a side-dish with vegetables), snack (fruits), and dinner (white meat or fish, limiting to once a week dairy products, cheese, eggs, and ham, associated with a side-dish of vegetables and bread). The only fat allowed, as a preparation or dressing for all meals, was olive oil. Women were scheduled for monthly follow-up appointments with a dietician who monitored their weight gain, discussed any potential issues, gave further suggestions and answered questions, as needed. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 8.2±4.0 vs 13.4±4.2 kg; p<0.001 * Weight gain exceeding 12 kg: 3/61 vs 34/59 * Caesarean section: 26/61 vs 33/59 |
| Laitinen et al 2009240  Finland | Intervention 69  Control 66 | **Aim**: To examine whether supplementation of probiotics with dietary counselling affects glucose metabolism in normoglycaemic pregnant women.  **Population**: Women who were less than 17 weeks’ gestation and had no metabolic or chronic diseases such as diabetes.  **Intervention**: At 1st trimester 256 pregnant women were allocated to 3 groups: modification of dietary intake according to current recommendations with probiotics or placebo and a control group receiving placebo only.  Dietary counselling given by a dietitian at each study visit aimed to modify dietary intake to conform with that currently recommended, particular attention being paid to the quality of dietary fat. | Intervention (diet plus placebo) vs control (placebo only):   * Gestational weight gain: 14.8±5.1 (n=86) vs 14.8±5.1 (n=85) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 35/86 vs 39/85 * Gestational diabetes: 27/76 vs 25/73 * Caesarean section: 12/77 vs 11/76 * Preterm birth: 1/79 vs 1/79 * Childhood weight: 8.23±0.986 (n=73) vs 8.26± |
| Simmons et al 2017402  United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium | Intervention 113  Control 105  4-armed; control group divided by three | **Aim:** to compare the effectiveness of 3 lifestyle interventions [healthy eating (HE), physical activity (PA), and both HE and PA (HE+PA)] with usual care (UC) in reducing GDM risk.  **Population**: pregnant women at with a body mass index (BMI) of ≥29 kg/m, ≤19±6 and aged ≥18 years and without GDM using the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group criteria.  **Intervention**: The HE intervention promoted lower simple and complex carbohydrates, lower fat, higher fibre and higher protein, including a focus on portion size and, therefore, a more limited intake of total calories. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 8.0±4.7 (n=74) vs 8.8±4.7 (n=26) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 53/74 vs 20/26 * Gestational diabetes: 27/84 vs 11/31 * Small for gestational age: 10/101 vs 2/30 * Large for gestational age: 15/101 vs 5/30 |
| Thornton et al 2009403  United States | Intervention 116  Control 116 | **Aim**: to assess the outcomes of placing nondiabetic, obese, pregnant women on a monitored, calorie-appropriate nutritional regimen for fear of fetal growth restriction, low birth weight, or starvation ketosis  **Population**: Obese women (BMI ≥30 kg/m2) with singleton pregnancy, between 12 and 28 weeks of gestation  **Intervention**: Dietary advice focused on healthy eating. Women were prescribed a balanced nutritional diet based on their weight at study entry and were asked to record all food and drink consumed each day in a food diary; these records were reviewed at each prenatal visit by the physician. Women were counselled at least once by registered dietitian regarding conventional nutrition guidelines, with more detailed dietary intake advice compared with the control group women; the nutrition regimen was similar to that used for GDM at the time: 18 to 24 kcal/kg consisting of 40% carbohydrates, 30% protein and 30% fat; at least 2000 calories | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 4.99±6.79 (n=116) vs 14.06±7.4 (n=116) * Gestational diabetes: 11/116 vs 19/116 * Gestational hypertension: 3/116 vs 10/116 * Pre-eclampsia: 7/116 vs 11/116 * Caesarean section: 91/116 vs 83/116 * Preterm birth: 3/116 vs 5/116 * Macrosomia (>4500g): 9/116 vs 4/116 * Apgar score >7 at 5 minutes: 1/116 vs 0/116 |
| Walsh et al 2012405-407  ROLO  Ireland | Intervention 372  Control 387 | **Aim**:  To determine if a low glycaemic index diet in pregnancy could reduce the incidence of macrosomia in an at-risk group.  **Population**: Women without diabetes, all in their second pregnancy, having previously had an infant weighing greater than 4 kg.  **Intervention**: A low glycaemic index diet from early pregnancy. The dietary intervention involved a single  1–2 h session with a fully trained dietician for groups of 2–6 women. Verbal and written information and advice was given on overall healthy eating and low GI diet. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 12.2±4.4 (n=372) vs 13.7±4.9 (n=387) * Gestational diabetes: 12/350 vs 18/371 * Caesarean section: 66/373 vs 85/387 * Postnatal weight retention at 3 months: -14.25±5.52 (n=88) vs -13.9±4.23 (n=77) * Postnatal weight retention at 5 years: -0.09±6.18 (n=185) vs 0.10±5.94 (n=181) * Preterm birth: 3/372 vs 8/387 * Macrosomia >4000 g: 189/372 vs 199/387 * Childhood weight at 3 months: 6.99±4.36 (n=211) vs 6.76±0.98 (n=211) |
| Wolff et al 2008404  Denmark | Intervention 23  Control 30 | **Aim**: To determine whether gestational weight gain in obese women can be restricted by 10-h dietary consultations and whether this restriction affects the pregnancy-induced changes in glucose metabolism.  **Population**: Caucasian pregnant women with uncomplicated pregnancy, aged 18-45 years, 12-18 weeks gestation, BMI ≥30 kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Dietary consultations (healthy diet, restriction of energy intake);10 consultations of 1 hr each with a dietician during the pregnancy. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 6.6±5.5 (n=23) vs 13.3±7.5 (n=27) * Gestational diabetes: 0/23 vs 3/30 * Gestational hypertension: 1/23 vs 4/27 * Pre-eclampsia: 0/23 vs 1/27 * Caesarean section: 2/23 vs 3/27 * Postnatal weight retention at 4 weeks: -4.5±12.6 (n=16) vs 2.4±12.6 (n=19) |

### 

1. Q9 Outcomes associated with exercise intervention versus usual care in randomised controlled trials

| **Study ref** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Outcomes** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Aguilar-Condero et al 2018447  Spain  SWEP | Intervention 65  Control 64 | **Aim**: To determine whether physical activity during pregnancy alleviates postnatal depression.  **Population**: Women with uncomplicated and singleton pregnancies and no contraindications to physical activity at 12 to 20 weeks. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Physical exercise in an aquatic environment (1-hour sessions, 3 days a week) from week 20 to week 37.  The sessions consisted of three phases: warm-up; the main phase, in which the activity is divided into an aerobic session followed by strength and endurance exercises; and final stretching and relaxation. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg rating 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * Risk of postnatal depression: 14/65 vs 38/64 |
| Bacchi et al 2018425  Argentina  NCT02602106 | Intervention: 49  Control: 62 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of a supervised and regular program of aquatic activities throughout gestation on maternal weight gain and birth weight.  **Population**: Women with uncomplicated and singleton pregnancies and no contraindications to physical activity. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Aquatic; 55-60 minute 3xweekly sessions from weeks 10 to 12 until weeks 38 to 39 * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; Borg rating from 10-12 | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain kg 12.7±2.6 vs 13.9±4.3 p=0.10 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 12 (24.5%) vs 28 (45.2) p=0.02; OR 0.39; 95%CI 0.17 to 0.89 * Preterm birth: 2 (4.1%) vs 3 (4.8%) p=0.84 * Low birthweight (<2500g): 1 (2.0%) vs 2 (3.2%) p=0.53 * Macrosomia (>4000): 4 (8.2%) vs 9 (14.5%) |
| Baciuk et al 2008;292 Cavalcante et al 2009312  Brazil | Intervention: 34  Control: 37 | **Aim**: To evaluate the association between water aerobics, maternal cardiovascular capacity during pregnancy, labour and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Women of < 20 weeks of pregnancy with a singleton pregnancy and no gestational risk factors. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Aquatic; 50 min 3 times a week from <20 wks to birth * *Intensity*: Moderate 70% predicted HR | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 14.3±2.1 vs 15.1±1.6 p=0.38 * Caesarean section: 12 (36.4%) vs 17 (45.9%) p=0.57 * Preterm birth (% <37 weeks): 2/33 vs 3/37 p=0.56 OR 0.84 (0.28–2.53) * Low birth weight (<2500 g): 3/33 vs 2/37 p=0.44 OR 1.30 (0.61–2.79) |
| Barakat et al 2008;293 Barakat et al 2009a;313 Barakat et al 2009b;303  Spain  NCT00813657 | Intervention: 72  Control: 70 | **Aim**: to examine the effect of light intensity resistance exercise training performed during the second and third trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy sedentary pregnant women; mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Resistance; Toning and joint mobilisation; 35-40 min 3 times a week from weeks 12-13 to 38-39. * *Intensity*: Light; ≤80% of age-predicted maximum HR | Gestational weight gain intervention vs control by BMI:   * 18.5–24.9 kg/m2:12.2±2.9 vs 12.6±3.5 P>0.1 * 25.0–29.9 kg/m2: 10.9±4.9 vs 12.3±3.9 P>0.1 * ≥30.0 kg/m2: 8.4±4.14 vs 9.7±1.2 P>0.1 * All: 11.5±3.7 12.4±3.4 P>0.1   Neonatal outcomes (g) intervention vs control:   * Low birthweight <2500 g: 4 (5.6%) vs 4 (5.7%) P>40.1 * Macrosomia >4000 g: 1 (1.4%) vs 7 (10%) P>0.1   Caesarean section: 11 (15.3%) vs 11 (15.7%) |
| Barakat et al 2011;426 Barakat et al 2012a454  Spain | Intervention: 40  Control: 43 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of an exercise programme on maternal glucose tolerance.  **Population**: Healthy women with uncomplicated singleton pregnancies. Mixed BMIS.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Land and aquatic; 35–45-min 3 times a week from weeks 6-9 to 38-39 * *Intensity*: Light to moderate, HR<70% | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 12.5±3.2 vs 13.8±3.1 p>0.05 * Gestational diabetes (n/%): 0/0 vs 3/7 p>0.05 * Caesarean section (n/%): 12/30 vs 6/14 |
| Barakat et al 2012b;427 Barakat et al 2014a533  Spain | Intervention: 138  Control: 152 | **Aim**: To assess the effects of a structured, moderate-intensity exercise program during the entire length of pregnancy on a woman's method of delivery.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant Caucasian (Spanish) women with a singleton pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance and muscle strengthening; 40–45-min 3 times a week, from weeks 6–9 to 38–39 * *Intensity*: Moderate, HR<70% | Intervention vs control (n/%):   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 11.9±3.7 vs 13.7±4.1 p=0.0001 * Gestational diabetes: 6/4.3 vs 12/7.9 p=0.21 * Caesarean section: 22/15.9 vs 35/23 * Preterm birth: 9/6.5 vs 10/6.6 p=0.98 |
| Barakat et al 2013428  Pelaez et al 2019534  Spain  NCT01477372 | Intervention 210  Control 218 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of regular moderate-intensity exercise (three training sessions/week) on the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM, primary outcome).  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance and muscle strengthening; 50-55-min 3 times a week, from weeks 10-12 to 38–39 * *Intensity*: Light to moderate, HR<70%; Borg 10-12 | Intervention vs control:   * GDM (WHO criteria): 41 (19.5%) vs 61 (28%) p=0.040 * GDM (IADPSG criteria): 29 (13.8%) 32 (14.7%) p=0.797   Intervention (n=169) vs control (n=157) (no GDM WHO criteria):   * Caesarean section (n, %) 24 (14.2) 28 (17.8) * Gestational weight gain (kg) 11.8±3.6 vs 13.3±4.3   Intervention (n=100 women attending 80% of sessions) vs control (n=201) (Note that these results have not been included in the meta-analysis):   * Gestational weight gain: 11.5±3.5 vs 13.72±4.1 * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 22/100 vs 69/201 * Gestational diabetes: 3/100 vs 13/201 * Macrosomia: 0/100 vs 10/201 * Caesarean section: 17/100 vs 48/201 |
| Barakat et al 2014b429  Spain  NCT01696201 | Intervention 107  Control 93 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of a program of moderate physical exercise throughout pregnancy on maternal and fetal parameters.  **Population**: Pregnant women with uncomplicated and singleton pregnancies. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance and muscle strengthening; 50-55-min 3 times a week, from weeks 9-13 to 39–40 * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55% to 60% maximal heart rate | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 11.72±4.06 vs 13.66±9.62 p=0.06 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (n/%): 22/21.2 vs 31/35.6 p=0.02 * Gestational diabetes (n/%): 5/4.7 vs 5/5.6. * Preterm birth (n/%): 4/3.8 vs 4/4.4 p=0.82 * Caesarean section (n/%): 18/17.1 vs 26/28.6 |
| Barakat et al 2016430  Spain  NCT01723098 | Intervention 383  Control 382 | **Aim**: To examine the impact of a program of supervised exercise throughout pregnancy on the incidence of pregnancy-induced hypertension.  **Population**: Women with singleton uncomplicated pregnancies. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance and muscle strengthening, flexibility; 50-55-min 3 times a week, from weeks 9-11 to 38–39 * *Intensity*: Moderate, HR<70%; Borg 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 12.1±3.7 vs 12.9±4.5 p=0.01 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (n/%): 101/26.4 vs 131/34.2 p=0.03 * Gestational diabetes (n/%): 9/2.4 vs 21/5.5 p=0.03 * Maternal hypertension (n/%): 8/2.1 vs 22/5.7 p=0.009 * Pre-eclampsia (n/%): 2/0.5 vs 9/2.3 p=0.03 * Preterm birth, <37 wk (n/%) 29/7.6 vs 37/9.7 p=0.31 * Caesarean section: 73/19.1 vs 83/21.7 p=0.38 * Low birthweight <2500 (n/%): 16/4.2 vs 25/6.5 p=0.15 * Macrosomia >4000 (n/%): 7/1.8 vs 18/4.7 p=0.03 * Apgar score >7 at 5 min (n/%): 380/99.2 381/99.7 p=0.31 |
| Barakat et al 2018294  Spain  NCT02109588 | Intervention 227  Control 202 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of an exercise program throughout pregnancy on the duration of labour.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Aquatic; 50-55-min 3 times a week, from weeks 9-11 to 38–39 * *Intensity*: Moderate, HR<70%; Borg 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 12.26±3.6 vs 13.27±4.1 p=0.015 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 47 (20.7%) vs 61 (30.2%) p=0.024 * Preterm birth (<37 weeks): 10 (4.4%) vs 7 (3.5%) p=0.618 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g) (n/%) 8 (3.5%) vs 14 (6.9%) p=0.110a   Note that a later report of this study535 reported slightly different results; the results from the earlier article are included here as it specified that intention to treat analysis was conducted. |
| Bisson et al 2015269  Canada | Intervention 23  Control 22 | **Aim**: To evaluate whether a 12-week supervised exercise program promotes an active lifestyle throughout pregnancy in pregnant women with obesity.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI ≥30 kg/m2) and a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Stationary cycling, treadmill, muscle strengthening; 60 min 3 times a week from week 15 to 27 * *Intensity*: Moderate; 70% HR or perceived exertion score of 3-5/10 | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain, *kg* 12.3±4.0 vs 12.2±5.9 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines:21 (88) vs 17 (71) * Caesarian section: 8 (33) vs 8 (33) * Gestational diabetes: 3 (13) vs 5 (21) * Gestational hypertension: 2 (8) vs 3 (13) * Large for gestational age: 4 (17) vs 3 (13) * Small for gestational age: 0 vs 2 (8) |
| Cordero et al 2015431  Spain  NCT01790412 | Intervention 101  Control 156 | **Aim**: to assess the effectiveness of a moderate to vigorous maternal exercise program (land/aquatic activities, both aerobic and muscular conditioning) in preventing gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).  **Population**: Pregnant women without obstetric contraindications. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Land and aquatic; 50-60 min 3 times a week from week 10-14 until birth * *Intensity*: Moderate to vigorous; HR <60%; Borg scale 12-14 | Intervention vs control:   * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (n/%): 23/22.8 vs 54/34.8 p=0.04 * Caesarean section (n%): 26/25.7 vs 33/21.2 * Low birthweight (n%): 3/3 vs 9/5.8 * Macrosomia (> 4000 g) (n%): 5/5 vs 7/4.5   Intervention (n=100) vs control (n=146):   * Gestational diabetes (n%): 1/1 vs 13/8.9 p=0.009 OR 0.103 (0.013–0.803) |
| da Silva et al 2017432  Coll et al 2019536  Brazil  PAMELA  NCT02148965 | Intervention 213  Control 426 | **Aim**: To evaluate the efficacy of an exercise intervention to prevent negative maternal and newborn health outcomes.  **Population**: Low risk women whose pregnancy exercise levels did not include self-reported participation in an exercise program, were <18 and BMI <30.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Stationary cycling, treadmill, muscle strengthening; 60 min 3 times a week from weeks 16-20 to 32-36 * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14 | Intervention (n=205) vs control (n=407)   * Gestational weight gain(kg)b 12.4±5.7 vs 12.9±6.5 p=0.43 MD 0.4 (−0.6; 0.8)   Intervention (n=176) vs control (n=407)   * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 67 (38.0) vs 136 (38.8) MD 1.1 (0.7;1.6)   Intervention (n=205) vs control (n=407)   * Gestational diabetes (n%): 16 (7.8) vs 31 (7.6) OR 1.0 (0.6 to 1.9) * Pre-eclampsia (n%): 11 (5.4) vs 22 (5.4) OR 1.0 (0.5 to 2.1)   Intervention (n=198) vs control (n=396):   * Preterm birth <37 wk: 26 (13.1) vs 48 (12.1) OR 1.1 (0.7-1.8)   Intervention (n=204) vs control (n=407):   * Small-for-gestational age (n%): 8 (3.9) vs 22 (5.4) p=0.42 OR 0.7 (0.3 to 1.6) * Large-for-gestational age (n%): 24 (11.8) vs 53 (13.0) p=0.66 OR 0.9 (0.5 to 1.5) * Birthweight <2500 (n%): 12 (5.9) vs 20 (4.9) OR 1.2 (0.6 to 2.5) * Birthweight ≥4000 (n%): 9 (4.4) vs 21 (5.2) OR 0.9 (0.4 to 1.9)   Intervention vs control:   * Postpartum depression: 12/192 vs 36/387 |
| Daly et al 2017433  United Kingdom | Intervention 43  Control 44 | **Aim**: To evaluate whether an intensive, medically supervised exercise intervention improved maternal glycaemia and gestational weight gain in obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Women with singleton uncomplicated pregnancies and a BMI >30.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Not described; 50-60 min, 3 times a week from 134±12 for the duration of their pregnancy and for up to 6 weeks postpartum * *Intensity*: Increase in HR and Borg scale | Intervention (n=43) vs control (n=43):   * Gestational diabetes at 24-28 weeks (n%): 25 (58.1) vs 21 (48.8) p=0.51   Intervention (n=36) vs control (n=44)   * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (n%): 8 (22.2) vs 19 (43.2) p=0.05   Intervention (n=33) vs control (n=36)   * Weight retention at 6 weeks (n%): –1.6±1.2 kg vs 0.2±5.4 P=0.22)   Intervention (n=34) vs control (n=42):   * Gestational weight gain at 36 weeks: 6.2±6.0 vs 7.9±4.8 p=0.15   Intervention (n=43) vs control (n=44)   * Emergency caesarean section (n%): 9 (20.9) vs 8 (18.2) p=0.75 * Low birthweight (<2500 g)(n%): 1 (2.3) vs 0 p=0.75 * Macrosomia (>4500 g)(n%): 0 vs 1 (2.3) =0.51 * Apgar score <7 at 5 min (n%): 1 (2.3) vs 0 p=0.49 |
| de Oliveria Melo et al 2012270  Brazil | Intervention 13 weeks 62  Intervention 20 weeks 63  Control 62  3-armed; control group halved | **Aim**: To estimate the effect of supervised physical exercise on maternal physical fitness, fetoplacental blood flow, and fetal growth.  **Population**: healthy pregnant women who were sedentary at admission to the study, gestational age 13 weeks with an uncomplicated singleton pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; 15 min walking, 3 times weekly, increasing according to woman’s ability from 13 weeks (Group A) or 20 weeks (Group B) until birth * Intensity: Moderate; 60-80% maximum HR; Borg scale 12-16 | Intervention (initiated at 13 weeks; n=54) vs control (n=28):   * Pre-eclampsia (n%): 3 (5.6) vs 5 (8.8) RR 0.63 (0.16 to 2.52) * LGA (n%): 3 (0.6) vs 7 (12.3) RR 0.45 (0.12 to 1.66) * SGA (n%): 4 (7.4) vs 4 (7.0) RR 1.06 (0.28 to 4.01)   Intervention (initiated at 20 weeks; n=60) vs control (n=28):   * Pre-eclampsia (n%): 6 (10) vs 5 (8.8) RR 1.14 (0.37 to 3.53) * LGA (n%): 4 (6.7) vs 7 (12.3) RR 0.57 (0.17 to 1.82) * SGA (n%): 4 (6.7) vs vs 4 (7.0) RR 0.98 (0.26 to 3.74). |
| Dekker Nitert et al 2015448  Australia | Intervention 19  Control 16 | **Aim**: To investigate the effects of exercise on gestational weight gain, maternal circulating lipids, IL-8, MCP-1 and leptin levels in obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI ≥30  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Individualised to meet energy expenditure requirements; From week 12 * *Intensity*: Based on individual preferences and ability. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain at 36 weeks: 7.87±4.00 vs 8.28±6.10 * Caesarean section (n) (% of group): 9 (47%) vs 4 (25%) |
| Garnaes et al 2016;304 Garnaes et al 2017;314 Garnæs et al 2018315  Garnaes et al 2019537  ETIP  Norway | Intervention 38  Control 36 | **Aim**: to assess whether regular supervised exercise training in pregnancy could reduce gestational weight gain in women with prepregnancy overweight/obesity.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a prepregnancy body mass index (BMI) ≥28 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Treadmill walking/jogging and muscle strengthening; 60 min, 3 times weekly plus 50 min home exercise program 2 times a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; 80% maximal capacity, Borg scale 12-15. | Intervention (n=38) vs control (n=36)   * Gestational weight gain: 10.5 kg vs 9.2 kg MD 0.92 kg (95% CI ‑1.35 to 3.18; p=0.43) * Preterm birth (n%): 2 (5) vs 0 (0) p=0.49 * GDM (2009 WHO definition): 2 (6.1%) vs 9 (27.3%)OR 0.1 (95% CI 0.02 to 0.95; p=0.04).   Intervention (n=37) vs control (n=36):   * Birth weight >4000 g (n%): 13 (35) vs 19 (53) MD 1.4 (0.88 to 2.36) p=0.16 * Postpartum weight retention (body weight at 3 months postpartum minus early pregnancy weight): −0.8±5.6 (n=36) vs −1.6±5.4 (n=34).   Intervention (n=36) vs control (n=34):   * Minor depression (EPDS score 10-12): 2/36 vs 3/34 |
| Garshasbi & Faghih Zadeh 2005434  Iran | Intervention 107  Control 105 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of exercise during pregnancy on the intensity of low back pain and kinematics of spine.  **Population**: Sedentary pregnant women aged 20-28 years without contraindications to physical activity in pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Not specified; 60 min, 3 times a week from 17-22 weeks for 12 weeks * *Intensity*: Pulse rate <140. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 14.1±3.8 vs 13.8±5.2 p=0.63 |
| Guelfi et al 2016271  Australia  NCT01283854 | Intervention 84  Control 85 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of a supervised home-based exercise program on the recurrence and severity of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) together with other aspects of maternal health and obstetric and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Women with a history of gestational diabetes. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling 20-60 min, 3 times a week for 14 weeks from 13±1 weeks * *Intensity*: Moderate; 75–85% maximum HR; Borg scale 14–16. | Intervention vs control:   * GDM: 34 (40.5%) vs 34 (40.0%)   Intervention (n=81) vs control (n=76)   * Gestational weight gain at 28 wks: 6.4±2.1 vs 6.7±2.6 * EPDS score >12: 1 (1.2%) vs 3 (3.5%) * Emergency caesarean section: 10 (11.9) vs 11 (12.9) * Pre-eclampsia: 2 (2.4) vs 1 (1.2) p=1.000 * Preterm birth: 3 (3.6) vs 4 (4.7) p=1.000 * Apgar score <7 at 5 min: 1 (1.2) vs 1 (1.2) p=1.000 * Large for gestational age: 12 (14.2) vs 10 (11.8) p=0.336 * Small for gestational age 0 vs 2 (2.4) |
| Haakstad & Bo 2011a;435 Haakstad & Bo 2011b;538 Haakstad et al 2016278  Haakstad et al 2019539  Norway | Intervention 52  Control 53 | **Aim**: to examine the effect of a supervised exercise-program on birth weight, gestational age at delivery and Apgar-score.  **Population**: Sedentary, nulliparous pregnant women, mean age 30.7±4.0 years, pre-pregnancy BMI 23.8±4.3.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance and strength training; 60 min, 2 times a week for a minimum of 12 weeks plus 30 min home-based activity, 3 times a week, from week 17-18 * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12–14. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 13±4 vs 13.8±4 MD 0.8 p=0.31 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (n%): 17 (33) vs 20 (38) p=0.59 * Birth weight <2500 (g): 1 (1.9) vs 1 (1.9) * Birth weight ≥4000 (g): 5 (9.6) vs 9 (17.0) p=0.5 * Antenatal depression: 3 (5.8%) vs 9 (17%) * Postpartum weight retention 6 weeks postpartum: 3.3±3.9 (n=33) vs 3.3±4.1 (n=37) * Postpartum weight retention 6 years postpartum: 1.3±4.3 (n=40) vs 1.5±6.9 (n=40) |
| Hopkins et al 2010;272 Hopkins et al 2011540  New Zealand | Intervention 47  Control 37 | **Aim**: to determine the effects of aerobic exercise training in the second half of pregnancy on maternal insulin sensitivity and neonatal outcomes.  **Population**: Healthy nulliparous women (age, 30±4 yr; BMI 25.5±4 kg/m2).  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 40 min, up to 5 times a week * *Intensity*: Moderate; 65% of predicted capacity. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 8.3±2.7 vs 8.9±3.3 * Small for gestational age: 4 (8.5) vs 3 (8.1) |
| Kong et al 2014a;449 Kong et al 2014b541  United States | Intervention 18  Control 19 | **Aim**: to promote MPA among overweight and obese pregnant women, via walking, and to evaluate the effect of the intervention on maternal and birth outcomes.  **Population**: non-exercising, overweight or obese pregnant women; BMI ≥25.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Walking; 150 min per week from week 15 to at least week 35. * *Intensity*: Moderate; ≥ 80 steps per minute in 8 minute blocks. | Overweight women: intervention (n=9) vs control (n=9)   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 10.53±5.37 vs 9.94±6.14 * Gestational diabetes: 1 vs 1 * Birth weight >4000 g: 3 vs 1 * Preterm birth: 0 vs 1 * Caesarean section: 0 vs 4   Obese women: intervention (n=9) vs control (n=10):   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 12.07±9.01 vs 12.48±8.51 * Gestational diabetes: 0 vs 0 * Birth weight >4000g: 2 vs 5 * Preterm birth: 0 vs 0 * Caesarean section: 5 vs 5 * Pre-eclampsia: 1 vs 0   Overweight women: intervention (n=8) vs control (n=10):   * Weight retention at 1 month (kg): 5.34±6.05 vs 1.62 ± 5.58 * Weight retention at 6 months (kg): 1.64±2.09 vs –0.94±5.60   Obese women: intervention (n=7) vs control (n=9):   * Weight retention at 1 month (kg): 1.43 ± 5.36 vs 3.05 ± 8.24 * Weight retention at 6 months (kg): –0.10±8.11 vs 6.35±7.47   Infants of overweight women:   * Weight at 1 month: 4.49±0.4 (n=9) vs 4.63±0.59 (n=9) * Weight at 6 months: 7.94±0.98 (n=8) vs 7.94±2.1 (n=9)   Infants of obese women:   * Weight at 1 month: 4.37±0.7 (n=9) vs 4.63±0.42 (n=9) * Weight at 6 months: 7.85±0.79 (n=7) vs 8.35±1.24 (n=9) |
| Murtezani et al 2014436  Kosovo | Intervention 30  Control 33 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of aerobic and strength conditioning exercise performed during the second and the third trimester of pregnancy.  **Population**: Nulliparous, previously inactive women. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Treadmill, stationary cycling, muscle strengthening; 40-45 min, 3 times a week from week 18-19 until the end of pregnancy. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14. | Intervention vs control:   * Birthweight <2500 (g): 3 (10.0%) vs 0 * Birthweight ≥4000 (g): 2 (6.7%) vs 1 (3.0%) |
| Nascimento et al 2011b437  Brazil | Intervention 39  Control 41 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effectiveness and safety of physical exercise in terms of maternal/perinatal outcomes and the perception of quality of life (QoL).  **Population:** Pregnant women (age ≥18 years; pre-gestational body mass index ≥26 kg/m2; gestational age 14–24 weeks).  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Stretching and strengthening; 40 min, 1 time a week from week 17-18 until the end of pregnancy plus home-based exercise (duration not specified) 5 times a week. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; HR<140/min. | Combined groups intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 10.3 ± 5.0 vs 11.5 ± 7.4 p=0.543 * Caesarean section (n %): 25/38 (65.8) vs 29/40 (72.5) p=0.521 * Apgar score <7: 1/36 (2.8) vs 0/37 (0) * Large for gestational age: 8/33 (24.2) vs 8/33 (24.2) * Small for gestational age: 2/33 (6.1) vs 1/33 (3.0)   Overweight women intervention (n=9) vs control (n=5):   * Gestational weight gain: 10.0 ± 1.7 vs 16.4 ± 3.9 p=0.001   Obese women intervention (n=30) vs control (n=36):   * Gestational weight gain: 10.4 ± 5.6 vs 10.9 ± 7.6 p=0.757 |
| Ong et al 2009450  Australia | Intervention 6  Control 6 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of a supervised 10-week, home-based, exercise programme, beginning at week 18 of gestation, on glucose tolerance and aerobic fitness.  **Population**: Previously sedentary obese women; BMI ≥30 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 35-50 min, 3 times a week from week 18 until week 28. * *Intensity*: Moderate; 50-60% HRmax increasing to 60-70% HRmax. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 3.7±3.4 vs 5.2±1.3 MD −1.50 (−4.41 to 1.41) |
| Oostdam et al 2012438  Netherlands | Intervention 62  Control 59 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effectiveness of an exercise programme.  **Population**: pregnant women with BMI ≥25 kg/m2 and at risk for gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Individualised; 60 min, 2 times a week from week 16 until birth. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; Borg scale 12. | Intervention (n=43) vs control (n=41):   * Gestational weight gain: 6.2±5.0 vs 5.6±3.5   Intervention (n=47) vs control (n=50):   * LGA: 6 (12.8%) vs 1 (2.0%) RR 6.38 (0.79–51.1)   Intervention (n=30) vs control (n=34):   * Caesarean section: 7(23.3%) vs 8 (23.5%) p=0.99 RR 0.99 (0.41 to 2.41)   Intervention (n=48) vs control (n=51):   * Gestational diabetes: 7 (14.6%) vs 11 (21.6%) p=0.37 RR 0.65 (0.27–1.55) |
| Perales et al 2015a439  Spain | Intervention 52  Control 54 | **Aim**: To assess the effectiveness of a regular physical exercise program on the prevention of depression  **Population**: Overweight and obese healthy pregnant women (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), with uncomplicated and singleton gestation.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 8-11 to 38-39. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% of aerobic capacity. | Intervention (n=45) vs control (n=53)— entire group   * CES-D score ≥16: 8 (17.8%) vs 25 (47.2%) **p=0.002**   Intervention (n=37) vs control (n=44) — Overweight women   * CES-D score ≥16: 6 (16.2%) vs 21 (47.7%) **p=0.003**   Intervention (n=8) vs control (n=9) — Obese women   * CES-D score ≥16: 2 (25%) vs 4 (44.4%) p=0.402 |
| Perales et al 2015b440  Spain  NCT01696201 | Intervention 90  Control 77 | **Aim**: to examine whether a supervised exercise program (EP) reduces depressive symptoms in pregnant women.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women (31.37+3.62 years) with uncomplicated singleton pregnancies. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 9-12 to 39-40. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * CES-D score ≥16: 11 (12.2%) vs 19 (24.7%) **p=0.04** * Gestational weight gain: 11.850 ±4.19 vs 13.890±10.23 p=0.08 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 12 (13.25) vs 20 (26.7%) p=**0.03** * Caesarean section: 14 (15.6%) vs 19 (24.7%) |
| Perales et al 2016a295  Spain | Intervention 83  Control 83 | **Aim**: To examine the influence of moderate physical exercise throughout pregnancy on the duration of labour stages.  **Population**: Pregnant women (31.6±3.8 years) with uncomplicated and singleton pregnancies. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 9-11 to 39-40. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 11.6±3.6 vs 12.8±4.4 p=0.06 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 14 (16.9) vs 25 (30.1) p=0.04 |
| Perales et al 2016b296  Spain  NCT01723098 | Intervention 83  Control 59 | **Aim:** To examine the effects of pregnancy exercise on echocardiographic indicators of haemodynamics, cardiac remodelling, left ventricular function, and cardiovascular disease risk factors.  **Population**: Pregnant women with no obstetric complications, no serious medical condition preventing them from exercising safely,<16 wk gestation and not exercising regularly for more than 30 min on 3 d·wk−1. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 55-60 min, 3 times a week from week 9-11 to 39-40. * *Intensity*: Light to moderate; 55-60% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 15 (18%) vs 23 (40%) **p=0.005** * Gestational hypertension 34 wks: 2 (2%) vs 3 (5%) p=0.649 * Gestational diabetes 24-28 wks: 5 (6%) vs 5 (8%) p=0.741 * CES-D score ≥16: 36-40 wks: 10 (12%) vs 16 (27%) p=0.029 |
| Petrov Fieril et al 2015453  Sweden | Intervention 38  Control 34 | **Aim**: To assess the effect and safety of moderate-to-vigorous resistance exercise during pregnancy.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Resistance; Weight training; 60 min, 2 times a week from week 14 to 25. * *Intensity*: Moderate to vigorous; Borg scale rating not described. | Intervention vs control:   * Caesarean section: 5 (14%) vs 5 (15%) |
| Pinzon et al 2012441  Colombia | Intervention 18  Control 17 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of pregnant Latin-American women engaging in vigorous exercise during the second and third trimester.  **Population**: Nulliparous pregnant women who had not participated in a structured exercise program beforehand, aged 16-30 years, had a live fetus in routine ultrasound scan, a normal pregnancy and 16 to 20 weeks’ gestational age. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Circuit training; 60 min, 3 times a week from week 16-20 to 32-36 weeks. * *Intensity*: Vigorous; 55-75% maximal HR. | Intervention vs control:   * Caesarean section: 7 (38.9) vs 3 (17.6) |
| Price et al 2012442  United States | Intervention 31  Control 31 | **Aim:** to assess the benefits and possible risks of aerobic exercise during pregnancy.  **Population**: Sedentary (no aerobic exercise more than once a week in the past 6 months), pregnant women at 12-14 wks with BMI <39 kg/m2 and no chronic conditions or history of preterm birth or SGA.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Walking, stationary cycling, circuit training, weight training; 45–60 min, 4 times per week plus individual 30-60 minute walk once weekly, from week 12-14 to at least week 36. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 12.4±5.3 vs 10.5 ±5.13 * Gestational diabetes: 3 (9.6%) vs 4 (12.9%) p=0.66 * Caesarean section: 2 (6.4%) vs 10 (32.2%) p=0.001 * Small for gestational age: 4 (12.9%) vs 5 (16.1%) * Postpartum weight retention (6-8 weeks): 2.5 vs 0.7 |
| Renault et al 2014451  Denmark | Intervention 125  Control 134 | **Aim**: to assess physical activity intervention assessed by a pedometer with or without dietary intervention on gestational weight gain (GWG).  **Population**: Obese pregnant women (BMI ≥30 kg/m2) older than 18 years, a singleton pregnancy, and a normal scan in weeks 11-14, gestational age <16 weeks.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Walking; Daily step count of 11,000, (150% of the average step count in healthy lean pregnant women) from <16 weeks gestation until birth. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention vs control:   * Weight gain >IOM guidelines (>9kg): 64 (51%) vs 84 (63%) * Gestational diabetes: 2 (1.6) vs 7 (5.2) * Hypertensive disease: 9 (7.2) vs 12 (9.0) * Caesarean section (unplanned): 27 (22) vs 32 (24) * Gestational age: 278±14 vs 278±12 * Preterm birth 28-34 weeks: 3 (2) 1 (1) * Preterm birth 34-37 wks: 5 (4) 5 (4) * SGA: 4 (3.2) vs 2 (1.5) * LGA: 8 (6.4) vs 9 (6.7) * Birthweight >4000 g: 37 (30) vs 33 (25) |
| Ruiz et al 2013443  Spain  NCT01790347 | Intervention 481  Control 481 | **Aim**: To study the effect on maternal weight gain of a supervised light- to moderate-intensity exercise-based intervention performed from the ninth week of pregnancy.  **Population**: Sedentary women with a singleton uncomplicated pregnancy. BMI ≤25 kg/m2; BMI ≥25 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening; 50-55 min, 3 times a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; <60% of age-predicted maximum HR; Borg scale 10 to 12. | Normal weight range intervention (n=335) vs control (n=352)   * Gestational weight gain: 12.3±3.6 vs 13.8±4.1 p<0.001 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 42 (12.6%) vs 78 (22.1%) p<0.002 * Low birth weight (<2500g): 19 (5.7%) vs 15 (4.3%) * Macrosomia (>4000g): 8 (2.4%) vs 14 (4.0%) * Preterm birth (<36 wks): 8 (2.3%) vs 2 (0.6%) * Caesarean section: 55 (16.5%) vs 66 (18.7%) * Gestational diabetes: 7 (2.1%) vs 18 (5.1%) * Gestational hypertension: 5 (1.5%) vs 20 (5.7%)   Overweight or obese women intervention (n=146) vs control (n=129):   * Gestational weight gain: 11.1±4.3 vs 11.6±4.2 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 72 (49.3%) vs 76 (58.9%) * Low birth weight (<2500g): 5 (3.4%) vs 6 (4.6%) * Macrosomia (>4000g): 2 (1.4%) vs 12 (9.3%) * Preterm birth (<36 wks): 4 (2.7%) vs 2 (1.5%) * Caesarean section: 38 (25.9%) vs 29 (22.1%) * Gestational diabetes: 9 (6.2%) vs 12 (9.3%) * Gestational hypertension: 8 (5.5%) vs 10 (7.8%) |
| Seneviratne et al 2016273  New Zealand | Intervention 37  Control 37 | **Aim:** To assess whether antenatal exercise in overweight/obese women would improve maternal and perinatal outcomes.  **Population:** Pregnant women with body mass index ≥25 kg/m2.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 25-45 min, 3-5 times a week depending on stage of pregnancy, from week 25 to 35. * *Intensity*: Moderate (40–59% VO2 reserve). | Intervention vs control:   * LGA: 9 (24%) vs 4 (11%) p=0.170 * SGA: 4 (11%) vs 3 (8%) p=0.745 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 10 (26%) vs 7 (19%) p=0.429 * Low birthweight (<2,500 g): 1 (3%) vs 1 (3%) p=0.860 |
| Simmons et al 2017402  United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium | Intervention 98  Control 94  4-armed; control group divided by three | **Aim:** to compare the effectiveness of 3 lifestyle interventions [healthy eating (HE), physical activity (PA), and both HE and PA (HE+PA)] with usual care (UC) in reducing GDM risk.  **Population**: pregnant women at with a body mass index (BMI) of ≥29 kg/m, ≤19±6 and aged ≥18 years and without GDM using the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group criteria.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Coaching sessions. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention (n=76) vs control (n=26):   * Gestational weight gain: 8.5±5.0 vs 8.8±4.7 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 55 (72%) vs 20 (76%)   Intervention vs control   * Gestational diabetes 30 (34%) (n=89) vs 12 (39%) (n=31) * SGA: 5 (6%) (n=87) vs 2 (6%) (n=30) * LGA: 12 (14%) (n=88) vs 5 (18%) (n=30) |
| SongØYgard et al 2012444  Norway | Intervention 379  Control 340 | **Aim**: To study whether exercise during pregnancy reduces the risk of postnatal depression.  **Population**: Women ≥18 years with a singleton uncomplicated pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Not specified; 60 min, 1 time a week for 12 weeks between weeks 20 and 36, plus 45 home-based activity at least twice a week. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention vs control 3 months postpartum (all women):   * EPDS score of ≥10: 14 (3.7%) vs 17 (5.0%) (p=0.46) * EPDS score of ≥13: 4 (1.2%) vs 8 (2.4%) (p=0.25)   Intervention (n=100) vs control (n=90) 3 months postpartum among women who did not exercise regularly before pregnancy:   * EPDS score of ≥10: 2 (2.0%) vs 9 (9.5%) OR 0.2 (0.04 to 0.93) p=0.03 * EPDS score of ≥13: 0 (0%) vs 3 (3.2%) p=0.11 |
| Stafne et al 2012445  Norway | Intervention 429  Control 426 | **Aim**: To assess whether exercise during pregnancy can prevent gestational diabetes and improve insulin resistance.  **Population**: Women >18 years with a singleton pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and resistance; Dance, muscle strengthening (including pelvic floor muscle exercises); 55-70 min, 3 times a week from week 20 to 36 plus 45 min home exercise program at least twice a week. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 13-14. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 25/375 (7%) vs 18/327 (6%) (P=0.52). * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 71/426 (16.7) vs 78/425 (18.4) OR 0.9 (0.7 to 1.2) p=0.52 * Gestational hypertension: 11/385 (2.9) vs 11/340 (3.2) OR 0.9 (0.4 to 2.0) p=0.77 * Preeclampsia 16/426 (3.8) vs 16/426 (3.8) OR 1.0 (0.5–2.0) p=0.99 * Caesarean section: 45/426 (10.6) vs 50/425 (11.8) OR 0.9 (0.6 to 1.3) p=0.58 * Apgar score <7 after 5 min: 3/422 (0.7) vs 4/414 (1.0) OR 0.7 (0.2 to 3.3) p=0.69 |
| Taniguchi & Sato 2016299  Japan | Intervention 54  Control 53 | **Aim**: To examine the effects of home-based walking on sedentary women’s pregnancy outcomes and mood.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a healthy singleton pregnancy aged 20–30 years; sedentary in daily life by self-report; no physical, mental or social problems by self-report; no psychiatric drug use; in at least the 30th week of pregnancy. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: No * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Walking; 30 min, 3 times a week from 30 weeks until birth. * *Intensity*: Not described. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 10.1±3.7 vs 10.4±2.6 MD 0.43 (1.65 to 0.80) p=0.49 * Preterm birth: 0 (0.0%) vs 2 (3.8%) * Pre-eclampsia: 0 (0.0%) vs 1 (1.9%) * Caesarean section: 3 (5.6%) vs 4 (7.5%) p=0.49 |
| Vargas-Terrones et al 2018446  Spain  NCT02420288 | Intervention 70  Control 45 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of an exercise programme during pregnancy on the risk of perinatal depression.  **Population**: Healthy women who were <16 weeks pregnant  **Intervention**:   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic and muscle strengthening exercises for 60 min 3 days per week from week 12 to 16 to week 38 to 40 * *Intensity*: Moderate; 55-60% heart rate | Intervention vs control:   * Antenatal depression (38 weeks):13/70 vs 16/45 * Postnatal depression (6 weeks postpartum): 10/69 vs 14/47 |
| Wang et al 2016;542Wang et al 2017452  China | Intervention 132  Control 133 | **Aim**: To test the efficacy of regular exercise in early pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes mellitus.  **Population**: Non-smoking women age >18 years with a singleton pregnancy who met the criteria for overweight/obese status (BMI 24≤28 kg/m(2)) and had an uncomplicated pregnancy at <12(+6) weeks of gestation  **Intervention:**   * *Supervised*: Yes * *Type and duration*: Aerobic; Stationary cycling; 30 min, 3 times a week, from weeks 10 to 37. * *Intensity*: Moderate; Borg scale 12-14. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 29 (22.0) vs 54 (40.6) OR 0.412 (0.240 to 0.705) p<0.001 * Gestational weight gain: 8.38±3.65 vs 10.47±3.33 p<0.001 * Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: 19/112 (17.0) vs 22/114 (19.3) OR 0.854 (0.434 to 1.683) p=0.6 * Caesarean section: 33/112 (29.5) vs 37/114 (32.5) OR 0.869 (0.494 to 1.529) p=0.6 |

1. Q9 Outcomes associated with lifestyle counselling interventions versus usual care

| **Ref/setting** | **N** | **Aim/population/intervention** | **Outcomes** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Asci & Rathfisch 2016489  Turkey | Intervention 45  Control 45 | **Aim**: to determine the effect of lifestyle interventions on improving dietary habits and lifestyle behaviours, ensuring gestational weight gain (GWG) within recommended levels and limiting postpartum weight retention.  **Population**: Pregnant women aged over 18, who had no health problem, did not intend to lose weight in pre-pregnancy period, got pregnant in natural ways for two times at most, and were pregnant for a period of 3 months or less. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**: Individualised lifestyle intervention focusing on healthy lifestyle, diet (portions and amounts required to be consumed from all food groups), exercise (mild-moderate safe exercise types, which increase the heart rate to maximum 140 beats/min while being easily able to talk, for 30 min every other day and maintain a more active lifestyle) and weight monitoring with the aim of remaining within IOM guidelines over four sessions at 12-15, 16-18, 20-24, and 37 weeks gestation. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 12.45±5.04 vs 12.29±4.8 * Postpartum weight retention (6 wks): 5.19±4.71 vs 5.95±4.79 * Caesarean section: 17/45 vs 15/45 |
| Altazan et al 2019507  United States  SmartMoms  Part of LIFE-Moms consortium  NCT01610752 | Intervention 37  Control 17 | **Aim**: To quantify changes in mental and physical quality of life and depressive symptoms across pregnancy and the postpartum period, to determine the association between gestational weight gain and change in mood and quality of life, and to assess the effect of a behavioural intervention targeting excess gestational weight gain on these outcomes.  **Population**: Pregnant women who were overweight or obese.  **Intervention**: Individuals randomised to the intervention were provided with behavioural weight management counselling by interventionists either in clinic (In-Person, n=18) or remotely through a smartphone application (Phone, n=19). Participants received a personalised IOM 2009 gestational weight gain graph, a wireless internet-connected bathroom scale, and a pedometer. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 8.7±0.9 vs 12.8±1.5 * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 18/32 vs 9/11   Outcomes relevant to mental health and quality of life were reported as degrees of change and were therefore not included in the meta-analysis. |
| Althuizen et al 2013485  New Life(style) study  Netherlands | Intervention 106  Control 113 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effects of a counselling intervention on excessive weight gain during pregnancy and postpartum weight retention.  **Population**: Healthy nulliparous women <14 weeks gestation. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**: Four face-to-face individual counselling sessions about weight gain (based on IOM guidelines), physical activity and diet during pregnancy, and one session by telephone after birth.  Women had counselling sessions at 18, 22, 30 and 36 weeks of pregnancy and at 8 weeks postpartum, all with a personal counsellor. The first session lasted approximately 30 minutes, to explain the aim of the study and the intervention. The content of the first module was summarised in an information brochure. Subsequent sessions lasted 15 minutes.  The information and feedback about physical activity was based on the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and American College of Sports Medicine recommendations, which promote 30 minutes of at least moderate intensity activity on five or all days of the week.  The dietary intervention focused on optimising energy-intake, adjusting energy-intake to physical activity and taking away misconceptions about nutritional requirements during pregnancy (eg "the need to eat for two"). Special attention was given to decreasing intake of high-fat foods, such as fast food items and sugar-containing soft drinks. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.6±4.1 (n=106) vs 11.1±3.2 (n=113) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 75/106 vs 82/113 * Preterm birth: 6/103 vs 7/107 * Caesarean section: 18/103 vs 22/107 * Macrosomia (>4,000g): 15/103 vs 20/107 |
| Asbee et al 2009488  United States  NCT00792480 | Intervention 57  Control 43 | **Aim:** To estimate whether an organised, consistent program of dietary and lifestyle counselling prevents excessive weight gain in pregnancy.  **Population:** Women who established antenatal care at 6 to 16 weeks gestation, were aged between 18 and 49 years, and had a singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**: At the initial visit women met with a registered dietitian to receive a standardised counselling session including information on pregnancy-specific diet and lifestyle choices. Diet counselling consisted of recommendations for a patient-focused caloric value divided in a 40% carbohydrate, 30% protein, and 30% fat. Women were instructed to engage in moderate-intensity exercise >3 times per week, preferably 5 times. Women also received information on the appropriate gestational weight gain using the IOM guidelines. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 13.02±5.67 (n=57) vs 16.65±7.03 (n=43) * Caesarean section: 8/57 vs 12/43 |
| Bogaerts et al 2013510  Belgium | Intervention 76  Control 63  3-arm study; control group halved | **Aim**: To evaluate whether a targeted antenatal lifestyle intervention programme for obese pregnant women influences gestational weight gain (GWG) and levels of anxiety or depressed mood.  **Population**: Obese pregnant women (BMI ≥29 kg/m2) <15 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Four prenatal group counselling sessions (at <15 wks, 18-22 wks, 24-28 wks, 30-34 wks) led by a midwife trained in motivational lifestyle intervention and focussing on nutritional advice (50–55% carbohydrate intake, 30–35% fat intake and 9–11% protein energy intake) and physical activity (“methods for increasing physical activity were discussed”) during pregnancy with information to limit excessive gestational weight gain. Women also received a purpose-designed brochure. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 10.6±7.4 (n=76) vs 13.5±7.3 (n=32) * Excess gestational weight gain: 47/76 vs 23/32 * Gestational diabetes: 7/76 vs 5/32 * Gestational hypertension: 8/76 vs 3/32 * Pre-eclampsia: 2/76 vs 2/32 * Caesarean section: 20/76 vs 7/32 |
| Bruno et al 2017499  Italy | Intervention 69  Control 62 | **Aim**: to determine whether the prescription of a detailed lifestyle programme in overweight/obese pregnant women influences the occurrence of gestational diabetes (GDM), and if this kind of prescription increases the adherence to a healthier lifestyle in comparison to usual care.  **Population**: Women at 9-12 weeks of pregnancy with a BMI ≥25kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Women received personalised counselling and the dietary intervention was a hypocaloric, low-glycaemic, low-saturated fat diet. Women were advised to participate in moderate intensity physical activity three times a week. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 10.1±7.4 vs 9.4±6.8 * Gestational diabetes: 13/69 vs 23/62 * Gestational hypertension: 2/69 vs 13/62 * Preterm birth: 0/69 vs 5/62 * Caesarean section: 17/69 vs 25/62 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 2/69 vs 7/62 * Large for gestational age: 1/69 vs 7/62 * Small for gestational age: 6/69 vs 5/62 |
| Buckingham-Schutt et al 2019483  United States  NCT02168647 | Intervention 23  Control 24 | **Aim**: To determine whether a multi-component behavioural intervention with a Registered Dietitian Nutritionist significantly improves the proportion of women who adhere to the 2009 Institute of Medicine weight-gain guidelines.  **Population**: Healthy women aged 18–45 y with a singleton pregnancy, and between weeks 8 and 14 of gestation.  **Intervention**: Women received counselling and a wearable fitness tracker including dietary software. The intervention was targeted towards increasing physical activity and modifying carbohydrate intake. Participants took part in a minimum of six 15- to 30-min one-on-one visits with n dietitian from no later than gestation wk 14 to childbirth. Participants were weighed at each face-to-face session and weight gain was plotted on an IOM weight-gain chart. | Intervention versus control:   * Mean gestational weight gain: 5.3±1.8 vs 5.9±1.5 * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 7/23 vs 15/24 * Gestational diabetes: 0/23 vs 1/24 * Gestational hypertension: 2/23 vs 0/24 * Pre-eclampsia: 0/23 vs 1/24 * Caesarean section: 3/23 vs 2/24 * Preterm birth: 0/23 vs 1/24 * Low birthweight: 0/23 vs 1/24 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 4/23 vs 6/24 |
| Chan et al 2018518  Hong Kong  NCT02368600 | Intervention 80  Control 86 | **Aim**: To examine whether a clinically proven lifestyle modification program (LMP) in early pregnancy was superior to routine antenatal care in improving GDM, maternal and infant outcomes.  **Population**: Chinese pregnant women at risk of GDM at or before 12 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: The intervention group participated in a dietitian-led lifestyle intervention from ≤12 weeks to 24 weeks of gestation. Participants received bi-weekly face-to-face or phone consultations in the first 2 months and monthly face-to-face consultations afterwards till the end of the intervention. At the first face-to-face session, the dietitian discussed the specific dietary and lifestyle advices to achieve a desirable weight status with the participant. Each participant was given an individualised menu plan and healthy lifestyle booklets aiming at achieving a varied balanced diet with an emphasis on fruit and vegetables consumption, and intake of moderate-carbohydrate, low-fat, low-glycaemic index (GI) and low-calorific products in appropriate portions.  Participants were encouraged to see the exercise instructor at least once during the LMP. During the exercise consultation (~30 minutes), the exercise instructor designed a suitable exercise regime for the participant based on international guidelines. Participants were generally advised to do a 30-minute of light to moderate intensity of low impact aerobic exercise at least three times a week. | Intervention versus control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.6±4.0 (n=76) vs 11.8±5.9 (n=81) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 14/76 vs 21/81 * Gestational diabetes: 20/80 vs 23/86 * Gestational hypertension: 2/77 vs 1/84 * Pre-eclampsia: 0/77 vs 1/84 * Caesarean section: 24/69 vs 16/78 * Small for gestational age: 12/77 vs 12/84 * Large for gestational age: 8/77 vs 6/84 * Macrosomia (>4,000 g): 1/78 vs 2/85 |
| Dodd et al 2014a;501 Dodd et al 2014b;521 Dodd et al 2015;543 Dodd et al 2016544  LIMIT  Australia | Intervention 1108  Control 1104 | **Aim**: To determine the effect of antenatal dietary and lifestyle interventions on health outcomes in overweight and obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Women with a singleton pregnancy, BMI ≥25 between 10+0 and 20+0 weeks.  **Intervention**: A comprehensive dietary and lifestyle intervention over the course of pregnancy including a combination of dietary (maintain balance of carbohydrates, fat and protein; reduce intake of foods high in refined carbohydrates and saturated fats; increase intake of fibre; aim for 2 servings of fruit, 5 servings of vegetables and 3 servings of dairy daily), exercise (increase walking and incidental activity), and behavioural strategies (goal setting, self-monitoring), delivered by a research dietitian and trained research assistants. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 9.39±5.74 (n=897) vs 9.44±5.77 (n=871) * Excess gestational weight gain: 380/897 vs 368/871 * Gestational diabetes: 148/1080 vs 120/1073 * Gestational hypertension: 101/1080 vs 94/1073 * Pre-eclampsia: 56/1080 vs 53/1073 * Large for gestational age: 203/1075 vs 224/1067 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 164/1075 vs 201/1067 * Macrosomia (>4500g): 23/1075 vs 39/1067 * Low birth weight (<2500 g): 43/1075 vs 56/1067 * Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes: 22/1075 vs 22/1067 * Antenatal depression (EPDS score ≥12 at 36 weeks): 65/695 vs 62/687 * Antenatal anxiety (STAI score ≥15 at 36 weeks): 110/694 vs 96/688 * Postnatal depression (EPDS score ≥12 at 4 months): 47/597 vs 41/624 * Postnatal anxiety (STAI score ≥15 at 4 months): 83/596 vs 70/624 |
| Dodd et al 2019484  OPTIMISE  Australia | Intervention 316  Control 313 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effect of dietary and exercise advice among pregnant women of normal body mass index (BMI), on pregnancy and birth outcomes.  **Population**: Pregnant women with a body mass index in the healthy weight range (BMI 18.5-24.9).  **Intervention**: The dietitian-led dietary and lifestyle intervention over the course of pregnancy was based on the Australian Guide to Healthy Eating, while specifically maintaining a balance of carbohydrates, fat and protein, and encouraging women to reduce their intake of energy dense and non-core foods high in refined carbohydrates and saturated fats. Women were advised to increase their intake of fibre, and to consume two servings of fruit, five servings of vegetables and three servings of dairy each day.  The initial planning session with a research dietitian provided women with written dietary and activity information, an individual diet and physical activity plan, recipe book and example menu plans. Women were encouraged to set achievable goals for dietary and exercise change, supported to make these lifestyle changes and to self-monitor their progress, using a SMART goals approach. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.32±3.96 vs 11.70±3.78 * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 28/316 vs 41/313 * Gestational diabetes: 39/316 vs 39/313 * Gestational hypertension: 5/316 vs 4/313 * Pre-eclampsia: 6/316 vs 9/313 * Caesarean section: 41/316 vs 45/313 * Preterm birth: 23/316 vs 20/313 * Macrosomia (>4,000g): 24/316 vs 26/313 * Low birthweight: 20/316 vs 15/313 * Large for gestational age: 22/316 vs 25/313 * Small for gestational age: 21/316 vs 25/313 |
| Gallagher et al 2018502  LIFT  United States | Intervention 103  Control 105 | **Aim**: To determine the effectiveness of controlling maternal gestational weight gain in the second and third trimesters on neonate body composition.  **Population**: Healthy women with a singleton pregnancy, BMI ≥25 at weeks 90 to 156.  **Intervention**: Immediately following randomisation, women attended an individual 60-minute ‘Introduction’ session with a nutritionist followed by individual visits every two weeks until birth. At the first session, several “tools” were provided including a calorie book, food scale, set of measuring cups and spoons, a portable, insulated food pouch, and a pedometer and self-monitoring was encouraged.  The website of the USDA’s Center for Nutrition and Policy Promotion was used to develop the individualised meal plans for each participant, in addition to using the nutrition guidelines from the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics. Between visits, women self-monitored diet and exercise/physical activity.  During the weeks when the participant did not have an individual face-to-face meeting with the nutritionist, there were one-to-two contacts per week by telephone or email.  Voluntary group sessions open to all intervention participants were offered once every eight weeks. A session on adapting physical activity to different seasons and related challenges during pregnancy was taught by a certified prenatal exercise specialist. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 7.89±4.07 (n=94) vs 9.67±4.17 (n=93) * Caesarean section: 29/97 vs 31/99 * Preterm birth: 5/97 vs 7/99 * Small for gestational age: 8/97 vs 13/99 * Large for gestational age: 10/97 vs 6/99 |
| Guelinckx et al 2010511  Belgium | Intervention 42  Control 43 | **Aim**: to study whether a lifestyle intervention based on a brochure or on active education can improve dietary habits, increase physical activity (PA), and reduce GWG in obese pregnant women.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI >29.  **Intervention**: The intervention group received a brochure with nutritional advice and lifestyle education from a nutritionist in three group sessions scheduled at 15, 20, and 32 weeks. The sessions provided women with recommendations on a balanced, healthy diet, based on the official National Dietary Recommendations (9–11% of the energy should come from proteins, 30–35% from fat, and 50–55% from carbohydrates). The dietary intervention aimed at limiting the intake of energy-dense foods by substituting them with healthier alternatives, increasing low-fat dairy products, increasing whole-wheat grains, and reducing saturated fatty acids. Moreover, more general topics such as energy balance, body composition, Nutrition Facts Labels, and how to increase physical activity were discussed. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 9.8±7.6 vs 10.6±6.9 * Gestational hypertension: 18/42 vs 14/43 * Pre-eclampsia: 2/42 vs 1/43 * Caesarean section: 11/42 vs 7/43 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 5/42 vs 3/43 |
| Harrison et al 2013;520 Harrison et al 2014545  Australia | Intervention 121  Control 107 | **Aim**: to reduce postpartum weight retention following a low-intensity, self-management intervention integrated with routine antenatal care during pregnancy.  **Population**: Women 12-15 weeks gestation, overweight (BMI 25 or 23 kg/m2 if high-risk ethnicity [Polynesian, Asian, and African populations]) or obese (BMI ≥30 kg/m2), and at increased risk for developing gestational diabetes identified by a validated risk prediction tool  **Intervention**: Four, 45-minute individual behaviour change lifestyle sessions delivered by a health coach at 14–16, 20, 24 and 28 weeks. Content focused on pregnancy-specific healthy eating and physical activity messages as well as encouraging healthy gestational weight gain according to the IOM guidelines supported by behaviour change strategies designed to optimise lifestyle and reduce post-partum weight retention. Self-monitoring strategies included pedometers and the use of weight gain charts based on IOM recommendations for weight gain throughout pregnancy. | Intervention vs control   * Gestational weight gain (26-28 wks): 6.0±2.8 kg (n=106) vs 6.9±3.3 kg (n=97) * Postpartum weight retention (6 weeks): 0.51 ± 4.48 kg (n=104) vs 1.96 ± 5.74 kg (n=98) |
| Hawkins et al 2015503  United States | Intervention 32  Control 34 | **Aim**: To pilot the feasibility of a prenatal lifestyle intervention to modify physical activity and diet among pregnant overweight and obese Hispanic women, with the aim of reducing risk factors for gestational diabetes mellitus.  **Population**: Pregnant Hispanic women with BMI ≥25 at <15 weeks  **Intervention**: The intervention consisted of six monthly in-person behavioural counselling sessions and five telephone-delivered booster sessions delivered by bicultural and bilingual health educators.  The overall goal of the exercise component was to encourage pregnant women to achieve the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists’ guidelines for physical activity during pregnancy (≥ 30 min of moderate-intensity activity on most days of the week) through increasing walking and developing a more active lifestyle. The health educators assisted the women in developing personalized physical activity goals and they were given a digital pedometer and a physical activity log to track their progress.  The overall goal of the dietary component was to decrease intake of foods high in saturated fat and increase dietary fibre as recommended by the American Dietetic Association. | Intervention vs control   * Gestational weight gain: 17.73±4.06 vs 17.87±2.39 |
| Hui et al 2012490  Canada  NCT00486629 | Intervention 102  Control 88 | **Aim**: To examine the effect of an exercise and dietary intervention during pregnancy on excessive gestational weight gain (EGWG), dietary habit and physical activity in pregnant women.  **Population**: Nondiabetic urban-living pregnant women (<26 weeks of gestation).  **Intervention**: Participants in the intervention group were provided with community-based group exercise sessions, instructed home exercise and dietary counselling between 20 and 36 weeks of gestation.  Dietary interviews and counselling were provided twice to each woman by registered dietitians, at enrolment and 2 months after enrolment. The dietary interview was assisted with a Food Choice Map, a computerised dietary interview tool.  Floor aerobic, stretching and strength exercises were led by licensed fitness trainers in group sessions. An exercise instruction video was provided to women to assist their home exercise. Women recorded daily physical activities in logbook. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 14.1±6 vs 15.2±5.9 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 36/102 vs 48/88 * Gestational diabetes: 2/102 vs 3/88 * Caesarean section: 2/102 vs 3/88 * Large for gestational age: 12/102 vs 15/88 |
| Hui et al 2014491  Canada | Intervention 57  Control 56 | **Aim**: To assess the efficacy of lifestyle intervention on gestational weight gain in pregnant women with normal and above normal body mass index (BMI).  **Population**: Pregnant women at <20 weeks gestation without diabetes. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group received weekly trainer-led group exercise sessions, instructed home exercise for 3-5-times/week during 20-36 weeks of gestation, and dietary counselling twice during pregnancy.  Dietary interviews and counselling were provided twice to each woman by registered dietitians, at enrolment and 2 months after enrolment. The dietary interview was assisted with a Food Choice Map, a computerised dietary interview tool.  Floor aerobic, stretching and strength exercises were led by licensed fitness trainers in group sessions. An exercise instruction video was provided to women to assist their home exercise. Women recorded daily physical activities in logbook. | Intervention vs control   * Gestational weight gain * BMI≤24.9: 12.9±3.72 (n=30) vs 16.23±4.38 (n=27) * BMI≥25: 15.21±7.5 (n=27) vs 14.39±7.05 (n=29) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 21/57 vs 30/56 * Gestational diabetes: 1/57 vs 3/56 * Caesarean section: 0/57 vs 2/56 * Large for gestational age: 6/57 vs 4/56 |
| Jing et al 2015492  China | Intervention 115  Control 106 | **Aim**: To examine whether personalized interventions could improve dietary intake and physical activity among pregnant women.  **Population**: Women with a singleton pregnancy (aged ≥18 years, without pre-existing diabetes) were enrolled at approximately 12 weeks. Mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**: Participants received an education manual on diet and physical activity (written by the research team) after randomisation, and one-to-one counselling for at least 20 minutes in a private room with a trained graduate student after group assignment and at 16–20 and 20–24 weeks. The graduate student was also available to answer questions and provide feedback on diet and physical activity until 20–24 weeks either over the phone or via a group established on Tecent instant messenger. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 9.24±3.99 vs 9.69±3.85 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 102/115 vs 96/106 * Gestational diabetes: 26/115 vs 37/106 |
| Kennelly et al 2018506  Ireland  Pears  ISRCTN29316280 | Intervention 278  Control 287 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of a healthy lifestyle package (an antenatal behaviour change intervention supported by smartphone application technology) on the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) in overweight and obese women.  **Population**: Women with body mass indexes (BMIs) 25-39.9.  **Intervention**: The intervention consisted of face-to-face specific dietary and exercise advice that addressed behaviour change supported by a tailor-designed smartphone application.  The nutritional component of the intervention focused on healthy eating in pregnancy. Participants were encouraged to swap high glycaemic index foods for low glycaemic index alternatives and were informed about healthy carbohydrate portions. The recommended diet was approximately eucaloric to their typical diet. The exercise component of the intervention focused on promoting the benefits and safety of physical activity in pregnancy. Women were advised to undertake 30 minutes of moderate exercise 5–7 days per week, divided into two 15-minute or three 10-minute periods to maximise metabolic benefit. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.3±5.6 (n=278) vs 12.6±5.6 (n=287) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 87/171 vs 120/188 * Gestational diabetes: 37/241 vs 36/257 * Caesarean section: 50/270 vs 48/270 * Low birth weight: 8/270 vs 4/275 * Macrosomia (>4,000g): 58/270 vs 67/275 * Small for gestational age: 28/270 vs 26/275 * Large for gestational age: 11/270 vs 24/275 |
| Kiani-Asiabar et al 2018498  Iran | Group A 41  Group B 42  Control 40 | **Aim**: To evaluate the effectiveness of an educational program with the spouse's participation on the optimal gestational weight gain (GWG) in pregnancy.  **Population**: nulliparous women.  **Intervention**: Participants randomly allocated into two groups of interventions and one control group. In group A, the women received education with their spouse's participation. In group B, the women received education without the participation of the spouses.  The dietary intervention aimed at decreasing the intake of energy-dense foods and nutrient-poor foods that are high in sugar and fat (e.g. fast foods, sweets and sugar-sweetened beverages) and increasing the fruit, vegetable and milk or yogurt intakes. Another goal was improving the quality of fat consumed. Women were advised to walk for 30 minutes a day a minimum of 5 days a week. | Intervention Group A vs Group B vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 13.50±3.85 (n=41) vs 13.55±3.20 (n=42) vs 15.53±4.20 (n=40) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 12/41 (28.6) 13/42 (31.0) 22/40 (55.0) |
| Koivusalo et al 2016519  Rönö et al 2018  RADIEL  Finland | Normoglycaemic women:  Intervention 144  Control 125  All women:  Intervention 235  Control 229 | **Aim**: To assess whether gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) can be prevented by a moderate lifestyle intervention in pregnant women who are at high risk for the disease.  **Population**: Women with a history of gestational diabetes and/or BMI ≥30 at <20 weeks gestation  **Intervention**: Each woman in the intervention group received individualised counselling on diet, physical activity, and weight control from trained study nurses, and had one group meeting with dietitian.  The dietary counselling focused on optimising participants’ consumption of vegetables, fruits and berries, whole-grain products rich in fibre, low-fat dairy products, vegetable fats high in unsaturated fatty acids, fish, and low-fat meat products, and a lower intake of sugar-rich foods.  The exercise component aimed for women to achieve a minimum of 150 min of moderate-intensity physical activity per week and to adopt an overall active lifestyle. Participants had access, free of charge, to public swimming pools and/or guided exercise groups once a week provided by the municipalities. | Intervention vs control (normoglycaemic women)   * Gestational diabetes: 20/144 vs 27/125 * Gestational hypertension: 19/144 vs 12/125 * Pre-eclampsia: 7/144 vs 3/125 * Caesarean section: 31/144 vs 30/125 * Macrosomia (>4500 g): 6/144 vs 5/125   Intervention vs control (all women)   * Gestational diabetes: 107/235 vs 111/229 * Gestational hypertension: 18/235 vs 13/229 * Pre-eclampsia: 14/235 vs 7/229 * Caesarean section: 55/235 vs 59/229 * Preterm birth (<37 weeks): 12/235 vs 7/229 * Large for gestational age: 8/235 vs 13/229 |
| Korpi-Hyovalti et al 2011;516 Korpi-Hyovalti et al 2012546  Finland  NCT01130012 | Intervention 27  Control 27 | **Aim**: To evaluate if a lifestyle intervention from early pregnancy is feasible in improving the glucose tolerance of women at a high-risk for GDM in Finland.  **Population**: Pregnant women with one or more risk factors for gestational diabetes.  **Intervention**: Dietary advice tailored to each woman individually was provided on six occasions. Recommendation for energy intake was 30 kcal/kg/day for normal weight women and 25 kcal/kg/day for overweight women. Moderate-intensity physical exercise was encouraged; the women had 6 sessions of exercise counselling with the physiotherapist. During the sessions the physiotherapist gave written instructions for exercise and self-care. The goal of the exercise intervention was 30 minutes of daily physical activity if the woman previously exercised < 2.5 hours per week, and 45 minutes if the woman already engaged in 2.5 hours per week. Recommended types of exercise included brisk walking, Nordic walking, swimming, cycling, and cross-country skiing. If the BMI of the woman was >30 kg/m2 and the woman had not been active, exercise was started at 15 minutes/day 3 times a week. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.4±6.0 kg vs 13.9±5.1 kg * Gestational diabetes: 3/27 vs 1/27 |
| Kunath et al 2019497  Germany  GeliS  NCT01958307 | Intervention 1,018  Control 999  Cluster randomised trial | **Aim**: To examine the effect of a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy on the proportion of women with excessive GWG and pregnancy and obstetric complications, as well as the long-term risk of maternal and infant obesity.  **Population**: Women with a pre-pregnancy BMI between 18.5 and 40.0 kg/m(2) recruited from gynaecological and midwifery practices prior to the end of the 12(th) week of gestation.  **Intervention**: Four lifestyle counselling sessions covering a balanced healthy diet, regular physical activity and self-monitoring of weight gain were performed by trained healthcare providers alongside routine pre- and postnatal practice visits. | Intervention vs control (adjusted using intracluster correlation co-efficient from Luoto et al 2010):547   * Gestational weight gain: 14.1±5.3 (n=40) vs 14.1±5.2 (n=40) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 18/40 vs 18/40 * Gestational diabetes: 4/41 vs 4/39 * Hypertension: 4/40 vs 3/40 * Pre-eclampsia: 3/40 vs 2/40 * Preterm birth: 3/40 vs 2/40 * Caesarean section: 6/40 vs 6/40 * Large for gestational age: 3/40 vs 3/40 * Small for gestational age: 4/40 vs 3/40 * Weight retention (6-8 weeks postpartum): 4.0±4.8 (n=41) vs 4.3±4.8 (n=39) |
| Luoto et al 2011;522 Kinnunen et al 2012;548 Kolu et al 2013;549 Kolu et al 2016550  NELLI  Finland | Intervention 219  Control 180  Cluster-randomised trial | **Aim**: To examine whether a lifestyle intervention designed to prevent GDM was effective in reducing excessive gestational weight gain (GWG).  **Population**: Pregnant women with at least one risk factor for GDM (for example, overweight) but no pre-existing diabetes were recruited at 8-12 weeks' gestation.  **Intervention**: One counselling session on physical activity at 8-12 weeks' gestation and one for diet at 16-18 weeks' gestation, and three to four booster sessions during other routine visits.  Based on Finnish dietary recommendations, the goal of dietary counselling was to help participants achieve a healthy diet containing ≤10% saturated fat, 5%–10% polyunsaturated fat, 25%–30% total fat, and ,10% saccharose of total energy intake, and 25–35 g/d fibre  The minimum weekly leisure time physical activity dose, including also light-intensity physical activity, was 800 MET (multiples of resting metabolic equivalents) minutes. Participants were offered an opportunity to participate in monthly thematic meetings on physical activity including group exercise.  The participants used follow-up notebooks to set their individual plans for physical activity and dietary changes and to keep a record of their adherence to their plans. | Intervention vs control (data adjusted as per 526:   * Gestational weight gain: 13.8±5.8 (n=51) vs 14.2±5.1 (n=42) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 24/51 vs 22/42 * Gestational diabetes: 8/51 vs 5/42 * Pre-eclampsia: 3/51 vs 2/42 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 9/51 vs 8/42 * Macrosomia (>4500 g): 7/51 vs 8/42 * Small for gestational age: 2/51 vs 1/42 * Large for gestational age: 6/51 vs 8/42 |
| Pawalia et al 2017493  India | Intervention 12  Control 12 | **Aim**: To investigate the effect of physical activity and diet during prenatal period and its effect on gestational weight gain (GWG), BMI, waist circumference (WC), hip circumference (HC) and post-partum weight retention (PPWR).  **Population:** Pregnant women with singleton pregnancy of >16 weeks of gestation, BMI>18.5 Kg/m2 and having a mobile phone.  **Intervention**: Women attended weekly antenatal exercise sessions (60-90 minutes of moderate intensity stretching and strengthening exercises) at the hospital during pregnancy and were advised to do the same exercise at home on at least three other days. Women were also encouraged to walk 30 minutes/day for a least 4 days a week throughout pregnancy.  Women received regular diet counselling followed by mobile text-messages (reminder, motivational, guidelines and benefits) to maintain adequate diet. Messages encouraged women to include foods such as more fruits and vegetables, dry fruits, to give preference to seasonal foods and to avoid unhealthy foods such as junk, oily, greasy and processed snacks from the market. Importance of home cooked food was explained. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 12.91±3.65 (n=12) vs 13.33±5.33 (n=12) |
| Petrella et al 2013504  Italy | Intervention 33  Control 28 | **Aim**: To determine whether changes in lifestyle in women with BMI≥25 could decrease gestational weight gain and unfavourable pregnancy outcomes.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI ≥25 kg/m2.  **Methods**: The Therapeutic Lifestyle Changes (TLC) Program included diet (overweight: 1700 kcal/day, obese: 1800 kcal/day) and moderate physical activity (30 min/day, three times/week). The diet was introduced at randomisation in the presence of both a gynaecologist and a dietitian and further detailed through a one-hour counselling session about the appropriate gestational weight gain at term. Women wore pedometers during walking sessions. | Intervention vs control   * Gestational weight gain: 8.8±6.5vs 10.4±5.0 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 11/33 vs 17/28 * Gestational diabetes: 7/33 vs 16/28 * Gestational hypertension: 1/33 vs 7/28 * Preterm birth: 0/33 vs 10/28 * Caesarean section: 11/33 vs 9/28 |
| Phelan et al 2011;494 Phelan et al 2014551  United States  NCT01117961 | *Normal weight*  Intervention 92  Control 94  *Overweight and obese*  Intervention 87  Control 90 | **Aim**: To examine whether a behavioural intervention during pregnancy could decrease the proportion of women who exceeded the 1990 Institute of Medicine (IOM) recommendations for gestational weight gain and increase the proportion of women who returned to pregravid weights by 6 months postpartum.  **Population**: Women between 10 and 16 wk of gestation, BMI between 19.8 and 40, non-smoking, older than 18 years of age with singleton pregnancy.  **Intervention**: The intervention included one face-to-face visit; weekly mailed materials that promoted an appropriate weight gain, healthy eating (20 kcal/kg, with an emphasis on decreasing high fat foods) and exercise (30 min of walking most days of the week); individual graphs of weight gain; and telephone-based feedback.  Body-weight scales, food records, and pedometers were provided to promote adherence to daily self-monitoring. | Normal weight intervention (n=92) vs control (n=94):   * Gestational weight gain: 15.3±4.4 vs 16.2±4.6 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 37/92 vs 49/94   Overweight and obese intervention (n=87) vs control (n=90):   * Gestational weight gain: 14.7±6.9 vs 15.1±7.5 * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 58/87 vs 55/90   All women intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 19/171 vs 13/178 * Gestational hypertension: 20/171 vs 22/178 * Pre-eclampsia: 20/171 vs 20/178 * Caesarean section: 57/171 vs 67/178 * Preterm birth (<36 wk): 16/171 vs 20/178 * Low birth weight: 9/171 vs 9/178 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 20/171 vs 17/178 * Postnatal weight retention: 1.4±6.8 (n=128) vs 3.0±5.7 (n=133) |
| Phelan et al 2018508  United States  Healthy Beginnings  Part of LIFE-Moms consortium  NCT01545934 | Intervention 129  Control 127 | **Aim:** To test whether a behavioural lifestyle intervention with partial meal replacement reduces GWG rate in Hispanic and non-Hispanic women with overweight or obesity relative to enhanced usual care.  **Population**: Participants were pregnant (13.6±1.8 wk of gestation) with overweight or obesity and had a mean age of 30.3 y; 41.6% of participants were Hispanic.  **Intervention**: Each woman received a ∼20-min individual, face-to-face counselling session with a study interventionist every 2 wk until 20 wk of gestation and then monthly visits until birth.  Women were provided with an individually tailored structured meal plan. The partial meal replacement plan provided a caloric prescription of ∼18 kcal/kg body weight at study entry and consisted of 30% of calories from fat, 15–20% from protein, and 50–55% from carbohydrates. Women were instructed to replace 2 meals with the provided meal replacement shakes or bars and to consume ≥1 meal of regular foods and 2–4 healthy snacks/d.  Participants were encouraged to aim for a goal of 30 min of activity on most days of the week. They were provided with a pedometer and advised to gradually increase the number of steps walked each day until reaching an ultimate goal of 10,000 steps/d. In addition, at each visit, women were provided with a personalised graph of their weight gain with feedback. Other behavioural strategies included daily recording of food, drink, and caloric intake and physical activity; stimulus control techniques; problem-solving skills; goal-setting; self-reinforcement for goal attainment; and daily self-monitoring of weight by using a scale provided by the study. | Intervention vs control:  Gestational weight gain: 9.4±6.9 vs 11.2±7.0 kg; P=0.03)  Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 53/129 (41.1%) vs 69/127 (53.9%); P=0.03. |
| Polley et al 2002495  United States | Intervention 57  Control 53 | **Aim**: To determine whether a stepped care, behavioural intervention will decrease the percentage of women who gain more than the IOM recommendation.  **Population**: Women who had a BMI>19.8, age>18 and <20 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: The intervention group received written and oral information about weight gain, healthy eating, and exercise and individual graphs of their weight gain.  The primary focus of the dietary intervention was on decreasing high-fat foods, such as fast food items, and substituting healthier alternatives (fruit and vegetables)  The exercise intervention focused on increasing walking and developing a more active lifestyle (eg walking rather than driving short distances).  Those exceeding weight gain goals were given more intensive intervention. | Intervention vs control (normal weight):   * Gestational weight gain: 15.4±7.1 (n=30) vs 16.4±4.8 (n=31) * Postnatal weight retention (8 wks): 4.4±5.4 (n=18) vs 6.2±4.5 (n=21)   Intervention vs control (overweight and obese):   * Gestational weight gain: 13.6±7.2 (n=27) vs 10.1±6.2 (n=22) * Postnatal weight retention (8 wks): 3.6±5.6 (n=16) vs 0.3±7.0 (n=19)   Intervention vs control (all participants)   * Excess gestational weight gain: 26/57 vs 25/53 * Gestational diabetes: 2/57 vs 3/53 * Gestational hypertension: 6/57 vs 8/53 * Pre-eclampsia: 2/57 vs 3/53 * Caesarean section: 4/57 vs 10/53 * Preterm birth: 7/57 vs 5/53 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 1/57 vs 0/53 |
| Poston et al 2013512  UPBEAT pilot United Kingdom | Intervention 86  Control 84 | **Aim:** To determine if a) a complex intervention in obese pregnant women leads to anticipated changes in diet and physical activity behaviours, and b) to refine the intervention protocol through process evaluation of intervention fidelity.  **Population**: Pregnant women with BMI ≥30 kg/m2, singleton pregnancy and gestational age of 15 to 176 weeks.  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group attended a one-to-one appointment with a ‘Health Trainer’ and were invited to attend weekly group sessions for 8 consecutive weeks from 19 weeks gestation. The intervention was informed by psychological models of health behaviour. At the initial appointment, women received a handbook, a pedometer, a log-book (for weekly goals and related behaviours) and a DVD of a specifically devised pregnancy exercise regimen. Each group session delivered a different element of the dietary and physical activity intervention.  The focus of the dietary advice to the intervention group was therefore on increased consumption of foods with a low dietary GI, including replacement of sugar sweetened beverages with low GI alternatives. Reduction in saturated fats and replacement with monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fat was also recommended.  Women in the intervention arm were encouraged to increase daily PA incrementally, setting goals of incremental step counts (monitored by pedometer) and maintaining the achieved PA level after the intervention period. Recommendations included an emphasis on walking at a moderate intensity level | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational diabetes: 22/79 vs 24/75 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 13/86 vs 16/84 * Large for gestational age: 7/86 vs 7/84 |
| Poston et al 2015;513 Patel et al 2017552  Molyneaux et al 2018553  UPBEAT  United Kingdom | Intervention 783  Control 772 | **Aim**: to investigate whether a complex intervention addressing diet and physical activity could reduce the incidence of gestational diabetes and large-for-gestational-age infants.  **Population**: Women > 16 years with a BMI ≥ 30 kg/m2, a singleton pregnancy, between 15 and 186 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group attended a one-to-one appointment with a ‘Health Trainer’ and were invited to attend weekly group sessions for 8 consecutive weeks from 19 weeks gestation. The intervention was informed by psychological models of health behaviour. At the initial appointment, women received a handbook, a pedometer, a log-book (for weekly goals and related behaviours) and a DVD of a specifically devised pregnancy exercise regimen. Each group session delivered a different element of the dietary and physical activity intervention.  The focus of the dietary advice to the intervention group was therefore on increased consumption of foods with a low dietary GI, including replacement of sugar sweetened beverages with low GI alternatives. Reduction in saturated fats and replacement with monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fat was also recommended.  Women in the intervention arm were encouraged to increase daily PA incrementally, setting goals of incremental step counts (monitored by pedometer) and maintaining the achieved PA level after the intervention period. Recommendations included an emphasis on walking at a moderate intensity level. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 7.19±4.6 (n=526) vs 7.76±4.6 (n=567) * Excess gestational weight gain: 174/526 vs 212/566 * Gestational diabetes: 160/629 vs 172/651 * Pre-eclampsia: 27/753 vs 27/752 * Caesarean section: 271/765 vs 274/757 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 105/761 vs 105/751 * Small for gestational age: 95/761 vs 76/751 * Large for gestational age: 71/761 vs 61/751 * Childhood weight: 7.93±1.07 (n=332) vs 8.03±1.08 (n=345) * Postnatal weight retention: -0.37±7.41 (n=344) vs 0.36±6.71 (n=355) * Antenatal depression: 85/769 vs 88/757 |
| Rauh et al 2013;496 Rauh et al 2015554  Germany  FeLIPO | Intervention  Cluster randomised trial | **Aim**: To evaluate the feasibility and effectiveness of a lifestyle intervention presented to all pregnant women.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women of mixed BMIs.  **Intervention**: Two individual counselling modules given by trained researchers at the 20th and 30th week of gestation, respectively. The sessions were structured and comprised the three main topics: nutrition, physical activity, and GWG monitoring. The first session lasted up to 60 minutes (min) and included the main components of the intervention. The second session (about 30 min) repeated topics from the first but was more detailed for selected aspects in a problem-oriented manner. In addition, each session included an individual component where women received personalised feedback on their nutrition and physical activity habits based on 7-day dietary records and physical activity questionnaires.  The dietary intervention aimed at decreasing the intake of energy-dense foods and high-fat foods (e.g. fast food, sweets, and sugar-sweetened beverages), increasing fruit, vegetable and wholegrain product consumption, and improving the quality of fat consumed by increasing the amount of fish in the diet and choosing the correct fat/oil for cooking and or use as spreads.  The advice on physical activity was in accordance with the current guidelines for physical activity during pregnancy from the Society of Obstetricians and Gynecologists of Canada (SOGC) and the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG): 30 minutes of moderate intensity activity on most days of the week at an appropriate heart-rate zone. Women were provided with a list of adequate local prenatal exercise programs and advised to participate in programs like these. | Intervention vs control (data adjusted as per Shepherd et al):526   * Gestational weight gain: 14.1±4.1 (n=33) vs 15.6±5.8 (n=16) * Excess gestational weight gain: 13/33 vs 10/16 * Gestational diabetes: 2/32 vs 2/16 * Caesarean section: 10/34 vs 7/17 * Preterm birth: 1/34 vs 1/17 * Small for gestational age: 1/34 vs 1/17 * Large for gestational age: 2/34 vs 2/17 * Postnatal weight retention: 0.2±3.6 (n=32) vs 0.8±5.7 (n=14) * Childhood weight: 9.38±0.93 (n=33) vs 9.74±1.0 (n=15) |
| Renault et al 2014451  Denmark | Intervention 130  Control 67  3-armed trial; control group halved | **Aim**: to assess physical activity intervention assessed by a pedometer with or without dietary intervention on gestational weight gain (GWG).  **Population**: Pregnant women older than 18 years, a singleton pregnancy, and a normal scan in weeks 11-14, gestational age <16 weeks with BMI≥30 kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Immediately after randomisation women were individually advised and encouraged by the dietitian to increase physical activity, aiming at a daily step count of 11,000, which corresponds to 150% of the average step count in healthy lean pregnant women. Physical activity was monitored by a validated pedometer.  The dietary intervention consisted of contact with an experienced dietitian every 2 weeks, alternating between outpatient visits and phone contacts (11-13, depending on length of gestation).  Individual recommendations were provided for a hypocaloric low-fat diet with 1200-1675 kcal (5000-7000 KJ), corresponding to a Mediterranean-style diet which covers preference of polyunsaturated fat by intake of fish and oils. The diet was based on the Danish national recommendations for a healthy diet. | Intervention vs control:   * Excess gestational weight gain: 59/130 vs 42/67 * Gestational hypertension: 5/139 vs 5/67 * Pre-eclampsia: 21/130 vs 2/67 * Caesarean section: 32/130 vs 25/67 * Preterm birth: 4/130 vs 3/67 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 29/130 vs 17/67 * Small for gestational age: 7/130 vs 1/67 * Large for gestational age: 9/130 vs 6/67 |
| Ronnberg et al 2015;486 Ronnberg et al 2016;555 Ronnberg et al 2017556  Sweden | Intervention 192  Control 182 | **Aim**: To evaluate if a feasible, low-cost intervention could decrease the percentage of women gaining weight above the Institute of Medicine (IOM) recommendations on gestational weight gain (GWG) compared with usual maternity care.  **Population**: Healthy women with a BMI ≥19 kg/m2, age ≥18 years who signed in for maternity care at ≤16 weeks of gestation.  **Intervention**: The intervention programme consisted of individual education/ information about IOM guidelines for recommended GWG according to BMI category at first antenatal visit. The information was supplemented by a personalised graph where recommended interval of weight gain was marked. Women in intervention and control groups received recommendations on dietary intake during pregnancy according to guidelines from the Swedish National Food Administration.  The midwife issued a written formalised prescription of physical activity. General recommendation of physical activity during pregnancy was moderate intensity for approximately 30 minutes per day. The midwife was instructed to follow up and renew the prescription of exercise at every antenatal visit during the pregnancy. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 14.19±4.45 (n=192) vs 15.31±5.38 (n=182) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 79/192 vs 91/182 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 47/192 vs 28/182 * Macrosomia (>4500 g): 8/192 vs 8/182 * Large for gestational age: 15/192 vs 11/182 * Small for gestational age: 3/192 vs 3/182 * Postpartum weight retention (<16 weeks postpartum): 1.81±4.52 (n=137) vs 3.19±4.77 (n=130) * Postpartum weight retention (1 year postpartum): 0.30±5.52 (n=87) vs 1.00±5.46 (n=81) |
| Ruchat et al 2012482  Canada | Low intensity 23  Moderate intensity 26  Control 45 | **Aim:** To evaluate the effect of an exercise program of two different intensities, with nutritional control, on gestational weight gain (GWG), infant birth weight, and maternal weight retention at 2 months postpartum.  **Population**: Pregnant women with prepregnancy BMI 18.5–24.9 between 16 and 20 wk gestation.  **Intervention**: Low-intensity (30% HR reserve) or moderate-intensity (70% HR reserve) exercise program that consisted of walking sessions three to four times per week, gradually increasing exercise time from 25 to 40 min per session.  Specific nutritional goals as indicated by the modified gestational diabetes meal plan were total daily energy intake of approximately 2000 kcal/d)); daily carbohydrate intake 40%–55% of total energy intake, emphasising complex carbohydrates and low-glycaemic index foods; total daily fat intake 30% of total energy intake (substituting monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids for saturated and trans–fatty acids), with the remaining 20%–30% of energy intake dedicated to protein; and to meet daily micronutrient and fluid recommendations during pregnancy. | Low intensity vs moderate intensity vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 15.3±2.9 vs 14.9±3.8 vs 18.3±5.3 kg * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 8/23 vs 8/26 vs 24/45 * Weight retention at 2 months postpartum: 5.4±3.9 vs 4.6±3.3 vs 7.2±3.8 |
| Sagedal et al 2017a;487 Sagedal et al 2017b;557  Fit for Delivery  Norway | Intervention 296  Control 295 | **Aim**: To examine whether a lifestyle intervention in pregnancy limits gestational weight gain (GWG) and provides measurable health benefits for mother and newborn.  **Population**: Pregnant women who were nulliparous, with a singleton pregnancy at ≤20 weeks of gestation, had a pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI) of ≥19 kg/m2.  **Intervention**: Dietary counselling was performed by telephone, with an initial consultation and then a follow-up 4–6 weeks later, each of approximately 20 minutes. Counsellors were either experienced clinical dieticians or graduate students in public health.  Nutritional advice was based on recommendations from the Norwegian Directorate for Health with specific attention given to intake of fruits and vegetables, drinking water instead of drinks containing energy, regular meal patterns, and limiting consumption of snack foods and foods/drinks containing added sugar.  The physical activity component consisted of access to twice-weekly exercise classes at a local gym, all following the same pattern: 10 minutes of warm-up, 40 minutes of strength training and cardiovascular exercise at moderate intensity (using aerobics, calisthenics, and weight training), and 10 minutes of stretching. The intensity of the exercise was self-monitored using Borg’s scale with a target of 12-14. Classes were led by physical therapists or students in sports science. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 14.4±6.2 (n=267) vs 15.8±5.7 (n=266) * Excess gestational weight gain: 111/267 vs 133/266 * Gestational diabetes: 32/275 vs 25/272 * Pre-eclampsia: 10/293 vs 28/154 * Caesarean section: 38/296 vs 36/295 * Preterm birth: 17/296 vs 17/295 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 33/279 vs 39/278 * Macrosomia (>4500 g): 2/279 vs 5/278 * Small for gestational age: 31/296 vs 27/295 * Large for gestational age: 7/296 vs 11/295 * Postnatal weight retention: 0.66±5.48 (n=203) vs 1.42±4.96 (n=188) * Apgar score >7 at 5 minutes: 1/296 vs 6/295 |
| Simmons et al 2017402  DALI  United Kingdom, Ireland, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Italy, Spain, Denmark and Belgium | Intervention 108  Control 105  4-armed; control group divided by three | **Aim:** To compare the effectiveness of 3 lifestyle interventions [healthy eating (HE), physical activity (PA), and both HE and PA (HE+PA)] with usual care (UC) in reducing GDM risk.  **Population**: Pregnant women at with a body mass index (BMI) of ≥29 kg/m, ≤19±6 and aged ≥18 years and without GDM using the International Association of Diabetes and Pregnancy Study Group criteria.  **Intervention**: The dietary component promoted lower simple and complex carbohydrate, lower fat, higher fibre, higher protein diet, including a focus on portion size and, therefore, a more limited intake of total calories.  The PA component promoted both aerobic and resistance physical activity. Women received five face-to-face coaching sessions of approximately 30–45 minutes, #4 telephone calls of #20 minutes or contacts using electronic mail.  The intervention recommended a limitation in GWG to 5 kg. The messages were supported by a “toolkit” for each participant, including the participant handbook, educational materials based on the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists guidelines, pedometers and flexible elastic Dyna-Bands. The message delivery was built on the principles of patient empowerment and cognitive behavioural techniques inspired by motivational interviewing. The number of contacts and time taken included 5 face-to-face sessions of approximately 30 to 45 minutes duration, and #4 telephone calls of #20 minutes or contacts using electronic mail. Face-to-face sessions occurred largely in the hospital or midwife practice, depending on the local arrangements. At least 4 face-to-face coaching sessions were expected to occur before the second measurement session (24 to 28 weeks), and the intervention was completed by 35 weeks of gestation. | Intervention vs control   * Gestational weight gain: 6.5±3.8 (n=75) vs 8.8±4.7 (n=26) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 45/75 vs 20/26 * Gestational diabetes: 27/84 vs 11/31 * Small for gestational age: 7/86 vs 2/30 * Large for gestational age: 8/86 vs 5/30 |
| Trak-Fellermeie et al 2019509  Puerto Rico  PEARLS  NCT01771133 | Intervention 15  Control 16 | **Aim**: To evaluate the impact of a lifestyle intervention on achieving appropriate GWG and on improving birthweight among high-risk pregnant women.  **Population**: **O**verweight/obese women with a singleton pregnancy before 16 gestational weeks.  **Intervention**: The lifestyle intervention was delivered by registered dietitians and promoted individual goal-setting and self-efficacy through group and individual sessions. The intervention encouraged participants to meet gestational weight gain recommendations through monitoring diet, physical activity, and weight trajectory.  The primary focus of the dietary intervention was on total calories. Women were given individualised guidelines for food quantity and total calories for distinct pregnancy phases. Additional key components of the diet intervention included improving carbohydrate and fat quality, reducing salt and replacing red meat with low-mercury fish, nuts, and beans.  The primary focus of the physical activity component was to increase movement and reduce sedentary time. Participants were encouraged to set goals for a daily exercise routine considered safe during pregnancy, according to the American Congress of Obstetrics and Gynecology. | Intervention vs control:   * Weight gain exceeding IOM recommendations: 4/15 vs 9/16 * Small-for-gestational age: 1/15 vs 4/16 * Large-for-gestational age: 1/15 vs 0/16 |
| Van Horn et al 2018505  United States  MOMFIT  NCT01631747 | Intervention 140  Control 141 | **Aim**: To determine whether technology-enhanced antenatal diet and lifestyle intervention could prevent excess gestational weight gain and benefit mother and child.  **Population**: Overweight and obese ethnically diverse pregnant women at 16 weeks gestation.  **Intervention**: Dietitian-led Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension diet and physical activity coaching that was received as three individual and six group counselling sessions by phone and webinar.  The DASH diet is especially well-suited to pregnancy because of its high nutrient density including low-fat milk and dairy products, fish, skinless poultry, lean meat and vegetable protein, unsaturated fats, fibre-rich whole grains, fruits, vegetables, and legumes. Conversely, intake of sugar-sweetened beverages, other sweets, and non-nutrient-dense snack foods was discouraged.  The activity goal was to engage in >30 minutes of activity or walking >10,000 steps per day.  A commercially available smartphone application was used for self-monitoring diet and physical activity. Telephone, text message prompts, and e-mail reminders encouraged adherence and website viewing. Usual-care, "web-watcher" participants were e-mailed biweekly newsletters and publicly available maternity website links. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (kg): 10±6 (n=140) vs 12±6 (n=141) * Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines: 96/140 (68.6%) vs 119/141 (84.4%) * Gestational diabetes: 7/133 (5.3%) vs 9/127 (7.1%) * Preterm birth: 6/139 (4.3%) vs 12/136 (8.8%) * Caesarean section: 55/140 (39.6%) vs 37/137 (27%) * Small-for-gestational age: 25/130 (18%) vs 27/121 (19.9%) * Large for gestational age: 8/130 (5.8%) vs 12/121 (8.8%) |
| Vesco et al 2012;514 Vesco et al 2014;558 Vesco et al 2016559  United States | Intervention 54  Control 57 | **Aim**: To test the efficacy of a group-based weight management intervention for limiting GWG among obese women.  **Population**: Women who were obese (BMI ≥30 kg/m2) and aged 18 years or older, randomised between 7 and 21 weeks.  **Intervention**: The intervention program included a combination of dietary and exercise recommendations, as well as the use of behavioural self-management techniques to help participants initiate and maintain behaviour changes. The study dietician advised intervention participants to follow an energy reduced eating plan, based on Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) dietary pattern without sodium restriction. Participants were encouraged to accumulate at least 30 minutes of moderate physical activity per day in the absence of medical or obstetrical complications, a goal consistent with the recommendations of the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG), given a pedometer, and encouraged to record their physical activity in their daily food and activity records. The intervention did not involve an exercise component that was directly observed by the study team. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain (34 weeks): 5.0±4.1 (n=54) vs 8.4±4.7 (n=57) * Weight gain > IOM guidelines: 24/54 vs 47/57 * Gestational diabetes: 6/56 vs 7/58 * Gestational hypertension (including pre-eclampsia): 5/56 vs 6/58 * Caesarean section: 21/56 vs 26/58 * Preterm birth (<37 wk): 4/56 vs 1/58 * Large for gestational age: 5/56 vs 15/58 * Small for gestational age: 3/56 vs 4/58 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 6/56 vs 13/58 * Postpartum weight retention (2 weeks): -2.6±5.5 (n=54) vs 1.2±5.6 (n=58) * Childhood weight (12 months): 9.83±0.93 (n=51) vs 10.01±1.24 (n=52) |
| Vinter et al 2011;515 Vinter et al 2014a;560 Vinter et al 2014b561  LiP  Denmark | Intervention 150  Control 154 | **Aim**: To study the effects of lifestyle intervention on gestational weight gain (GWG) and obstetric outcomes.  **Population**: Healthy pregnant women with BMI ≥30.  **Intervention**: Dietary counselling was performed by trained dietitians on 4 separate occasions, at 15, 20, 28 and 35 weeks gestation, to limit GWG to 5 kg. The counselling included dietary advice based on the official Danish recommendations. Energy requirements were individually estimated according to weight and level of activity. Women were encouraged to be moderately physically active 30 to 60 minutes daily and were equipped with a pedometer to motivate and improve daily activity. They also had free full membership to a fitness centre for 6 months where they had closed training classes with physiotherapists for 1 hour each week. Training consisted of aerobic (low-step), training with light weights and elastic bands, and balance exercises. After training women were grouped 4 to 6 times with a physiotherapist using coaching inspired methods for improving integration of activity into daily life. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 7.4±4.6 (n=144) vs 8.6±4.4 (n=148) * Gestational diabetes: 9/150 vs 8/154 * Pre-eclampsia: 23/150 vs 28/154 * Caesarean section: 40/150 vs 39/154 * Preterm birth: 5/82 vs 2/75 * Macrosomia (>4000 g): 40/150 vs 39/154 * Large for gestational age: 23/150 vs 18/154 * Childhood weight (2.8 years): 14.7±1.82 (n=82) vs 14.4±1.3 (n=75) |
| Wang et al 2015517  China | Intervention 134  Control 138 | **Aim**: To examine whether gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) can be prevented by early trimester lifestyle counselling in a high-risk population.  **Population**: Women with at least one risk factor for gestational diabetes  **Intervention**: Women in the intervention group received routine antenatal care plus a standardised lifestyle intervention delivered at 6 to 8 weeks gestation, and enforcement interventions informed by maternal anthropometrics at 12 to 13 gestational weeks. The standardised courses were delivered by 1 physician and included 3 courses: ’What is a balanced diet?’ (according to the dietary pagoda of pregnant women in China); ’Proper physical activity is beneficial during pregnancy’ (walking 30 minutes after meal at least once a day); and ’Standard weight-gain during pregnancy’. Each course was group based (< 6 women per group) and lasted 40 to 60 minutes. | Intervention vs control:   * Gestational weight gain: 5.51±2.18 (n=134) vs 5.66 (n=138) * Gestational diabetes: 23/134 vs 33/138 |
| Willcox et al 2017500  txt4two  Australia | Intervention 45  Control 46 | **Aim**: To determine the feasibility and effectiveness of an mHealth intervention promoting healthy diet, physical activity and gestational weight gain in pregnant women.  **Population**: Women with a singleton pregnancy between 100 and 176 weeks; self-reported pre-pregnancy BMI >25 kg/m2; able to speak, read and write English; and owning a mobile phone.  **Intervention**: At baseline the trained researcher discussed appropriate GWG targets, individual GWG monitoring and recording, and asked the woman to set a nutrition or physical activity goal to work towards the recommendations. Intervention participants then received four to five individually tailored, interactive text messages per week. The texts delivered information specific to the individual’s gestational week, encouragement of positive health behaviours, monitoring of individual goals and encouragement of self-monitoring of GWG. Texts were developed and mapped according to the behaviour change techniques by the authors. Women chose the frequency of texts that aimed to: prompt review of their weight (weekly or fortnightly); and check their behavioural goals (weekly or fortnightly).  Advice was based on current Australian guidelines: the Australian Dietary Guidelines emphasise the replacement of sugar-sweetened beverages, increased fruit and vegetable intake, reduction of discretionary food groups and consumption of regular meals; the physical activity guidelines emphasise 30 minutes of moderate intensity physical activity on most, if not all, days of the week, reduction of sedentary behaviour. | Intervention versus control:   * Gestational weight gain: 11.0±5.92 (n=45) vs 13.6±5.6 (n=46) * Weight gain >IOM guidelines: 21/45 vs 28/46 |

# Additional considerations

## **Q10**: What are the additional needs of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women?

These studies have been included in relevant sections of the review.

## **Q11**: What are the additional considerations for migrant and refugee women?

No studies were identified to specifically answer this question.

# Appendices

## A Search strategies

### Dietary advice

#### Diet and pregnancy (research questions 1, 2 and 9)

**Date of searches: 4-June-2019**

**Embase:**

('diet'/exp OR 'dietary pattern'/exp OR 'vegetarian' OR 'vegan' OR 'fibre') AND ('pregnant woman'/syn OR 'pregnancy'/syn) AND [humans]/lim AND [english]/lim AND [2013-2019]/py01/01/2014 to 31/12/2019 = Results: 4233

**CINAHL:**

(MH "Diet+") OR (MM "Diet, Paleolithic") OR (MM "Diet, Fat-Restricted") OR (MH "Diet, Antineoplastic") OR (MM "Diet, Western") OR (MM "Diet, Sodium-Restricted") OR (MM "Diet, Low Carbohydrate") OR (MM "Diet, Gluten-Free") OR (MM "Diet, Reducing") OR (MM "Diet, Nordic") OR (MM "Restricted Diet") OR (MM "Diet, Ketogenic") OR (MM "Diet, High Protein") OR (vegetarian OR fiber OR fibre OR vegan)

AND ( ((MH "Pregnancy+") OR (Pregnan\*) OR (MM "Pregnancy Outcomes") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+"))

01/01/2014 to 31/12/2019 = Results 1490

**Pubmed:**

("Diet"[Mesh] OR "vegetarian" OR "fibre" OR "vegan") AND (("Pregnant Women"[Mesh]) OR ("Pregnancy"[Mesh]))

Humans and english language

01/01/2014- 31/12/2019 = Results = 2233

**Informit: Indigenous Peoples**

(Pregnancy and Diet)

2014-2019

Results = 1

**Cochrane Library**



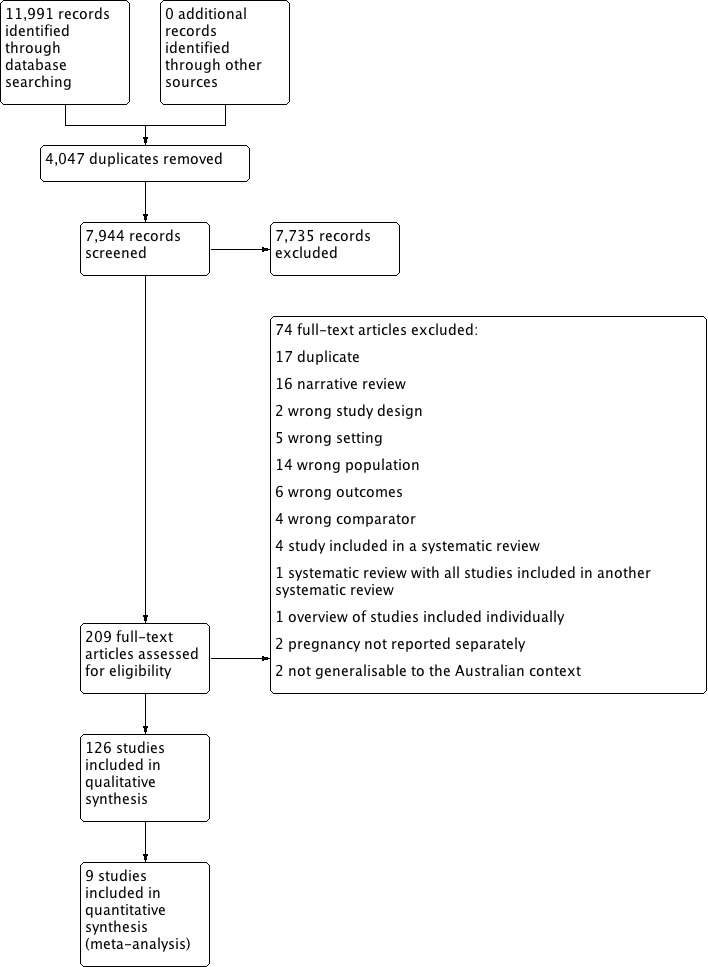
Top-up search- 01/01/2014-04/06/2019 = Review Results 819

**Scopus**

((TITLE-ABS-KEY((("Pregnan\*") OR ("prenatal\*") OR ("gestation\*"))) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY((("Weight") W/1  (("gain") OR ("change"))))) AND PUBYEAR > 2013)

Search results = 3201

Dates searched – 2013 (jan) to 2019 (4/6/19)



PRISMA diagram: diet

#### Folic acid supplementation (research question 3)

Previous Folic acid supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 31 December 2012

Lassi  ZS, Salam  RA, Haider  BA, Bhutta  ZA. Folic acid supplementation during pregnancy for maternal health and pregnancy outcomes. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2013, Issue 3. Art. No.: CD006896. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD006896.pub2.

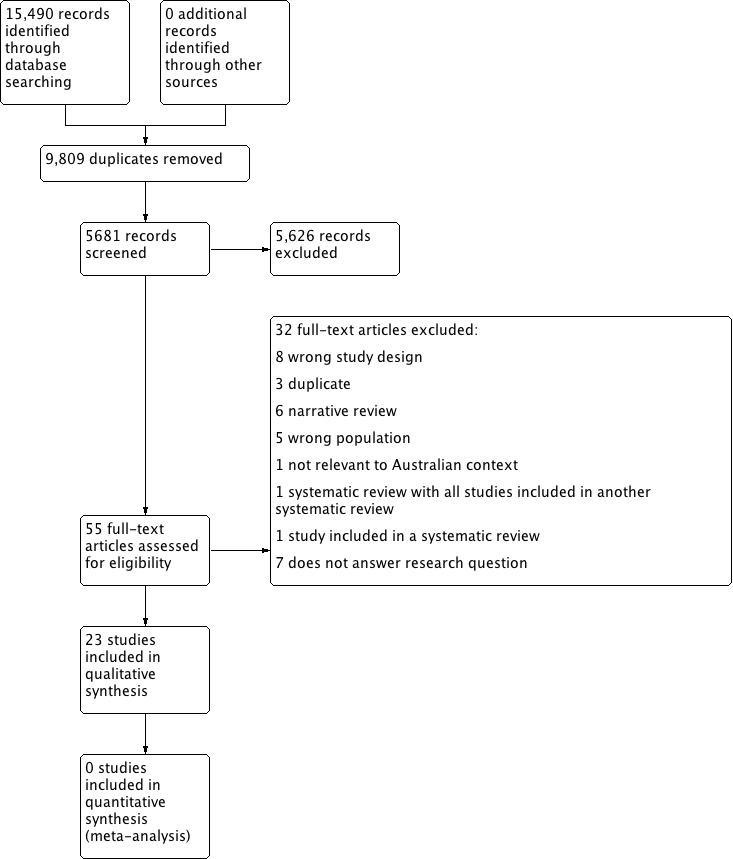
Synonyms for Folic acid;

* Vitamin M
* Vitamin B9
* B9, Vitamin
* Pteroylglutamic Acid
* Folic Acid, Monopotassium Salt
* Folic Acid, Monosodium Salt
* Folic Acid, Potassium Salt
* Folic Acid, (DL)-Isomer
* Folvite
* Folacin
* Folate
* Folic Acid, (D)-Isomer
* Folic Acid, Calcium Salt (1:1)
* Folic Acid, Sodium Salt

**Current search dates:**

31-Dec-2012-current

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | ("pregnancy"[Mesh] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("Folic Acid"[Mesh] OR "Folic Acid"[Title/Abstract] OR "vitamin M"[Title/Abstract] OR "Vitamin B9"[Title/Abstract] OR "Folate"[Title/Abstract] OR "Folvite"[Title/Abstract] OR "Pteroylglutamic Acid"[Title/Abstract]) | 31-Dec-2012 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English Language | 1468 | 24-June-19 |
| Ovid medline | (exp Folic Acid/ OR (folate or folic acid or Vitamin M or Vitamin B9 or folvite or pteroylglutamic acid).mp.)  AND  Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp. | 2012-Current | English Language  Human | 1829 | 24-June-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND ('folic acid'/exp OR 'vitamin B9' or 'folic acid' OR ‘folate’ OR ‘pteroylglutamic acid’) | 2012-2019 | English Language  Human | 4601 | 24-June-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MM "Folic Acid") OR (AB "Folate") OR (AB “Vitamin M”) OR (AB “Vitamin B9”) )  AND  ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") ) | 2012-2019 | English | 759 | 24-June-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND  ( ( "folic acid" )  OR  ( "folate" ) ) ) | 2012 - 2019 | English | 3423 | 24-June-19 |
| Health Infonet | Ascorbic Acid – title and abstract  Pregnancy - keyword | 2012-current = 0 | None | 0 | 24-June-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  (Folate OR (Folic NEXT Acid) OR (Vitamin NEXT M) OR (Vitamin NEXT B9) OR (MeSH descriptor: [Folic Acid] explode all trees)) | Dec 2012 to Dec 2019 | Reviews: 95  Protocols: 21  Trials: 717  Spec. Collections: 1  Answers: 18 | 852 | 24-June-19 |



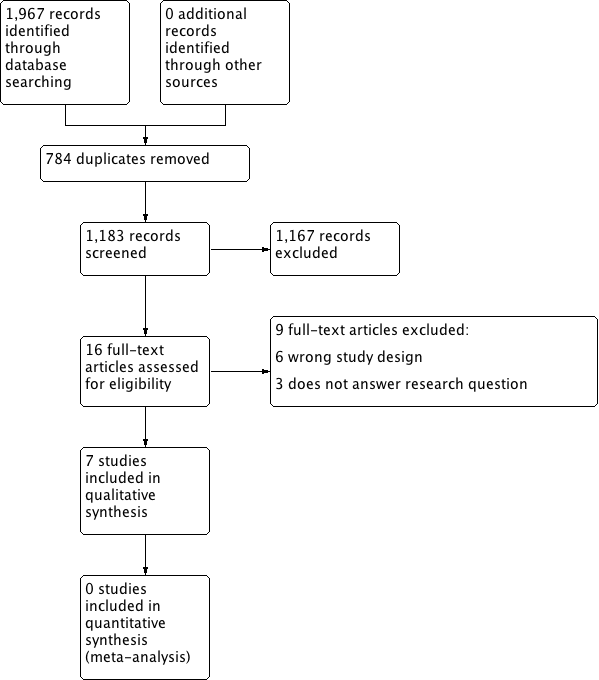
PRISMA diagram: Folic acid

#### Vitamin B supplementation during pregnancy (research question 3)

**Current search dates:**

All

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | (((("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("pregnan\*"[All Fields]) OR ("prenatal\*"[All Fields])))) AND ((("Vitamin B Complex"[Mesh]) OR ("Vitamin" NEXT "B") OR ("Vitamin B Deficiency"[Mesh]) OR ("Vitamin B 6"[Mesh]) OR ("Vitamin B 12"[Mesh]) OR ("Nicotamin") OR ("Pantothenic" NEXT “acid”) OR ("biotin"))) | 2014 to 30-sep-19 | Human  English | 473 | 5-Oct-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnan\* and Vitamin B).mp. | 2014-30-Sep-19 | English Language  Human | 363 | 30-sep-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR 'pregnan\*') AND ('biotin derivative'/exp OR 'nicotinamide'/exp OR 'pantothenic acid'/exp OR 'vitamin B complex'/exp) AND [2014-2019]/py AND [humans]/lim AND [english]/lim | 2014 to 30-sep-19 | English Language  Human | 199 | 5-Oct-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND  (MH "Vitamin B Complex+") OR (MM "Pantothenic Acid") OR "vitamin B" OR (MH "Vitamin B Deficiency+") OR (MM "Vitamin B6 Deficiency") OR (MH "Vitamin B12 Deficiency+") | 2014 to 30-Sep-19 | English | 780 | 5-Oct-19 |
| SCOPUS | ( TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) ) )  AND  TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "Vitamin Pre/1 B" )  OR  ( "Thiamine" )  OR  ( "riboflavin" )  OR  ( "niacin" )  OR  ( "Pantothenic" )  OR  ( "pyridoxine" )  OR  ( "biotin" )  OR  ( "cobalamin" ) ) )  AND  PUBYEAR  >  2013 | 2014 to 30-Sep-19 | English | 725 | 30-sep-19 |
| Health Infonet | Vitamin B – title and abstract  Vitamin – title and abstract |  | None |  | 5-Oct-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  ((MeSH descriptor: [Pantothenic Acid] explode all trees) OR (MeSH descriptor: [Niacinamide] explode all trees) OR (MeSH descriptor: [Biotin] explode all trees) OR (MeSH descriptor: [Biotin] explode all trees)) | 01/01/2014-31/12/2019 | Cochrane reviews | 8 | 5-Oct-19 |



Prisma diagram: B vitamins

#### Vitamin C Supplementation (research question 3)

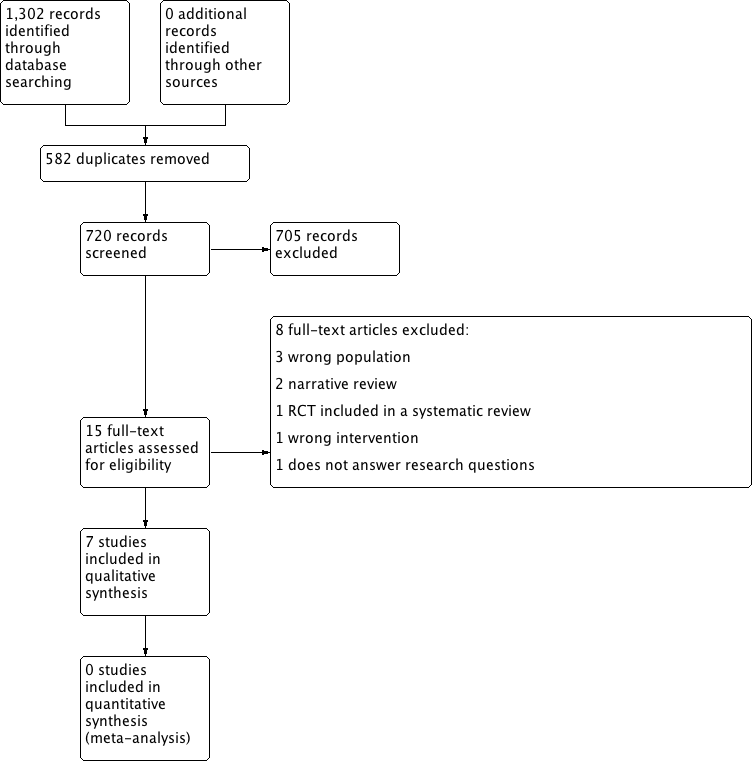
Previous vitamin c supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 31 March 2015

Citation: Rumbold  A, Ota  E, Nagata  C, Shahrook  S, Crowther  CA. Vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 9. Art. No.: CD004072. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004072.pub3.

**Current search dates:**

31-Mar-2015-current

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | ("pregnancy"[Mesh] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("Ascorbic Acid"[Mesh] OR "vitamin c"[All Fields] OR “ascorbic acid”[All Fields]) | 31-Mar-2015 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English Language | 88 | 19-June-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and (vitamin C.mp. or ascorbic acid/syn or ascorbic acid.mp.) | 2015-Current | English Language  Human | 106 | 19-June-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND ('ascorbic acid'/exp OR 'vitamin c' or 'ascorbic acid') | 2015-2019 | English Language  Human | 431 | 19-June-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Ascorbic acid deficiency") OR (MM"Ascorbic acid") OR (AB “vitamin C”) ) | 2015-2019 | English | 129 | 19-June-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND  ( ( "ascorbic acid" )  OR  ( "vitamin c" ) ) ) | 2015 - 2019 | English | 497 | 19-June-19 |
| Health Infonet | Ascorbic Acid – title and abstract  Pregnancy - keyword | 2015-current = 0 | None | 0 | 19-June-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  (MeSH Descriptor: [Ascorbic Acid] explode all trees) | Mar 2015 to Dec 2019 | Trials + Cochrane reviews | 100 | 19-June-19 |



PRISMA diagram: vitamin C

#### Vitamin E Supplementation (research question 3)

Previous vitamin c supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 31 March 2015

Rumbold  A, Ota  E, Hori  H, Miyazaki  C, Crowther  CA. Vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 9. Art. No.: CD004069. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004069.pub3.

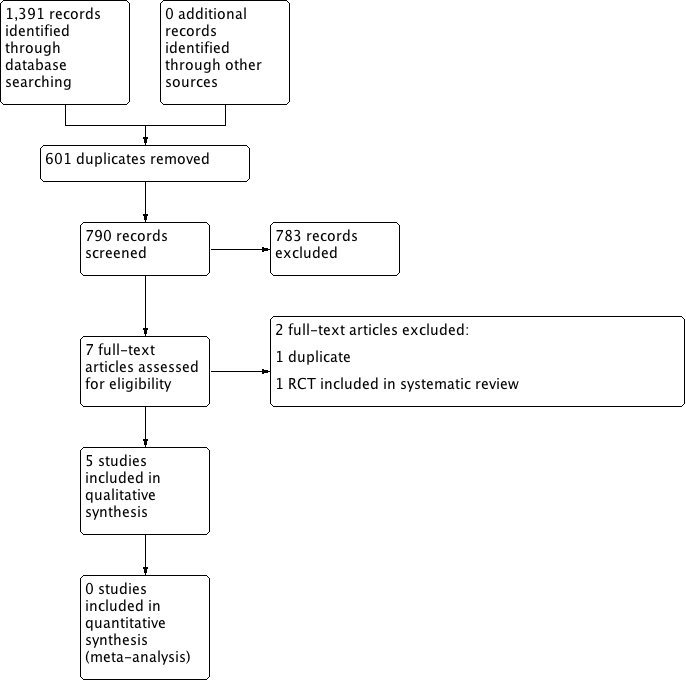
Synonyms for vitamin E:

* gamma-tocopherol
* alpha-tocopherol
* tocopherol

**Current search dates:**

31-Mar-2015-current

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| Pubmed | (("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("pregnan\*"[All Fields]) OR ("prenatal\*"[All Fields]))  AND ("Vitamin E"[Mesh] OR "vitamin E"[All Fields] OR “tocopherol”[All Fields]) | 31-Mar-2015 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English Language | 86 | 19-June-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) AND (Vitamin E or tocopherol).mp. | 2015-Current | English Language  Human | 108 | 19-June-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND (‘Vitamin E’ OR 'tocopherol'/exp OR ‘tocopherol’) | 2015-2019 | English Language  Human | 404 | 19-June-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Vitamin E") OR (AB "Vitamin E") OR (AB “tocopherol”) ) | 2015-2019 | English | 67 | 19-June-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND  ( ( "vitamin E" )  OR  ( "gamma-tocopherol" )  OR  ( "alpha-tocopherol" ) OR ( “tocopherol” )) ) | 2015 - 2019 | English | 504 | 19-June-19 |
| Health Infonet | Vitamin E – title and abstract  Pregnancy - keyword | 2015-current = 0 | None | 0 | 19-June-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  (MeSH descriptor: [Vitamin E] explode all trees) OR (tocopherol) | Mar 2015 to Dec 2019 | Cochrane reviews and Trials | 222 | 19-June-19 |



Prisma diagram: Vitamin E

#### Vitamin A supplementation (research question 3)

Previous vitamin A supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 30 March 2015

McCauley  ME, van den Broek  N, Dou  L, Othman  M. Vitamin A supplementation during pregnancy for maternal and newborn outcomes. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 10. Art. No.: CD008666. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD008666.pub3.

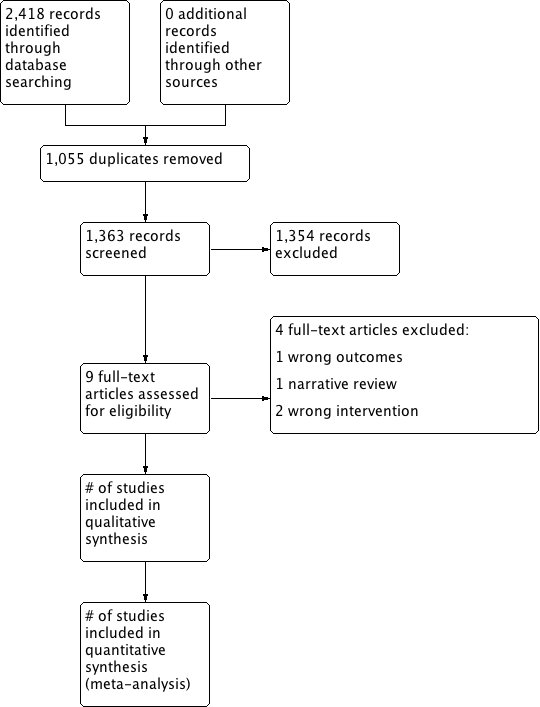
Synonyms for vitamin A:

* Aquasol A
* Retinol
* 3,7-dimethyl-9-(2,6,6-trimethyl-1-cyclohexen-1-yl)-2,4,6,8-nonatetraen-1-ol, (all-E)-Isomer
* All-Trans-Retinol
* All Trans Retinol
* Vitamin A1
* 11-cis-Retinol

**Current search dates:**

30-Mar-2015-current

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | (((("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("pregnan\*"[All Fields]) OR ("prenatal\*"[All Fields]))))  AND (("Vitamin A"[Mesh] OR "vitamin A\*"[All Fields] OR "retinol"[All Fields] OR "All\*Trans\*Retinol"[All Fields] OR "Retinol"[All Fields] OR "11-cis-Retinol"[All Fields] OR "3,7-dimethyl-9-(2,6,6-trimethyl-1-cyclohexen-1-yl)-2,4,6,8-nonatetraen-1-ol, (all-E)-Isomer"[All Fields]))) | 30-Mar-2015 to Current | Human  English Language | 199 | 20-June-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and (Vitamin A or retinol or All\*Trans\*Retinol or Retinol or 11-cis-Retinol).mp. | 2015-Current | English Language  Human | 238 | 20-June-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*) AND ('vitamin A' OR 'retinol'/exp OR 'retinol' OR 'all\*trans\*retinol or retinol' OR '11-cis-retinol') | 2015-2019 | English Language  Human | 626 | 20-June-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND ((MH "Retinoids+") OR (MM "Vitamin A") OR (AB "vitamin” NEXT A") OR (AB "retinol") OR (AB "all\*trans\*retinol") OR (AB "11-cis-Retinol") OR (AB "3,7-dimethyl-9-(2,6,6-trimethyl-1-cyclohexen-1-yl)-2,4,6,8-nonatetraen-1-ol, (all-E)-Isomer")) | 2015-2019 | English | 150 | 20-June-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )   AND  (("Retinoids") OR ("Vitamin A") OR ("vitamin" Next/2 "A") OR ("retinol") OR ("all\*trans\*retinol")) | 2015 - 2019 | English | 943 | 20-June-19 |
| Health Infonet | Vitamin – Keyword  Pregnancy - keyword | 2015-current = 0 | None | 0 | 20-June-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  (MeSH descriptor: [Vitamin A] explode all trees) OR ((Retinoids) OR (vitamin NEXT A) OR (retinol) OR (all\*trans\*retinol)) | Mar 2015 to Dec 2019 | Cochrane reviews, protocols and Trials | 262 | 20-June-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Vitamin A

#### Multiple micronutrient supplementation (research question 3)

Citation:

Wolf, HT, Hegaard, HK, Huusom, LD & Pinborg, AB 2017, ‘Multivitamin use and adverse birth outcomes in high-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis’, *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, vol. 217, no. 4, pp. 404.e1–404.e30.

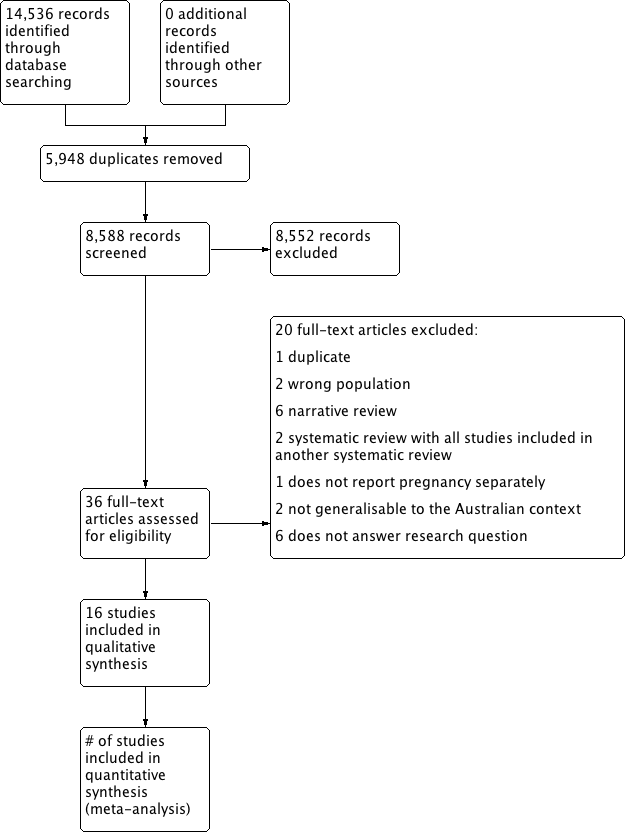
**Current search dates:**

01 Jan 2015 – Jan 2020

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | See below | 2015-2020 | English  Humans | 3136 | 21 Jan 2020 |
| Ovid medline | (Exp Pregnant women/ OR exp Pregnancy/ OR Pregnancy.mp. OR gravid.mp. OR obstetric.mp. OR pregnan\*.mp. OR antenatal.mp. OR antepartum.mp. OR gestation\*.mp.)  AND  (\*dietary supplements/ OR exp Micronutrients/ OR multivitamin.mp. OR micronutrient.mp. OR supplementation\*.mp. OR multivitamin-mineral\*.mp.) | 2015-2020 | English  Humans | 4610 | 21-Jan-20 |
| Embase | 'pregnant woman'/exp OR 'pregnancy'/exp OR 'pregnancy':ti,ab,kw OR 'gravid':ti,ab,kw OR 'obstetric':ti,ab,kw OR 'pregnan\*':ti,ab,kw OR 'antenatal':ti,ab,kw OR 'antepartum':ti,ab,kw OR 'gestation\*':ti,ab,kw  AND  'multivitamin'/exp OR 'dietary supplement'/exp OR 'multivitamin':ti,ab,kw OR 'micronutrient':ti,ab,kw OR 'supplementation\*':ti,ab,kw OR 'multivitamin-mineral':ti,ab,kw | 2015-2020 | English  Humans | 5311 | 24-Jan-20 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Expectant Mothers") ) OR ( ("pregnancy") OR ("gravid") OR ("obstetric") OR ("pregnan\*") OR ("antenatal") OR ("antepartum") OR ("gestation\*") )  AND  ( (MH "Dietary Supplementation") OR (MH "Dietary Supplements") OR ) OR ( (multivitamin") OR ("micronutrient") OR ("supplementation\*") OR ("multivitamin-mineral\*") ) | 2015-2020 | English | 1193 | 24-Jan-20 |
| SCOPUS | ( ( "pregnancy" )  OR  ( "gravid" )  OR  ( "obstetric" )  OR  ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "antenatal" )  OR  ( "antepartum" )  OR  ( "gestation\*" ) )  AND  ( ( "multivitamin" )  OR  ( "micronutrient" )  OR  ( "supplementation\*" )  OR  ( "multivitamin-mineral\*" )  OR  ( "dietary supplement\*" ) ) | 2015-2020 | English  Articles | 5584 | 24-Jan-20 |
| Health Infonet | Multivitamin OR  supplement | 2015-2020 | All | 0 | 28-Jan-20 |
| Cochrane | ID Search Hits  #1 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees 7524  #2 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees 236  #3 MeSH descriptor: [Dietary Supplements] explode all trees 11667  #4 MeSH descriptor: [Micronutrients] explode all trees 5006  #5 ('multivitamin') OR ('micronutrient') OR ('supplementation\*') OR ('multivitamin-mineral') 39457  #6 ('pregnancy') OR ('gravid') OR ('obstetric') OR ('pregnan\*') OR ('antenatal') OR ('antepartum') OR ('gestation\*') 74030  #7 #1 OR #2 OR #6 74209  #8 #3 OR #4 OR #5 44938  #9 #7 AND #8 with Cochrane Library publication date Between Jan 2015 and Feb 2020, in Cochrane Reviews 250 | 2015-2020 | Reviews | 250 | 28-Jan-20 |

Pubmed search

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Search | Query | Items found |
| #22 | Search (#18 AND #11) Filters: Publication date from 2015/01/01 to 2020/12/31; Humans; English | 3136 |
| #21 | Search (#18 AND #11) Filters: Publication date from 2015/01/01 to 2020/12/31; Humans | 3285 |
| #20 | Search (#18 AND #11) Filters: Publication date from 2015/01/01 to 2020/12/31 | 5516 |
| #19 | Search (#18 AND #11) | 18141 |
| #18 | Search (#12 OR #13 OR #14 OR #15 OR #16 OR #17) | 211567 |
| #17 | Search multivitamin-mineral[Title/Abstract] | 217 |
| #16 | Search supplementation[Title/Abstract] | 115514 |
| #15 | Search micronutrient[Title/Abstract] | 8949 |
| #14 | Search multivitamin[Title/Abstract] | 2708 |
| #13 | Search micronutrients[MeSH Terms] | 57798 |
| #12 | Search dietary supplement[MeSH Terms] | 72899 |
| #11 | Search (#2 OR #3 OR #4 OR #5 OR #6 OR #7 OR #8 OR #9 OR #10) | 1034316 |
| #10 | Search gestation[Title/Abstract] | 115660 |
| #9 | Search antepartum[Title/Abstract] | 5685 |
| #8 | Search Antenatal[Title/Abstract] | 34497 |
| #7 | Search Pregnan\*[Title/Abstract] | 509634 |
| #6 | Search obstetric[Title/Abstract] | 42244 |
| #5 | Search gravid[Title/Abstract] | 5095 |
| #4 | Search Pregnancy[Title/Abstract] | 394617 |
| #3 | Search Pregnancy[MeSH Terms] | 878699 |
| #2 | Search "Pregnant Women"[Mesh] | 7859 |



PRISMA diagram: multiple micronutrients

#### Iron supplementation (research question 3)

Previous Iron supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 10 Jan 2015

Peña‐Rosas  JP, De‐Regil  LM, Gomez Malave  H, Flores‐Urrutia  MC, Dowswell  T. Intermittent oral iron supplementation during pregnancy. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 10. Art. No.: CD009997. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD009997.pub2.

And

Peña‐Rosas  JP, De‐Regil  LM, Garcia‐Casal  MN, Dowswell  T. Daily oral iron supplementation during pregnancy. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 7. Art. No.: CD004736. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004736.pub5.

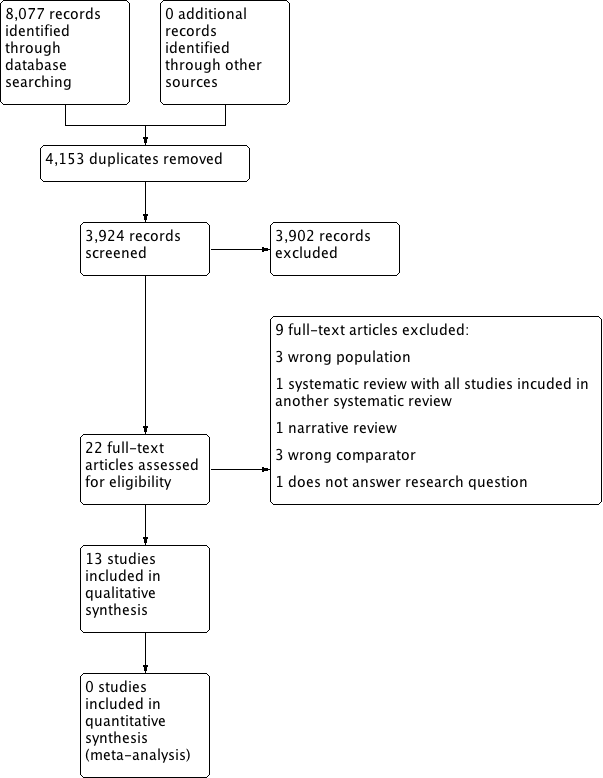
Synonyms for Iron;

Iron-56

**Current search dates:**

10-Jan-2015-current

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | ("pregnancy"[Mesh] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("Iron, Dietary"[Mesh] OR “Iron”[Mesh] OR “Iron”[All Fields]) | 10-Jan-2015 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English Language | 891 | 1-July-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Iron/ or Iron, Dietary/) OR Iron.mp.  AND  Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp. | 2015-Current | English Language  Human | 975 | 2-July-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND ('iron'/exp OR ‘Iron’) | 2015-2019 | English Language  Human | 2752 | 1-July-19 |
| CINAHL | (MH "Iron+") OR ("Iron")  AND  ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") ) | 2015-2019 | English | 1421 | 1-July-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND  ( ( "Iron" ) ) ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2019 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2018 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2017 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2016 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2015 ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( LANGUAGE ,  "English" ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( EXACTKEYWORD ,  "Human" ) ) | 2015 - 2019 | English  Human | 1961 | 2-July-19 |
| Health Infonet | Iron – title and abstract  Pregnancy - title and abstract | 2015-current = 0 | None | 0 | 2-July-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  ((MeSH descriptor: [Iron] explode all trees) OR (Iron)) | Dec 2012 to Dec 2019 | Reviews: 77 | 77 | 22-July-19 |



Prisma diagram: iron

#### Calcium supplementation (research question 3)

Previous Calcium supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 30-Sep-2014

Buppasiri P, Lumbiganon P, Thinkhamrop  J, Ngamjarus  C, Laopaiboon  M, Medley  N. Calcium supplementation (other than for preventing or treating hypertension) for improving pregnancy and infant outcomes. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 2. Art. No.: CD007079. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD007079.pub3.

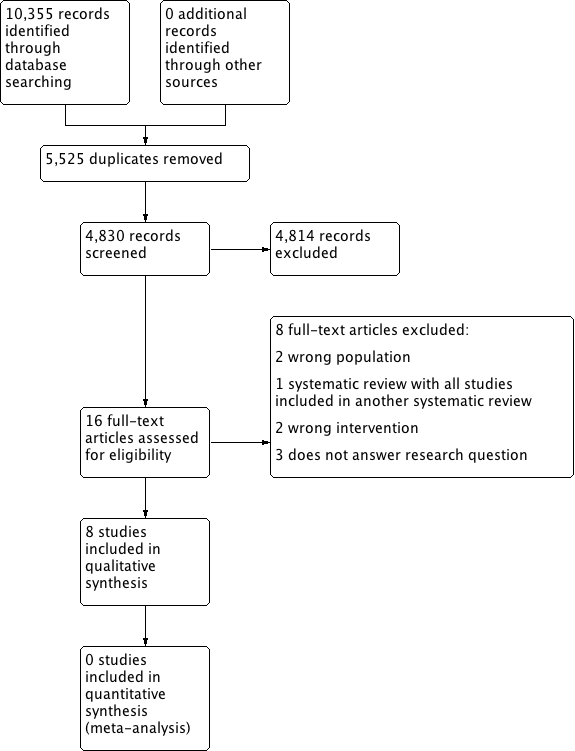
Synonyms for Calcium;

* Blood Coagulation Factor IV
* Coagulation Factor IV
* Factor IV, Coagulation
* Calcium-40
* Calcium 40
* Factor IV

**Current search dates:**

30-Sep-2014-current

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | ("pregnancy"[Mesh] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("Calcium”[Mesh] OR “Calcium”[All Fields] OR “Factor IV”[All Fields]) | 30-Sep-2014 to Current | Human  English Language | 723 | 1-July-19 |
| Ovid medline | exp Calcium, Dietary/ or exp Calcium/ OR (Calcium or 'Factor IV').mp.  AND  Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp. | 2014-Current | English Language  Human | 936 | 2-July-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND ('calcium'/exp OR 'factor IV' OR ‘calcium’) | 2014-2019 | English Language  Human | 2902 | 2-July-19 |
| CINAHL | (MH "Calcium+") OR ("Calcium") OR ("Factor IV")  AND  ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") ) | 2014-2019 | English | 1534 | 2-July-19 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND  ( ( "Calcium" )  OR  ( "Factor"  PRE/0  "IV" ) ) ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2019 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2018 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2017 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2016 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2015 )  OR  LIMIT-TO ( PUBYEAR ,  2014 ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( LANGUAGE ,  "English" ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( EXACTKEYWORD ,  "Human" ) ) | 2014 - 2019 | English  Human | 2332 | 2-July-19 |
| Health Infonet | Calcium – title and abstract  Pregnancy - title and abstract | 2014-current = 0  (1 in 2013) | None | 0 | 2-July-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  ((MeSH descriptor: [Calcium] explode all trees) OR Calcium OR (Factor IV)) | Dec 2014 to Dec 2019 | Reviews: 221 | 221 | 2-July-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Calcium

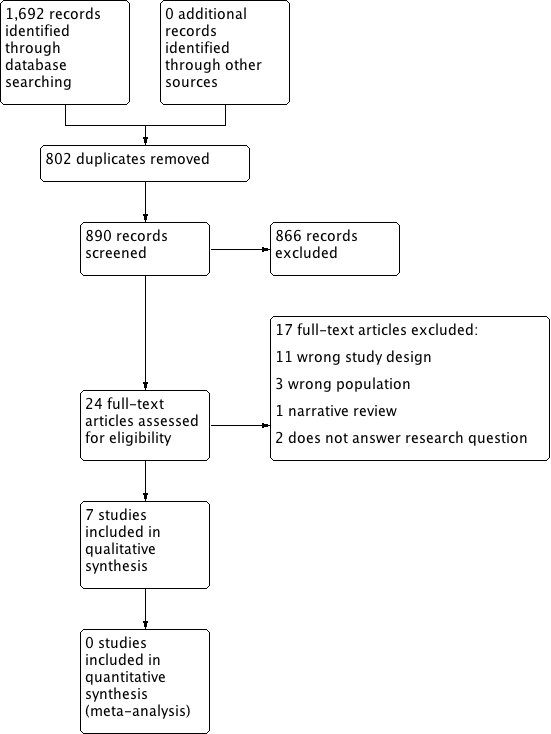
#### Iodine supplementation (research question 3)

Previous Iodine supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane review search date: 17 November 2016

Citation: Harding KB, Peña-Rosas JP, Webster AC, Yap CMY, Payne BA, Ota E, De-Regil LM. Iodine supplementation for women during the preconception, pregnancy and postpartum period. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2017, Issue 3. Art. No.: CD011761

**Current search dates:** 18-Nov-2016-current

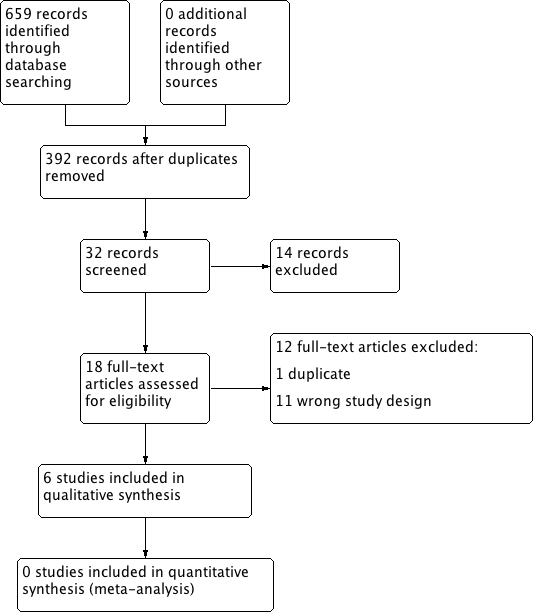
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| **Pubmed** | ("pregnancy"[MeSH Terms] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("iodine"[MeSH Terms] OR "iodine"[All Fields]) | 18-Nov-2016 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human | **138** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Ovid medline** | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and iodine.mp. | 2016-Current | English Language  Human | **242** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Embase** | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND (iodine OR ‘iodine’/exp)  NOT ('radioactive iodine' OR 'povidone iodine') | 2016-2019 | English Language  Human | **574** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **CINAHL** | TX ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Iodine") OR ("Iodine") ) | 01-Nov-2016 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English | **109** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **SCOPUS** | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "Pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  AND  ( "Iodine" ) ) | 2016-2019 | English | **621** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Health Infonet** | Iodine – title and abstract | 2016-current=1 | None | **1** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Cochrane** | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees) OR (Prenatal)) AND (Iodine) | Nov 2016 to Dec 2019 | Trials | **8** | 16-Jan-19 |



Prisma diagram: Iodine

#### Iodine top-up search

Search date: 11 March 2020



PRISMA diagram: Iodine top-up search

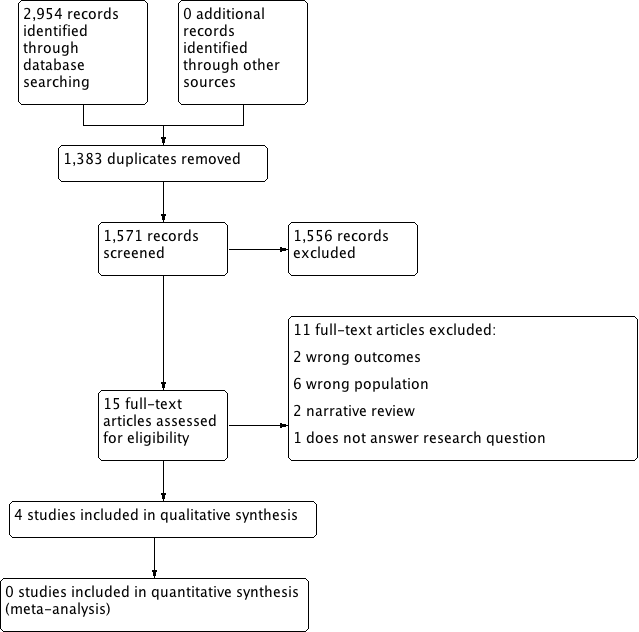
#### Zinc supplementation (research question 3)

Previous zinc supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 31 October 2014

Citation: Ota E, Mori R, Middleton P, Tobe-Gai R, Mahomed K, Miyazaki C, Bhutta ZA. Zinc supplementation for improving pregnancy and infant outcome. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015, Issue 2. Art. No.: CD000230.

**Current search dates:** 1-Nov-2014-16-Jan-19

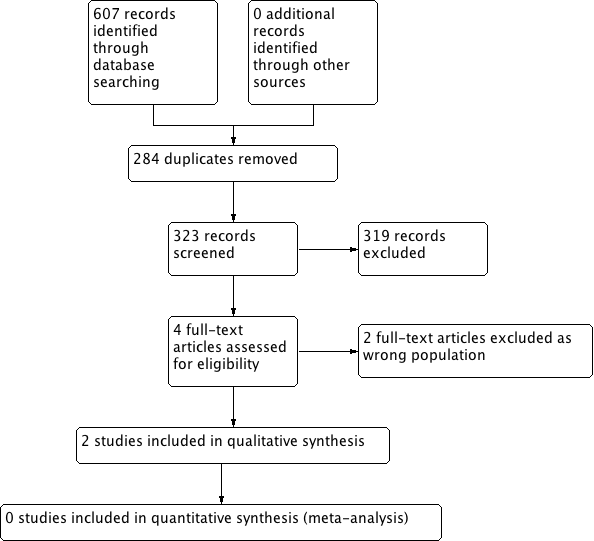
| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Pubmed** | ("pregnancy"[MeSH Terms] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("zinc"[MeSH Terms] OR "zinc"[All Fields]) | 1-Nov-2014 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human | **280** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Ovid medline** | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and zinc.mp. | 2014-Current | English Language  Human | **336** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Embase** | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND (zinc OR ‘zinc’/exp) | 2014-2019 | English Language  Human | **948** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **CINAHL** | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Zinc") OR ("Zinc") ) | 01-Jan-2014 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human | **124** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **SCOPUS** | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "Pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  AND  ( "Zinc" ) ) | 2014-2019 | English | **1232** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Health Infonet** | Zinc – title and abstract  Pregnancy - keyword | 2014-current=0  All dates=15 | None | **0** | 16-Jan-19 |
| **Cochrane** | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees) OR (Prenatal)) AND (Zinc) | Nov 2014 to Dec 2019 | Trials | **34** | 16-Jan-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Zinc

#### Zinc top-up search

Search date: 12 March 2020



PRISMA diagram: Zinc top-up

#### Magnesium supplementation (research question 3)

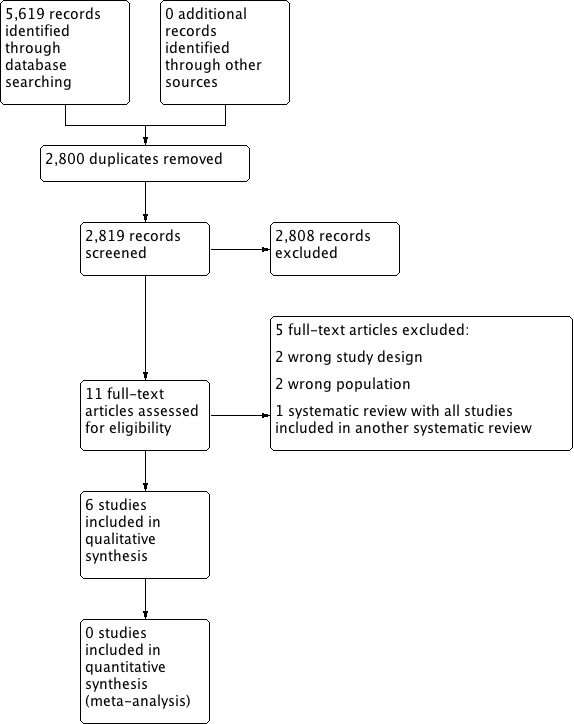
Previous Magnesium supplementation in pregnancy Cochrane search date: 31 March 2013

Citation: Makrides M, Crosby DD, Bain E, Crowther CA Magnesium supplementation in pregnancy, Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2014, Issue 4. Art. No.: CD000937.

**Current search dates:**

31-Mar-2013-current

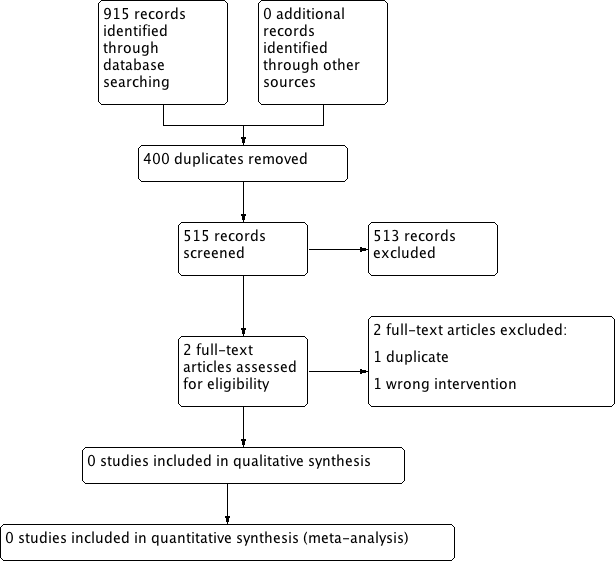
| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Pubmed** | ("pregnancy"[MeSH Terms] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("magnesium"[MeSH Terms] OR "magnesium"[All Fields]) | 31-Mar-2013 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English Language | **492** | 13-Feb-19 |
| **Ovid medline** | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and magnesium.mp. | 2013-Current | English Language  Human | **530** | 13-Feb-19 |
| **Embase** | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND (magnesium OR ‘magnesium’/exp) | 2013-2019 | English Language  Human | **1947** | 25-Feb-19 |
| **CINAHL** | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Magnesium") OR ("Magnesium") ) | 01-Jan-2013 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English | **341** | 13-feb-19 |
| **SCOPUS** | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "Pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  AND  ( "Magnesium" ) ) | 201432019 | English | **1872** | 13-Feb-19 |
| **Health Infonet** | Magnesium – title and abstract  Pregnancy - keyword | 2014-current=0  All dates=0 | None | **0** | 13-Feb-19 |
| **Cochrane** | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy Outcomes] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’ OR ‘Prenatal’)  AND  (Magnesium) | Mar 2013 to Dec 2019 | Trials | **204** | 13-feb-19 |
| **Psychinfo** | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and magnesium.mp. | 2013-Current | English Language  Human | **11** | 13-Feb-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Magnesium

#### Magnesium top-up search

Search date: 12 March 2020

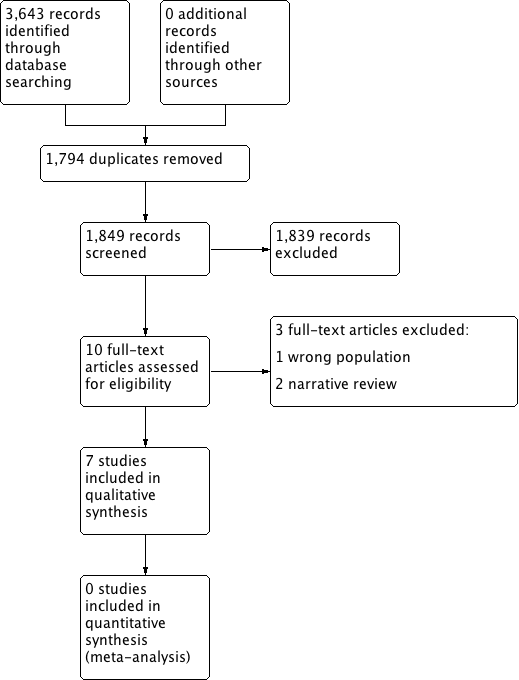


PRISMA diagram: Magnesium top-up

#### Selenium supplementation (research question 3)

**Search dates:** 1-Jan-2000-28-Feb-2019

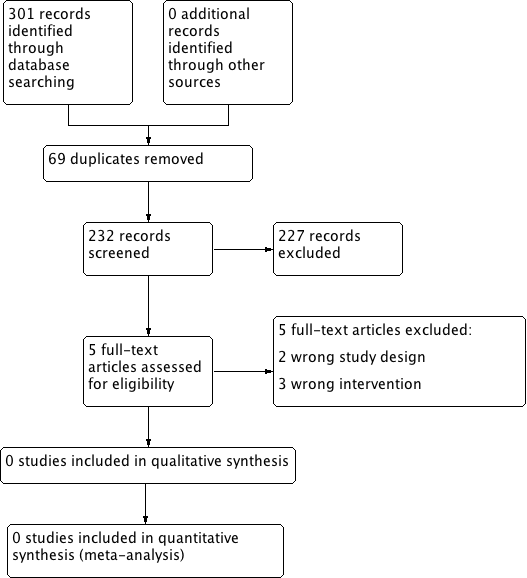
| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Pubmed** | ("pregnancy"[MeSH Terms] OR "pregnant women"[MeSH Terms] OR "pregnan\*"[All Fields] OR "prenatal\*"[All Fields])  AND ("selenium"[MeSH Terms] OR "selenium"[All Fields]) | 1-jan-2000 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human  English language | **423** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **Ovid medline** | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) and selenium.mp. | 2000-Current | English Language  Human | **434** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **Embase** | ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*)  AND (selenium OR ‘selenium’/exp) | 2000-2019 | Human | **966** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **CINAHL** | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND TX ( (MM "Selenium") OR ("Selenium") ) | 01-Jan-2000 to 31-Dec-2019 | English | **813** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **SCOPUS** | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "Pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  AND  ( "selenium" ) ) | 2000-2019 | English  Human | **910** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **Health Infonet** | Selenium – all fields | 2000-current=0 | None | **0** | 28-Feb-19 |
| **Cochrane** | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR Pregnancy)  AND  (MeSH descriptor: [Selenium] explode all trees  OR Selenium) | Nov 2000 to Dec 2019 | Trials | **28 reviews**  **114 trials**  **10 protocols** | 28-Feb-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Selenium

#### Selenium top-up search

Search date: 12 March 2020



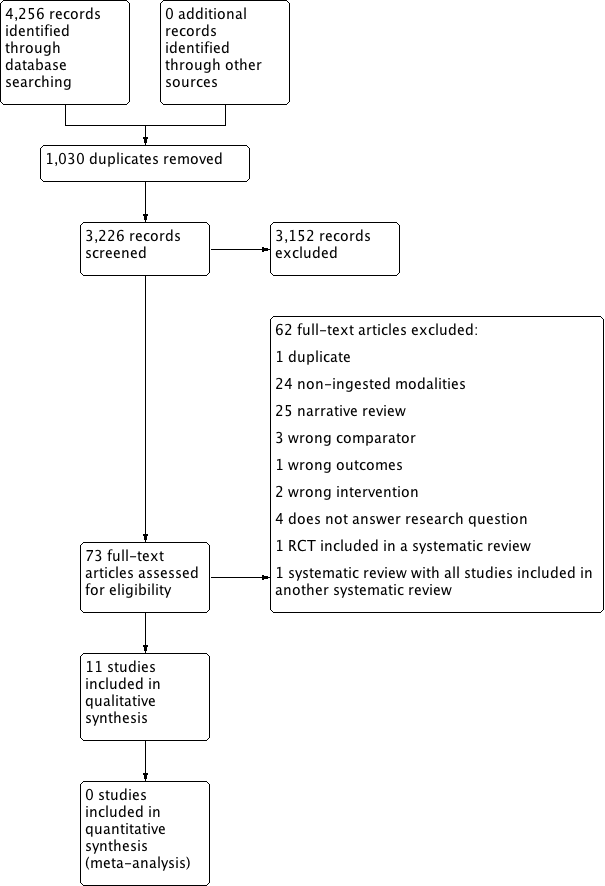
PRISMA diagram: Selenium top-up

#### Herbal preparations (research question 4)

**Current search dates:**

2014-2019

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Database | Search Strategy | Dates Searched | Limits set | Results | Date of search |
| Pubmed | (("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("pregnan\*"[All Fields]) OR ("prenatal\*"[All Fields]))  AND  (("Herbal" OR "Alternative" OR "Complementary") NEXT ("Medicin\*" OR "Therap\*" OR "Remed\*")) OR ("Herbal Medicine"[Mesh]) OR "Drugs, Chinese Herbal"[Mesh]) OR "Complementary Therapies"[Mesh] | 5 years | Human | 725 | 5-August-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnancy/syn or Pregnan\*.mp.) AND ((exp Plants, Medicinal/ or exp Herbal Medicine/ or exp Medicine, East Asian Traditional/ or exp Medicine, Chinese Traditional/) OR (((Herbal or Alternative) and (Medicin\* or Therap\*)).mp)) | 2014-Current | English Language  Human | 1141 | 19 July 2019 |
| Embase | (('alternative medicine'/exp) OR ('herbal medicine'/exp) OR ('herbaceous agent'/exp))  AND  ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\*) | 2014-current | English Language  Human | 752 | 5-Aug-19 |
| CINAHL | ((MH "Alternative Therapies+") OR (MH "Plants, Medicinal+") OR ("alternative NEXT medicine"))  AND  ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") ) | 2014 - current | English | 774 | 5-Aug-19 |
| SCOPUS | ( ( "Pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" ) ) )  AND  ( ABS ( ( "Herbal"  OR  "alternative"  OR  "plants"  OR  "Herbaceous"  OR  "Chinese"  OR  "Traditional" )  PRE/1  ( "Medicine"  OR  "Therap\*"  OR  "Agent" ) ) ) ) | 2014 - current | English | 757 | 5-Aug-19 |
| Health Infonet | Tradition medicine pregnancy  Publications on traditional medicine did not mention pregnancy |  |  | 0 | 5-Aug-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy Outcomes] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’ OR ‘Prenatal’)  AND  (MeSH descriptor: [Complementary Therapies] explode all trees) | 2014 - current | Cochrane reviews | 107 | 5-Aug-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Herbal preparations

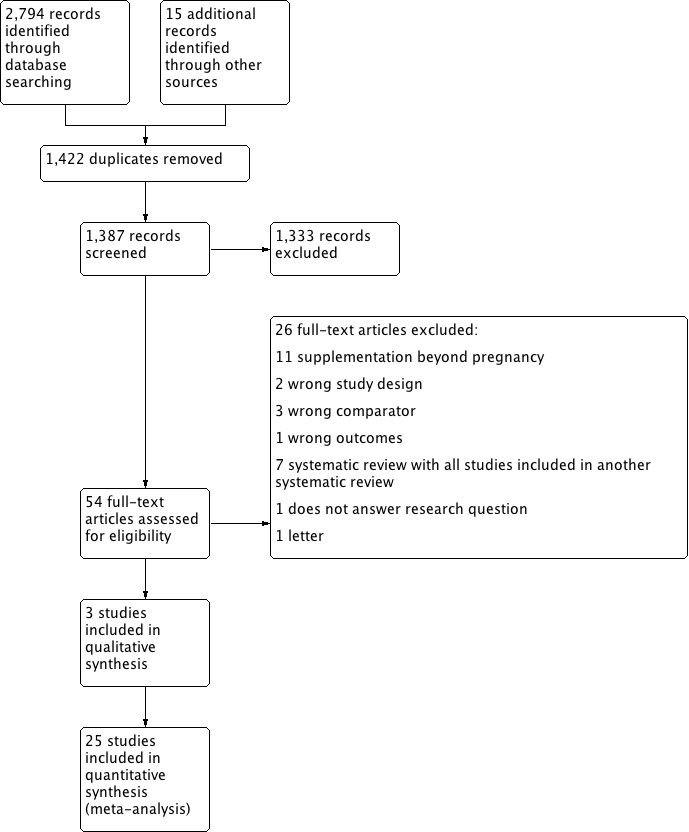
#### Probiotics (research question 4)

**Citation for previous review:** 2014

**Current search dates:**

2014 onwards

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | (((("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("pregnan\*"[All Fields]) OR ("prenatal\*"[All Fields])))) AND ((“probiotic\*”) OR (“lactobacillus”) OR (“bifidobacter\*”) OR (“saccharomyces”)) | 01/01/14 to 18/10/2019 | Human  English | 247 | 18-Oct-19 |
| Ovid medline | (Pregnan\*).mp. OR (exp Pregnancy/)  AND  (((probiotic\*) OR (lactobacillus) OR (bifidobacter\*) OR (saccharomyces)).mp. OR (prebiotics/) or (probiotics/)) | 01/01/2014 to 18/10/2019 | Human | 419 | 18-Oct-19 |
| Embase | ('pregnancy'/exp OR 'pregnan\*') AND ('probiotic agent'/exp OR (('probiotic\*') OR ('lactobacillus') OR ('bifidobacter\*') OR ('saccharomyces'))) | 01/01/2014 to 18/10/2019 | English Language  Human | 1048 | 18-Oct-19 |
| CINAHL | ( (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") )  AND  (MM "Probiotics") OR (MM "Prebiotics") OR (MM "Bifidobacterium") OR ((“probiotic\*”) OR (“lactobacillus”) OR (“bifidobacter\*”) OR (“saccharomyces”)) | 01/01/2014 to 18/10/2019 | English | 245 | 18-Oct-19 |
| SCOPUS | ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( prenatal\* ) )  AND   ( ( "probiotic\*" )  OR  ( "lactobacillus" )  OR  ( "bifidobacter\*" )  OR  ( "saccharomyces" ) ) )  AND  PUBYEAR  >  2016  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( EXACTKEYWORD ,  "Human" ) )  AND  ( LIMIT-TO ( LANGUAGE ,  "English" ) ) | 01/01/2014 to 18/10/2019 | English  Human | 800 | 18-Oct-19 |
| Health Infonet | Probiotics – Publications = 2 reviewing probiotics in otitis media  Probiotics and pregnancy – publications = 0 publications | All dates | None | 0 | 18-Oct-19 |
| Cochrane | ((MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees)  OR (MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees)  OR ‘pregnan\*’)  AND  ((MeSH descriptor: [Probiotics] explode all trees) OR ('probiotic\*') OR ('lactobacillus') OR ('bifidobacter\*') OR ('saccharomyces')) | 01/01/2014-31/12/2019 | Cochrane reviews | 35 | 18-Oct-19 |



PRISMA diagram: Probiotics

### Physical activity advice (research questions 5, 6 and 9)

**Embase:**

('exercise'/exp OR 'exercis\*' OR 'laziness'/de OR 'physical activity'/exp OR 'physical inactivity'/de OR 'physical performance'/de OR 'sedentary lifestyle'/syn) AND ('pregnant woman'/syn OR 'pregnancy'/syn OR 'pregnan\*') AND [english]/lim AND [humans]/lim

1998 to 6/7/18=Results: 11,981

**CINAHL:**

TX ((MH "Therapeutic Exercise") OR (MH "Physical Fitness+") OR (MH "Exercise+") OR ("Physical Activit\*") OR (MH "Physical Activity+") OR (MH "Activities of Daily Living")) )

AND TX ( ((MH "Pregnancy+") OR (Pregnan\*) OR (MM "Pregnancy Outcomes") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+"))

1998 to 6/7/18=Results 7,871

**Pubmed:**

(("Exercise"[Mesh]) OR ("Sedentary Lifestyle"[Mesh])) AND (("Pregnant Women"[Mesh]) OR ("Pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR Pregnan\*)

Humans and English

1998 to 6/7/18=Results=2,177

**Health infonet**

Pregnan\* AND (exercis\* OR (Physical activit\*) OR Lifestyle)

Results=0

Pregnan\* AND exercis\*

Results=0

Pregnancy AND exercise

Results=0

Pregnancy

Results=22 (1 related to sociodemographics of smoking in pregnancy – but no exercise/activity included.)

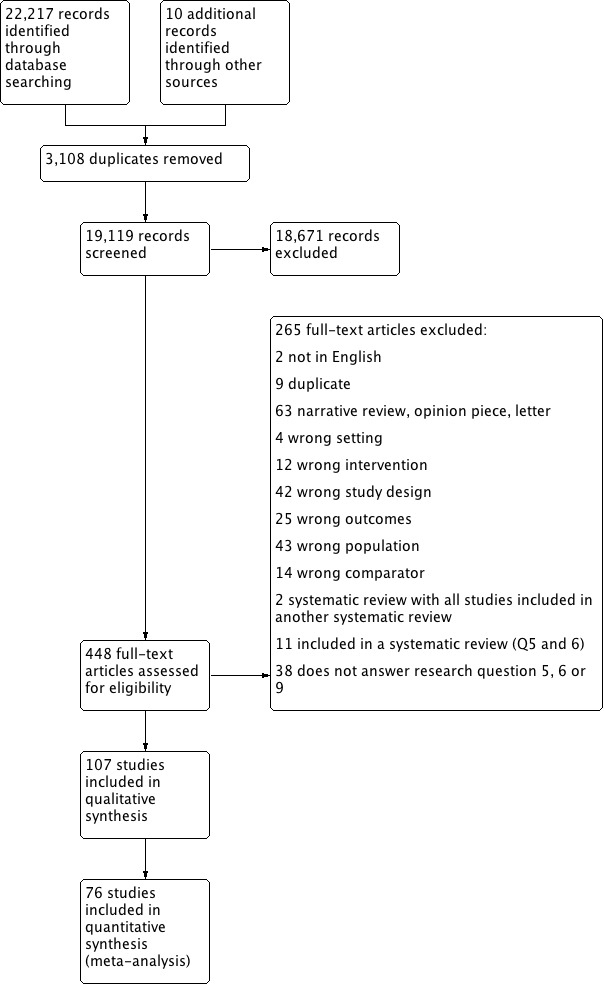
Exercise

1998 to 6/7/18=Results=0

**Cochrane Library**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| #1 | MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees |
| #2 | MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees |
| #3 | Pregnancy |
| #4 | Exercise |
| #5 | MeSH descriptor: [Exercise] explode all trees |
| #6 | (#1 OR #2 OR #3) AND (#4 OR #5) |

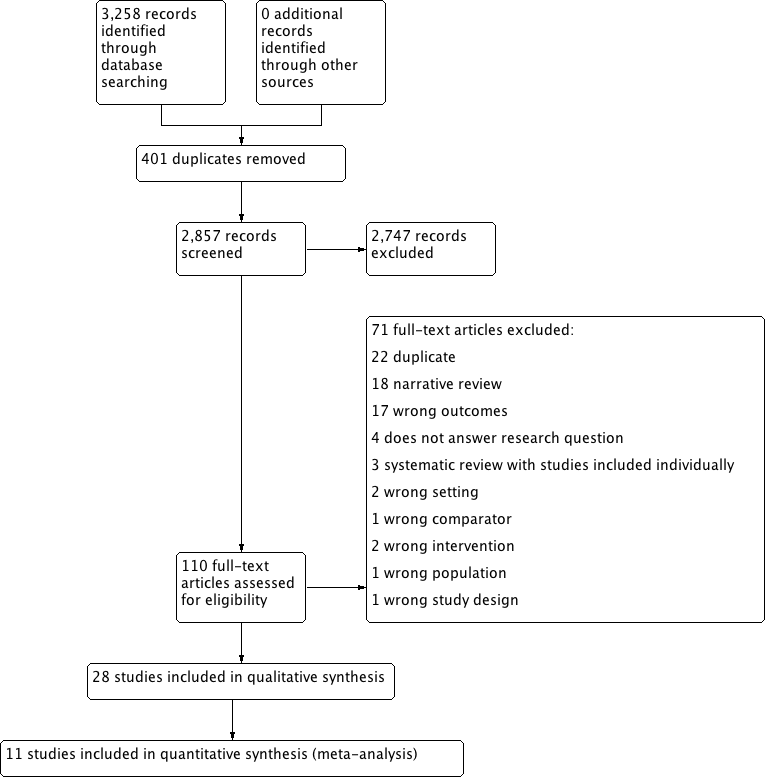
01/01/2016 to 17/08/2018=Review Results 88



PRISMA diagram: physical activity

#### Physical activity top-up search

**Search date: 12 March 2020**



PRISMA diagram: Physical activity top-up

### Weight assessment and management

#### Gestational weight gain (research question 7)

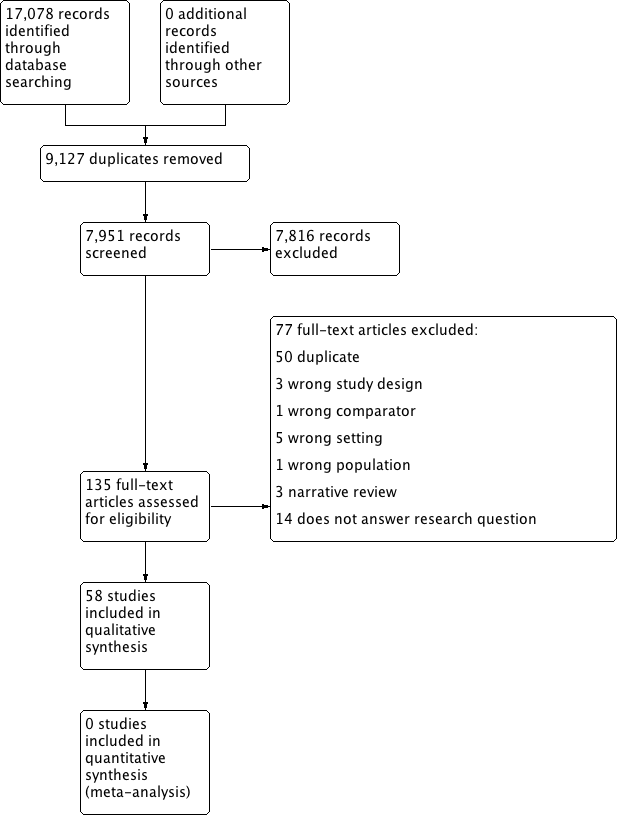
Citation for search strategy used (partial):

Goldstein RF, Abell SK, Ranasinha S, Misso ML, Boyle JA, Harrison CL, Black MH, Li N, Hu G, Corrado F, Hegaard H, Kim YJ, Haugen M, Song WO, Kim MH, Bogaerts A, Devlieger R, Chung JH, Teede HJ. **Gestational weight gain across continents and ethnicity: systematic review and meta-analysis of maternal and infant outcomes in more than one million women.** BMC Med. 2018 Aug 31;16(1):153.

**Current search dates:**

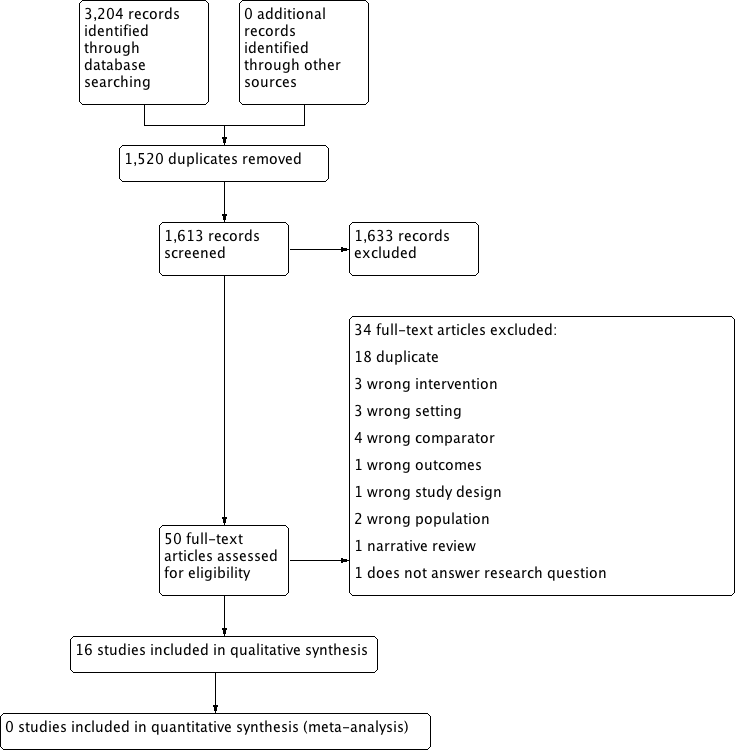
2014-9-Apr-19

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | (("Weight Gain"[Mesh]) OR (("weight" w1 ("gain" OR "change")))) AND (("pregnancy"[Mesh]) OR ("Pregnan\*" OR "Gestation\*")) | 1-Jan-2014 to 31-Dec-2019 | Human | 1378 | 9-Apr-19 |
| Ovid medline | Weight Gain/ or (weight adj1 (Gain or Change)).mp.  AND  Pregnancy/ or Pregnan\*.mp. or Gestation\*.mp. | 2014-Current | English Language  Human | 2348 | 9-Apr-19 |
| Embase\* | ('gestational weight gain'/exp OR (weight NEXT/2 (change OR gain))) AND ('pregnancy'/exp OR pregnan\* OR gestat\*) AND [english]/lim AND [humans]/lim AND [2014-2019]/py | 2014-7-Apr-19 | English  Human | 5942 | 7-Apr-19 |
| CINAHL | "TX ( ((MM "Gestational Weight Gain") OR ("weight" W1 ("change" OR "gain")) ) AND TX ( ((MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "Pregnancy Trimesters+") OR (MM "Prenatal Nutritional Physiology") OR (MM "Prenatal Exposure Delayed Effects") OR ("Pregnan\*") OR (Gestation\*)) ) Published Date: 20140101-20191231; Human on 2019-04-06 11:48 PM" | Jan-2014-7-Apr-19 | English  Human | 1916 | 7-Apr-19 |
| SCOPUS\*\* | ((TITLE-ABS-KEY((("Pregnan\*") OR ("prenatal\*") OR ("gestation\*"))) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY((("Weight") W/1  (("gain") OR ("change"))))) AND PUBYEAR > 2013) | 2014-2019 | Human  English | 4151 | 7-Apr-19 |
| Health Infonet | Pregnancy Weight | 2014-2019 | None | 1 | 8-Apr-19 |
| Cochrane | Date Run: 09/04/2019 04:43:16  ID Search Hits  #1 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees 200  #2 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees 7229  #3 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees 200  #4 #1 OR #2 OR #3 OR (Pregnan\*) 58956  #5 MeSH descriptor: [Body Weight Changes] explode all trees 7655  #6 #5 OR (Weight NEAR/1 (Gain OR Change)) 18550  #7 #4 AND #6 with Cochrane Library publication date Between Jan 2014 and Dec 2019 1346 | Jan2014-Dec 2019 | None | 1346 | 9-Apr-19 |



PRISMA diagram: gestational weight gain

#### Gestational weight gain top-up search

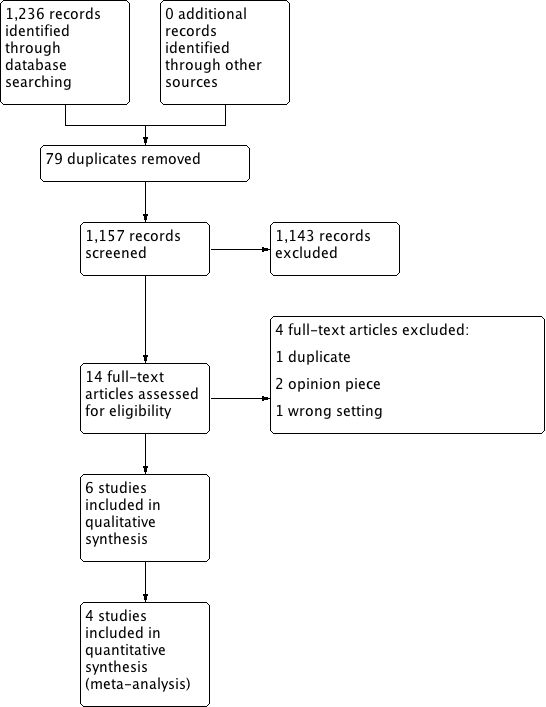


PRISMA diagram: gestational weight gain top-up

#### Weight monitoring (question 7)

Current search dates: 2-Dec-19

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed | “Pregnancy” Mesh  “prenatal care”Mesh  "pregnan\*" OR "antepart\*" OR "prenatal\*" OR "antenatal\*" OR "obstetric\*" OR "maternal\*"  1 OR 2 OR 3  "routine weight\*" OR "routinely weight\*" OR "regular\* weight\*" OR "repeat\* weight\*"  4 AND 5 | 1-Jan-2014 to 2-Dec-19 | Human  English | 1087\* | 2-Dec-19 |
| Ovid medline | Exp pregnancy/  Exp prenatal care/  (pregnan\* or antepart\* or prenatal\* or antenatal\* or obstetric\* or maternal\*).mp.  1 or 2 or 3  ((routine\* or regular\* or repeat\*) adj3 weigh\*).mp.  4 and 5 | 1 Jan 2014 to 2-Dec-19 | English Language | 61 | 2-Dec-19 |
| Embase\* | 'pregnancy'/exp  'prenatal care'/exp  (pregnan\* OR antepart\* OR prenatal\* OR antenatal\* OR obstetric\* OR maternal\*)  #1 OR #2 OR #3  (routine\* OR regular\* OR repeat\*) NEXT/3 weigh\*  #4 AND #5 | 1 Jan 2014 to 2-Dec-2019 | English  Human | 86 | 2-Dec-19 |
| CINAHL | (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "pregnancy care+")  (pregnan\* or antepart\* or prenatal\* or antenatal\* or obstetric\* or maternal\*)  S1 OR S2  ((routine\* or regular\* or repeat\*) N3 weigh\*)  S3 AND S4 | 01-jan-2014 to 31-dec-2019 | English | 69 | 2-Dec-2019 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  OR  ( "antepart\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  OR  ( "antenatal\*" )  OR  ( "obstetric\*" )  OR  ( "maternal\*" ) )  AND  ( ( "routine\*" )  OR  ( "routine\*" )  OR  ( "repeat\*" )  W/3  "weigh\*" ) ) | 2014-2019 | Human  English | 78 | 2-Dec-19 |
| Health Infonet | Title and Policies: weigh\* | All | None | 0 | 2-Dec-2019 |
| Cochrane | MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees  MeSH descriptor: [Prenatal Care] explode all trees  ((pregnan\* or antepart\* or prenatal\* or antenatal\* or obstetric\* or maternal\*)):ti,ab,kw  #1 or #2 or #3  ((routine\* or regular\* or repeat\*) next/3 weigh\*)  #4 AND #5 | 2014 to 2019 | None | 2 | 2-Dec-19 |

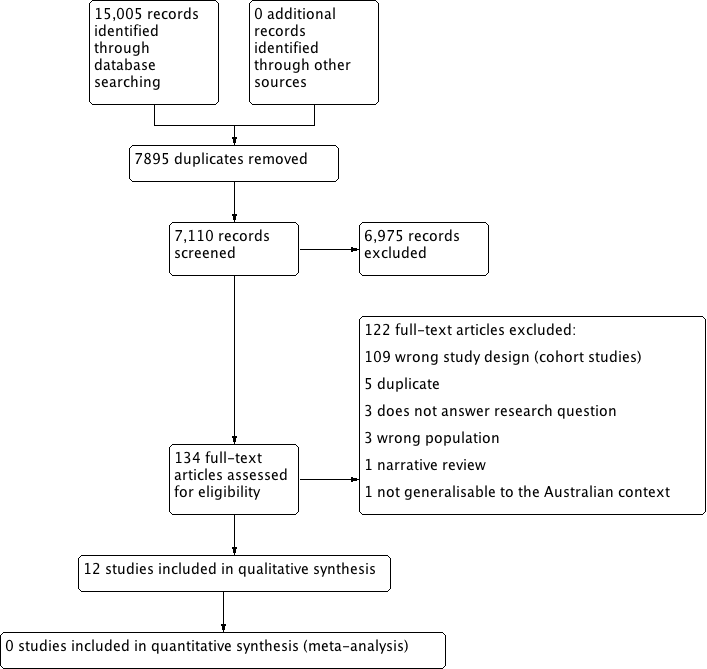


PRISMA diagram: weight monitoring

#### Risk assessments for women with low or high BMI (question 8)

**Current search dates: All to 28-feb-20**

| **Database** | **Search Strategy** | **Dates Searched** | **Limits set** | **Results** | **Date of search** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Pubmed  \*Issues due to lack of proximity syntax | “Pregnancy” Mesh  “prenatal care”Mesh  "pregnan\*" OR "antepart\*" OR "prenatal\*" OR "antenatal\*" OR "obstetric\*" OR "maternal\*"  1 OR 2 OR 3  “Thinness”[Mesh]  ("low\* BMI" OR "low\* body mass index" OR "underweight" OR "under weight" OR "low\* weight")  5 OR 6  4 AND 7 | All | English Language  Humans | 1743 | 28-Feb-20 |
| Ovid medline | Exp pregnancy/  Exp prenatal care/  (pregnan\* or antepart\* or prenatal\* or antenatal\* or obstetric\* or maternal\*).mp.  1 or 2 or 3  exp Thinness/  ("low\* BMI" or "low\* body mass index" or "underweight" or "under weight" or "low\* weight").mp  5 OR 6  4 and 7 | All | English Language  Humans | 2744 | 28-Feb-20 |
| Embase\* | 'pregnancy'/exp OR 'prenatal care'/exp OR ((pregnan\* OR antepart\* OR prenatal\* OR antenatal\* OR obstetric\* OR maternal\*) AND ti,ab,kw)  'underweight'/exp OR ((low\* NEXT/1 weigh\*):ti,ab,kw) OR ((low\* NEXT/2 bmi):ti,ab,kw) OR underweight:ti,ab,kw OR ((under NEXT/1 weigh\*):ti,ab,kw) OR ((low\* NEXT/2 'body mass index'):ti,ab,kw)  #1 AND #7 | All | English Language  Humans | 2537 | 28-Feb-20 |
| CINAHL | (MH "Pregnancy+") OR (MH "pregnancy care+")  (pregnan\* or antepart\* or prenatal\* or antenatal\* or obstetric\* or maternal\*)  S1 OR S2  (MM "Thinness")  TX ( ((“low\* N0 weigh\*”) OR (“low\* N0 BMI”) OR “underweight” OR (“Under N0 weigh\*”) OR (“low\*” N1 (“body mass index”)) )  S3 AND (S5 OR S6) | All | English Language | 3111 | 28-Feb-20 |
| SCOPUS | TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( ( "pregnan\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  OR  ( "antepart\*" )  OR  ( "prenatal\*" )  OR  ( "antenatal\*" )  OR  ( "obstetric\*" )  OR  ( "maternal\*" ) )  AND  TITLE-ABS-KEY ( ( "low\* PRE/0 weigh\*" )  OR  ( "low\* PRE/0 BMI" )  OR  ( "underweight" )  OR  ( "Under PRE/0 weigh\*" )  OR  ( "low\*"  PRE/1  ( "body mass index" ) ) ) | All | English Language  human | 2573 | 28-Feb-20 |
| Health Infonet | Title and Policies: weigh\* | All | - | 7 | 28-Feb-20 |
| Cochrane | Date Run: 28/02/2020 04:02:34  Comment:  ID Search Hits  #10 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnancy] explode all trees 7585  #11 MeSH descriptor: [Prenatal Care] explode all trees 1395  #12 MeSH descriptor: [Pregnant Women] explode all trees 239  #13 (('pregnan\*') or ('antepart\*') or ('prenatal\*') or ('antenatal\*') or ('obstetric\*') or ('maternal\*)) 91470  #14 (('low\*') NEXT/1 ('weigh\*')) 1165  #15 (('low\*') NEXT/1 ('BMI')) 698  #16 ('underweight') 975  #17 (('Under') NEXT/1 ('weigh\*')) 67  #18 (('low\*') NEXT2 (('body') NEXT1 ('mass') NEXT1 ('index'))) 302  #19 MeSH descriptor: [Thinness] explode all trees 284  #20 #10 OR #11 OR #12 OR #13 91615  #21 #14 OR #15 OR #16 OR #17 OR #18 OR #19 3311  #22 #20 AND #21 in Cochrane Reviews 224 | All | Cochrane trials | 224 | 28-Feb-20 |

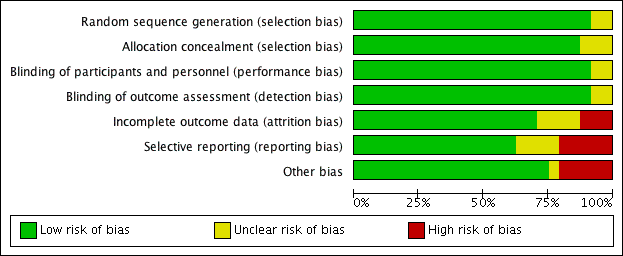


PRISMA diagram: Risk assessment

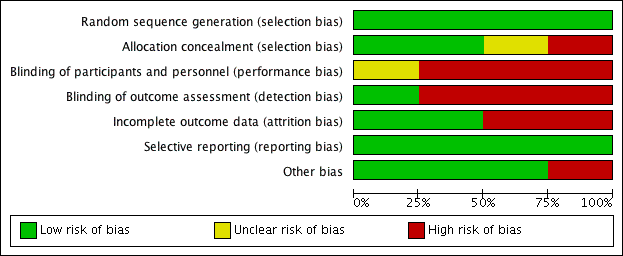
## B Assessment of risk of bias in randomised controlled trials

* *Selection bias*: Studies were considered at low risk of selection bias if the process of randomised sequence generation and allocation concealment was described, at unclear risk if this process was not described and at high risk if sequence generation was not randomised (eg alternate allocation) and/or allocation was not concealed.
* *Performance bias:* Studies were considered at low risk of performance bias if participants were blinded to allocation group, at unclear risk if blinding of participants was not described and at high risk if the study stated that participants were not blinded.
* *Detection bias*: Studies were considered at low risk of detection bias if outcome assessors were blinded to allocation group, at unclear risk if blinding of assessors was not described and at high risk if the study stated that assessors were not blinded.
* *Attrition bias*: Studies were considered at low risk of attrition bias if reasons were given for loss to follow-up, attrition was low and loss to follow-up was balanced between groups, at unclear risk if this could not be determined and at high risk if attrition was high and/or unbalanced between groups.
* *Reporting bias*: Studies were considered at low risk of reporting bias if all pre-specified outcomes were reported, at unclear risk if the study protocol was not available and at high risk if reporting of some outcomes and not others was incomplete or absent.
* *Other potential sources of bias*: Significant differences in participants at baseline was considered another source of bias.

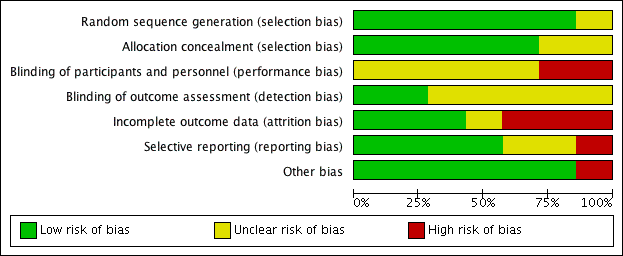
1. Summary of risk of bias across studies — probiotics



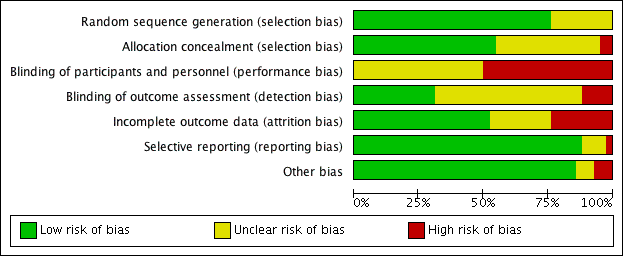
1. Summary of risk of bias across studies — weighing



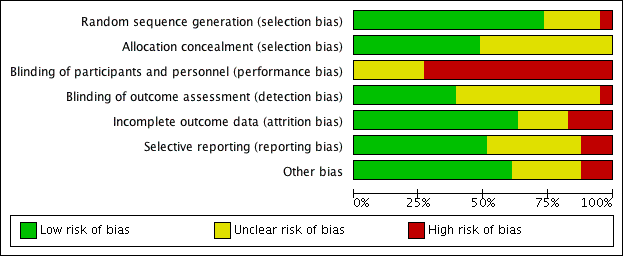
1. Summary of risk of bias across studies — dietary interventions



1. Summary of risk of bias across studies — exercise interventions



1. Summary of risk of bias across studies — lifestyle counselling interventions



### Probiotics studies

| **Study limitation** | **Judgement** | **Support for judgement** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Callaway et al 2019228** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Participants were randomised using computer-generated random number codes sealed in opaque envelopes. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Matching placebo and probiotic capsules were identically packaged in the RBWH pharmacy by independent pharmacists. |
| Performance bias | Low risk | All study staff and participants were blinded to the randomised allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Gille et al 2016229** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation was performed with the use of a computer-generated random number list. Subjects were allocated to study arms with the use of simple block randomisation. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The placebo was matched to the study drug for taste, colour, and size and was not distinguishable from treatment, neither by visual inspection nor by taste. |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Recruiting gynaecologists and study centre (administering treatment), subjects, and study centre personnel including the analysing microbiologist (evaluating the response to treatment) were all blinded to group assignment until study completion and final analyses (ie, triple-blind design). |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Ho et al 2016230** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The trial patients were doubled-blind computerized randomised by the hospital pharmacy. Each woman was assigned a number. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Identical looking probiotic and placebo capsules were prepared and distributed in numbered containers by the pharmacy. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and attrition similar between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Husain et al 2019231** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The random allocation sequence was generated based on permuted blocks of random block sizes of four, six, and eight, stratified by participating site and without adaptive or minimisation strategies. Allocation was done on a 1:1 ratio. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The sequence was given to a trial support company, Sharp Clinical Services (SCS, Crickhowell, Wales), which labelled and packaged the probiotic and placebo capsules into identical tamper-proof boxes for the study. Only the trial statistician and SCS were aware of the allocation sequence |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Participants, investigators, and analysing microbiologists were blinded to the study grouping. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Okesene-Gafa et al 2019232** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Eligible women were allocated randomly by the research midwife using a web-based randomisation program using random permuted blocks of 4-8 participants, stratified by BMI (30 to < 35 or 35 kg/ m2 ). |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Christian Hansen (Chr. Hansen A/S, Horsholm, Denmark) provided identically packaged canisters containing either probiotic or placebo capsules. AnQual Laboratories (School of Pharmacy, University of Auckland) labelled the canisters using a pre-allocated random list that was password protected. |
| Performance bias | Low risk | Participants, researchers, and data analysts were blinded to probiotic and placebo allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Olsen et al 2018235** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | An online randomisation site was utilised to create a table which randomised 100 potential participants |
| Allocation concealment | HIgh risk | Allocation was not concealed |
| Performance bias | High risk | Participants and researchers were not blinded. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | The pathologists were blinded to the research group allocation of the participants. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Pellonpera et al 2019233** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The stratified randomisation was performed with random permuted blocks of four, and randomisation lists of the three blocks were generated by a statistician who was not involved in either study recruitment or its execution. Women were assigned to the intervention groups according to the randomisation list in their order of recruitment on the first study visit. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Placebo for the probiotics consisted of microcrystalline cellulose; the capsules were identical to the probiotic capsules in size, shape, and colour. |
| Performance bias | Low risk | The staff responsible for enrolment of participants, study visits, and assessing outcomes remained blinded to the intervention, as were the participants. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Sharpe et al 2019234** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation was conducted by an independent statistician at Ryerson University using a computer-generated schedule at random.org and an allocation ratio of 1:1 and each of the 19 participating practices received a different list of 10 randomised numbers. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | At each clinic, the midwife treating each eligible and consenting client assigned the next available sequentially numbered capsule container. |
| Performance bias | Low risk | The researchers, practice research collaborators, midwives, and participants were blinded to study allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for loss to follow-up reported and similar attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | The gestational age at birth was significantly higher in the probiotic group than the placebo group (p=0.01). |

### Weight assessment studies

| **Study limitation** | **Judgement** | **Support for judgement** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Brownfoot et al 2016**383 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | ‘The randomisation sequence was generated by an independent organisation.’ |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | ‘Sealed opaque envelopes.’ Ideally should be sequentially numbered sealed opaque envelopes (which they probably were) |
| Performance bias | High risk | Limitations of our study included an inability to blind participants and their treating team due to the nature of the intervention. All the women recruited and clinicians knew the intervention was weighing and the control group was aware of the IOM guideline on weight gain in pregnancy, which is readily available. |
| Detection bias | High risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | ‘Our loss to follow up rate was low at 5% and occurred primarily due to transfer of obstetric care to another provider. Importantly, there were no differences in BMI category, age or parity in those lost to follow up.’ Loss to follow-up is not clear and likely to be closer to 18%. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Prespecified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | There were no significant differences in baseline characteristics between intervention and control groups. |
| **Daley et al 2015**386 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The randomisation list was generated by the trial statistician, independent from researchers involved in recruiting and randomising participants. Participants were randomised on a 1:1 basis to intervention or usual care using random permuted blocks of mixed size (2, 4 or 6) within strata (midwife). |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The researcher allocated women by opening sequentially numbered opaque sealed envelopes. The researcher opened the envelope after eligibility assessment. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Because of the nature of the intervention, participants, researchers and those delivering the intervention could not be blinded to group allocation. |
| Detection bias | High risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | ‘Our loss to follow up rate was low at 5% and occurred primarily due to transfer of obstetric care to another provider. Importantly, there were no differences in BMI category, age or parity in those lost to follow up.’ |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Prespecified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | Baseline characteristics were balanced between intervention and control groups with the exception of ethnicity and null parity where there was an imbalance. |
| **Daley et al 2019**387 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The randomisation list was created by an independent statistician using nQuery Advisor V.7.0. Randomisation was stratified by BMI category at recruitment (healthy weight/overweight/obese) and recruitment site. Participants were individually randomised using random permuted blocks of mixed size (2, 4 or 6). |
| Allocation concealment | High risk | Due to the nature of the intervention, it was not possible to blind participants or community midwives to the intervention. |
| Performance bias | High risk |
| Detection bias | Low risk | The trial statistician remained blinded to group allocation until completion of analyses. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | High attrition in both groups: 24% in intervention group and 22% in control group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |

### Dietary intervention studies

| **Study limitation** | **Judgement** | **Support for judgement** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Abdel-Aziz et al 2018400** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation was performed using a computer-generated randomisation allocation table by the researcher without involvement in the study design. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | “During follow-up, 10 women were lost to follow-up, six were unable to be contacted during pregnancy, and 15 cases were excluded (six miscarried, four abortion, and five stillbirth cases). Finally, data were analysed from 147 pregnant women; 75 from the intervention group and 72 from the control group.” Does not describe whether women lost to follow-up were from the intervention or control group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant difference between groups at baseline. |
| **Di Carlo 2014**401 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | ”Randomly allocated“ in 1:1 ratio. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | ” ...attached a sequentially numbered, opaque sealed and stapled envelope containing the allocation treatment to the patient clinical record.“ |
| Performance bias | High risk | Participants not blinded due to nature of intervention. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | ”The allocation sequence was concealed from the researchers.“ |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 22% of participants were excluded due to miscarriages (9 vs 8 in diet and control groups respectively), loss to follow-up (6 vs 7) and preterm births (3 vs 1). ”Analysis was performed per protocol“ but protocol deviations and individual denominators were not reported. |
| Selective reporting | High risk | Per protocol data reported with individual denominators missing from most results. Results not adjusted for baseline difference in maternal age (older in the intervention group). |
| Other limitations | High risk | Baseline difference in age of women (average of 3 years older in intervention group). |
| **Laitinen et al 2009**240 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Women were randomly assigned to 3 study groups according to computer-generated block randomisation. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Using sealed envelopes. At the 1st study visit the envelopes were opened. The random allocation sequence was thus concealed until interventions were assigned |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Probiotics/placebo were double-blind in the intervention groups but single blind in the control group. Blinding of intervention group (ie diet counselling vs no diet counselling) not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | No loss to follow-up (to delivery). |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | The outcomes reported as in the published protocol. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No other bias apparent. |
| **Simmons et al 2017**402 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation to either HE+PA, HE, PA, or UC (Fig. 1) was performed using a computerized electronic random number generator, prestratified for site. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The trial coordinator (D.S.) prepared and distributed sealed opaque envelopes, containing group allocations to each site. The allocation outcome was communicated to the participants by the coach. |
| Performance bias | High risk | The staff involved with measurements, but not the participants, were kept unaware of the intervention. Statistical analyses were performed blinded for allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Data were analysed according to intention to treat and according to an a priori statistical analysis plan. Differences between subjects withdrawing from the study and those who stayed in the study were assessed. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Thornton et al 2009**403 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Random number table. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Sealed sequentially numbered envelopes (no comment re: opaque/not opaque) |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Blinding not detailed and considered unlikely particularly for women and personnel in view of the intervention |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | As above |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | 25/257 lost to follow-up (8/124 in the intervention group and 17/133 in the control group; some suggestion of greater loss in control group) |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | While most of pre-specified outcomes discussed in the methods were subsequently reported, no access to a trial protocol to confidently assess selective reporting. Some outcomes, eg shoulder dystocia, were mentioned and then not reported |
| Other limitations | Low risk | Groups appeared balanced at baseline for demographic data although women in the control group were heavier and had higher BMI at baseline (P=0.06). No other obvious sources of bias |
| **Walsh et al 2012**405,406 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated random sequence was used. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Sealed, opaque envelopes were used. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Blinding not detailed, and considered unlikely particularly for women and personnel in view of the intervention. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for losses to follow up were documented and similar between groups (10 women in each group ’opted out’; 1 in each group discontinued the intervention; 2 women in each group were found to have twins; 9women in the intervention group and 6 in the control group had early pregnancy losses). Therefore 759 (372 in the intervention group and 387 in the control group) of the 800 (95%) women randomised were included in the final analyses |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Outcomes reported as per published trial registration and/or protocol (across a number of separate manuscripts). Data for mode of birth were not reported in Walsh et al. 2012, and for caesarean rate no data were presented: “We found no significant difference in the rate of caesarean delivery between the two groups”; however data were reported in Walsh et al. 2015. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Wolff et al 2008**404 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Computerised randomisation. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | No details provided. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | The women and dietitians were not blinded. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Quote: “The physicians and midwives were blinded in regard to the treatment assignment, and the women were asked not to reveal the allocation by the randomization”; unclear whether this was successfully achieved. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 73 women were recruited to the study; 7 developed“ conditions that made them ineligible to continue participation” (spontaneous abortion, twin pregnancy, smoker, bedridden, diagnosis of GDM at inclusion). It was somewhat unclear whether these exclusions were pre or post randomisation; the unbalanced groups (n=28 and n=38 suggested this was following randomisation). A further 13women dropped out of the study due to lack of time, or disappointment due to being in the control group. 3 additional women developed GDM in the control group were excluded from the analyses (apart from GDM incidence). 50 women were followed to delivery (23 in the intervention group; 27 in the control group). There were missing data for blood samples (3/50), and weight measurements (15/50) postpartum; “The analyses were subsequently controlled for impact of missing values by replacing these with average of the entire group to ensure that the statistical test did not differ, significantly”. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Whilst the majority of pre-specified outcomes discussed in the methods were subsequently reported, no access to a trial protocol to confidently assess selective reporting. Some outcomes, e.g. shoulder dystocia, were mentioned and then not reported |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No other obvious sources of bias identified. |

### Exercise intervention studies

| **Study limitation** | **Judgement** | **Support for judgement** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Aguilar-Cordero et al 2019447** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The sample was randomly assigned using a probabilistic technique without replacement. Each woman who met the inclusion criteria was given a numbered ticket by the researcher responsible for recruitment. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The numbers assigned were placed inside an urn, from which the principal investigator of the clinical trial extracted the first 70 numbers, which were assigned to the intervention group. The next 70 numbers were assigned to the control group. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Open label. |
| Detection bias | High risk | Open label. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | After the delivery, six women in the control group (CG) and five in the exercise group (EG)could not be contacted to complete the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) questionnaire. Thus, the final study sample was composed of 65 women in the EG and 64 in the CG, all aged between 21 and 43 years. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Bacchi et al 2018**425 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used to allocate the participants into the 2 study groups (1:1 ratio) according to admission order and following the randomization list. To guarantee the concealment for the randomization procedure, each sequential number corresponded to a sealed opaque envelope containing information about the study group (exercise or control). |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The treatment allocation system was set up so that the researcher who was in charge of randomly assigning participants to each group did not know in advance which treatment the next person would receive, a process termed “allocation concealment.” Allocation concealment prevents researchers from (unconsciously or otherwise) influencing which participants are assigned to a given intervention group. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of the study to the randomisation arm was impossible due to the characteristics of intervention program (physical exercise). |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | No discussion of whether those assessing outcomes were blinded to allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Unbalanced losses; 21 women (30%) in the EG were lost to follow up or excluded. A total of 8 (11%) participants in the CG were excluded from the study. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Baciuk et al 2008**292,312 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Volunteers were enrolled sequentially and randomised to one of the two study groups. Each sequential number corresponded to a sealed opaque envelope containing the information on the randomisation group, according to a previously prepared computer-generated randomisation list of numbers, in order to guarantee the concealment. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk |
| Blinding | High risk | Due to the nature of the study participants were not blinded. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | No discussion of whether those assessing outcomes were blinded to allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Outcome data at time of birth included for all participants in control group and 97% of participants in the intervention group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2009**293,303,313 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Women were randomly assigned to either a training (n=80) or a control group (n=80). No further details provided. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The treatment allocation system was set up so that the researcher who was in charge of randomly assigning participants to each group did not know in advance which treatment the next person would receive. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Single blind. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Research assistants were blinded to group assignment. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 11.25%; 8 (10%) women in the intervention group discontinued the intervention. 10 (12.5%) of women in the control group were lost to follow-up or discontinued participation. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2012a**426,454 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 17%; 10 women (20%) from the intervention group and 7 (14%) women from the control group were not included in the final analysis; reasons provided. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | There was a significant difference in levels of maternal education between groups at baseline. |
| **Barakat et al 2012b**427,533 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | To allocate participants, a computer-generated list of random numbers was used. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | High risk | Not blinded for participants. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | No discussion of whether those assessing outcomes were blind to allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 9%; 22 women (14%) from the intervention group and 8 (5%) women from the control group were not included in the final analysis; reasons provided. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2013**428 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The participant randomisation assignment followed an allocation concealment process, that is, the researcher in charge of randomly assigning participants did not know in advance which treatment the next person would receive and did not participate in the assessments. |
| Blinding | High risk | Participants were explicitly informed on the group to which they were assigned as well as on the study hypotheses and were reminded not to discuss their randomisation assignments with assessment staff. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Assessment staff was blinded to the participant randomisation assignment. Owing to the nature of the study, it was not possible to conceal the group assignment from the staff involved in exercise training sessions. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 16%; 45 women (18%) from the intervention group and 37 women (14.5%) from the control group were not included in the final analysis; reasons provided. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2014b**429 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | For allocation of the participants, a computer-generated list of random numbers was used. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 20%; 21 women (22%) from the intervention group and 21 women (18%) from the control group were not included in the final analysis; reasons provided. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2016**430 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The participant randomization assignment followed an allocation concealment process using a random numbers table. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Assessment staff members were blinded to assignment. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Overall attrition 9%; 38 women (9%) from the intervention group and 37 women (9%) from the control group were not included in the final analysis; reasons provided. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Barakat et al 2018**294 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used to allocate the participants into the study groups. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The treatment allocation system was set up so that the researcher who was in charge of randomly assigning participants to each group did not know in advance which treatment the next person would receive. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | In the intervention group, 51 women were lost to follow-up and 53 were excluded as they had a caesarean section. In the control group, 28 women were lost to follow-up and 51 were excluded due to caesarean section. Reasons for loss to follow-up included. ITT and per protocol analysis included. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Bisson et al 2015**269 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation was stratified according to parity and based on a computer-generated random numbers table. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Sealed envelopes were kept in a secure place by a research assistant not involved in the study and provided to a kinesiologist at the time of allocation. |
| Blinding | High risk | Due to the nature of the intervention, kinesiologists in charge of training and participants were not blinded to group assignment. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | No discussion of whether those assessing outcomes were blinded to allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | One participant in the intervention group withdrew after randomisation (lack of time). Two participants withdrew from the control group after randomisation (unsatisfied with group allocation). No ITT analysis but bias unlikely. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Cordero et al 2015**431 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Overall attrition 25%; In the intervention group, 2 women were lost to follow-up and 19 discontinued the intervention (17%). In the control group, 43 women were lost to follow-up and 21 withdrew from the study (29%). No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | All pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **da Silva et al 2017**432 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Participants were assigned to either an exercise or control group using a computerized random-number generator. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The staff involved with exercise intervention or outcome assessments had no influence on the randomisation procedure. |
| Blinding | High risk | The nature of this trial meant that participants and staff were not masked to the type of intervention. However, the principal researcher was not involved in the exercise training and analyses were performed blinded for group allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | The assessors of the primary study outcomes were blinded. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | ITT and per protocol analysis included. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Daly et al 2017**433 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The randomisation sequence was computer-generated by an independent statistician and was stratified by parity and World Health Organization BMI category. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Sequentially numbered opaque sealed envelopes were prepared by an independent research administrator. Women were randomized by another independent research administrator into either the exercise intervention or control arm. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | The clinical teams caring for the women were blinded to the randomisation result. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | 11 women were excluded or lost to follow-up in the intervention group and 8 in the control group. ITT analysis conducted. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **de Oliveria Melo et al 2012**270 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation sequence was generated in blocks of 10 using the Random Allocation software program 1.0 by another investigator who did not participate directly in the study. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | This investigator also prepared the sealed opaque envelopes containing the randomization group for each participant. Group assignment was defined only after the woman had agreed to participate in the study, thus guaranteeing that allocation remained concealed until the participant had been admitted to the trial. |
| Blinding | High risk | This was an open study because it was impossible to blind the investigators and the research participants. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | The investigators involved in monitoring the ultrasound variables and in the statistical analysis were unaware of the group to which the patient had been assigned. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced losses between group. ITT analysis conducted. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Dekker Nitert et al 2015**448 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Women were randomised to the intervention or standard care arm by random number allocation through an external service |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | No loss to follow-up reported |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Levels of physical activity were low and women randomised to the control group also increased their level of physical activity, which further reduces the power of the study to detect differences. |
| **Garnæs et al 2016**304,314,315,537 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Participants were randomly allocated 1:1 to the intervention or the control group. Allocation was done using a computer random number generator developed and administrated at the Unit for Applied Clinical Research, NTNU. The randomization had varying block sizes, with the first, the smallest, and the largest block defined by the computer technician at the Unit for Applied Clinical Research. |
| Allocation concealment | High risk | The investigators enrolling the patients (K. K. G. and T. M.) got the allocation results on screen and by e-mail after registration of each new participant into the study and did not have the full randomization list available. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Weight measurement at delivery and blood analyses were done by personnel blinded for group allocation. All other assessments and intervention administration were done non-blinded. The statistician conducting the statistical analyses was blinded for group allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | The trial and the principal analyses were based on intention to treat. All available data were used at all time points. We also performed, as described in the original protocol, per protocol analyses including only the women in the exercise group who adhered to the exercise protocol |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Garshasbi & Faghih Zadeh 2005**434 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Using sealed envelopes, the women who accepted the offer were randomized into two groups |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | “Fifty-four women in the exercise group were excluded due to exclusion criteria of study” |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Guelfi et al 2016**271 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Eligible women were randomized using a custom-designed computer program on a dedicated laptop that stratified by body mass index (calculated as weight (kg)/[height (m)]2, less than 30, 30–34.9, or greater than 35) and maternal age (younger than or 35 years or older). |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced losses. Statistical analysis was conducted based on intention-to-treat using SPSS. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Haakstad & Bo 2011**278,435,538 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Used “a simple (not block) computerised randomisation programme” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | An independent person...assigned the participants to either an exercise group or a control group. |
| Blinding | High risk | Participant blinding not possible. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Principal investigator was blinded to group allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Drop-out rates of 19% and 21% in exercise and control arms, respectively. ITT analysis conducted. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Could not determine. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Denominators in report tables were the total exercise and control group N, despite stating drop-outs in each group of 10 and 11 women, respectively |
| **Hopkins et al 2010**272,540 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | A total of 14 (14.3%) participants (2 from the intervention group [4%] and 12 from the control group [24%]) lost to follow-up during the study period |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Kong et al 2014**449,541 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Participants were randomly assigned to the intervention or control group using a computer-based random number generator (Microsoft Excel 2010, WA) |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Before baseline data collection, all participants and research personnel were blinded to the group allocation. A study coordinator revealed the study groups to women at the baseline data collection visit. |
| Blinding | High risk | Blinding of participants to intervention was not possible due to the nature of the intervention. |
| Detection bias | High risk | Study coordinator not blinded. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced losses between groups. No ITT analysis but likely low risk of bias. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Murtezani et al 2014**436 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The random assignment procedure was performed using random numbers generated by a computer program. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | The data were analysed on an intention to treat basis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Nascimento et al 2011**437 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The pregnant women were randomised to the groups using the SAS statistical program (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA), which generated a list of random numbers based on a uniform distribution. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The sequence was randomly distributed in opaque envelopes, which were sealed and sequentially numbered. Each participant received a sequence number corresponding to a sealed envelope. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | 1 woman in each group withdrew. For neonatal weight outcome, missing data were >20% but similar numbers missing in each group. Authors indicate that this was because some women delivered at other hospitals |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Ong et al 2009**450 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Described as “women were randomly allocated into either an exercise intervention group or a control group”, no other information available |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | No information available on whether outcome assessors were blinded to group allocation or not |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | No losses to follow-up or post randomisation exclusion. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious risk of other bias. |
| **Oostdam et al 2012**438 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Block randomisation, stratified by hospital. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Women were recruited by midwives and gynaecologists who were unaware of the allocation of other women, with no risk of compromising allocation concealment. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | All outcome measures were assessed by independent examiners, unaware of group allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | High dropout rates, especially at 32 weeks (19/62 [31%] did not respond in intervention group and 12/59 [20%] did not respond in control group). For GWG outcome dropout rate was 31% overall |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | Poor adherence to the intervention – ‘only a small proportion (16.3%) of the women in our intervention group attended at least half of the training sessions’ Follow-up weight gain data were collected at 32 weeks (much earlier than most other included studies) |
| **Perales et al 2015a**439 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used to allocate the participants into the groups. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | 10 women were lost to follow-up in each group. 3 women from the intervention group were excluded as they did not meet the minimum attendance requirements. No ITT analysis but likely low risk of bias. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Perales et al 2015b**440 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced losses. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Perales et al 2016a**295 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Losses of 23% in the intervention group and 17% in the control group. No ITT analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Perales et al 2016b**296 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | A computer-generated list of random numbers was used |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | High risk | The study participants and the qualified fitness instructors who supervised the exercise sessions were not blinded to the group allocation |
| Detection bias | High risk | The study participants and the qualified fitness instructors who supervised the exercise sessions were not blinded to the group allocation |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Unbalanced losses; 51% in intervention group and 30% in the control group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Petrov Fieril et al 2015**453 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Participants were randomly assigned to either the intervention group or the control group (allocation ratio 1:1)“, however the group sizes were significantly different (51 vs 41, respectively) |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The research coordinator performed the randomization by using opaque sealed envelopes, which were randomly picked out before the meeting with each participant. |
| Blinding | High risk | Not blinded to participants. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | All data were collected at a primary health care location by an investigator who was blinded to group allocation |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 25% and 18% of participants dropped out of the intervention and control groups, respectively |
| Selective reporting | High risk | Protocol not seen. GWG and EGWG not reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Pinzon et al 2012**441 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The volunteers were randomly allocated to one of two groups, according to admission order, following a computer-generated randomisation list. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | To guarantee concealment for randomisation, each sequential number corresponded to a sealed opaque envelope containing the questionnaires and information regarding the randomization group. |
| Blinding | High risk | Due to the nature of the study, it was not possible to blind the women participating. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Research assistants were blinded to the group assignment of the subjects and were in charge of the prenatal care of the women. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 14 women withdrew early (22%; 9 in study and 5 in control arm) therefore 50/64 women assessed for fitness outcomes. Weight and pregnancy outcome data were only available for 35/64 women (55%; 18 in study and 17 in control group) |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Unable to comment as study protocol not seen. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Price et al 2012**442 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Randomly assigned |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Subjects were randomised using numbered, opaque envelopes containing an equal number of group assignments prepared by the study statistician |
| Blinding | High risk | Participants and personnel not blinded. Author kept a log of attendance and seemed to perform the fitness assessments |
| Detection bias | High risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 12/43 (28%) and 17/48 (35%) dropped out in the intervention and control groups, respectively. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Mean weight gain (12.4 kg vs 10.5 kg in intervention and control groups, respectively) was NR with standard deviations or denominators so these data were not usable in this meta-analysis |
| Other limitations | High risk | Baseline BMI was significantly lower in the intervention group and loss to follow-up was high. Also, ”control subjects were told not to exercise because it would blur the distinction between the groups“. This contributed to high drop out rates in the control group and may make results less generalisable by enforcing no exercise. |
| **Renault et al 2014**451 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | The randomization was stratified according to parity to ensure equal distribution of primiparous in the 3 groups |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Web allocation by an independent organisation properly concealed the procedure |
| Blinding | High risk | Blinding not possible due to the nature of the study. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Assessor blinding not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition rates for most outcomes. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Could not determine. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | Baseline characteristics were comparable. Good compliance. |
| **Ruiz et al 2013**443 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Computer generated. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | 14% attrition overall. 68 women in the control arm and 70 in the intervention arm were lost to follow-up. No protocol deviations |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Seneviratne et al 2016**273 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation sequences were generated by a biostatistician with no clinical involvement in the trial, and were used sequentially according to enrolment order. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Randomisation sequences were stored securely with password protection, and group allocation revealed to participants only after completion of baseline assessments. The recruitment coordinator (responsible for order of enrolment) did not have access to the randomisation tables at any time, maintaining allocation concealment. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Due to the nature of the intervention, participants were un-blinded to group allocation after completion of baseline assessments. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Assessor blinding not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | ITT analysis conducted. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Simmons et al 2017**402 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomization to either HE+PA, HE, PA, or UC (Fig. 1) was performed using a computerized electronic random number generator, prestratified for site. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The trial coordinator (D.S.) prepared and distributed sealed opaque envelopes, containing group allocations to each site. The allocation outcome was communicated to the participants by the coach. |
| Blinding | High risk | The staff involved with measurements, but not the participants, were kept unaware of the intervention. Statistical analyses were performed blinded for allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Data were analysed according to intention to treat and according to an a priori statistical analysis plan. Differences between subjects withdrawing from the study and those who stayed in the study were assessed. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **SongØYgard et al 2012**444 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The women were randomly allocated in blocks of 30 to intervention and control groups following a computerized randomization procedure. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | High risk | Due to the nature of the intervention, participants were not blinded to allocation. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Authors who analysed the data were not involved in the intervention and were blinded to allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Unbalanced high attrition; 11.7% in the intervention group and 20.2% in the control group. Only 57% of women followed the recommended exercise protocol. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Stafne et al 2012**445 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Concealed randomization in blocks of 30 was performed at the Unit for Applied Clinical Research, Norwegian University of Technology and Science, by a Web-based computerized procedure. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The staff involved with training or outcome assessments had no influence on the randomization procedure. |
| Blinding | High risk | Because of the nature of the study it was not blinded. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Analyses of glucose and insulin levels were performed blinded for group allocation; no information on whether outcome assessors for other outcomes were blinded for group allocation |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 18% dropout overall with more dropouts in the control group (24% vs the intervention group 13%) |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | At baseline, women in the intervention group had lower insulin resistance. Women lost to follow-up reported performing less regular exercise before pregnancy than women completing the study |
| **Taniguchi & Sato 2016**299 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “Random sampling” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The researcher handed out sealed, sequentially numbered opaque envelopes in turn. The doctor and clinic staff members were unaware of which groups the participants had been assigned to until the end of the study. |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Six women in the walking group dropped out during the study period as did five women in the control group. Only five (of 54) women completed 100% of the intervention, although 32 completed 80% or more. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Vargas-Terrones et al 2018**446 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “A simple randomisation was performed with the Epidat V.3.1 program to allocate the participants into two groups in order of entry: intervention group (IG) and control group (CG). For this, a computer-generated list of random numbers (n=200) was created through the Epidat option of balanced groups (similar but not of equal size).” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Blinding | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | “Significant differences were found in the percentage of participants who dropped out of the study (χ2=6.72; p=0.01), being 13% (n=7) in the CG compared with 1.4% (n=1) in the IG, based on the data available at 6 weeks postpartum.” |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Wang et al 2017**452 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Women were randomly allocated using an automatic computer-generated random number table. |
| Allocation concealment | High risk | Due to the nature of the intervention, all participants and research staff were aware of the allocations. |
| Blinding | High risk |
| Detection bias | High risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear | High overall attrition (25%). Loss to follow-up was similar in the intervention (25%) and control (24%) groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |

### Lifestyle counselling intervention studies

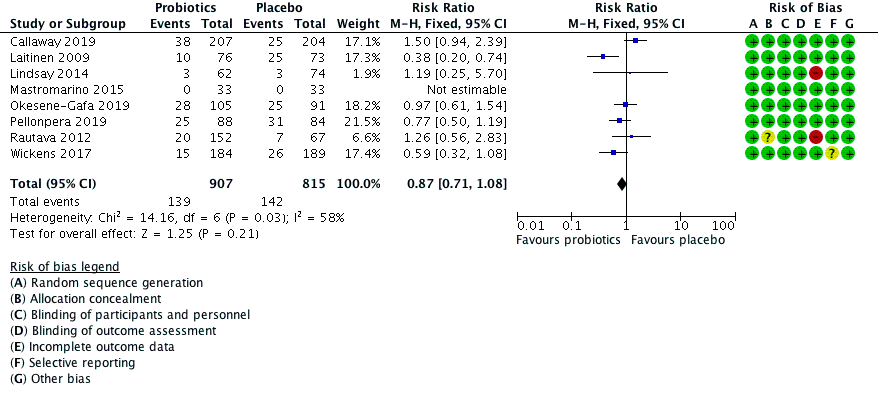
| **Study limitation** | **Judgement** | **Support for judgement** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Altazan et al 2019**507 | | |
| Random sequence generation | High risk | “Random assignment was stratified by enrollment body mass index (BMI) class and was prepared prior to study initiation by the biostatistician who numbered and sealed envelopes until an unblinded staff member could retrieve the appropriate envelope.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | High risk | Research assistants were not blinded to treatment allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Four women dropped due to miscarriage and 7 women did not complete psychological assessments after baseline so 11 women were not included. Of the 11 women, 5 were dropped from the SmartMoms® intervention, and 6 were dropped from the Usual Care group. This meant that 86.5% of women randomised to the intervention group and 65% of women randomised to the control group were included in the analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | All expected outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | “The demographic characteristics of the SmartMoms® Intervention and Usual Care groups were similar with no statistical differences observed between groups at enrolment.” |
| **Althuizen et al 2013485** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “A computerised random number generator drew up an allocation schedule prestratified for midwifery practices.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | High risk | “Participant blinding not possible for the intervention.” |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Research assistants blinded to treatment allocation.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | 11% of participants (17 in intervention and 10 in control group) dropped out during the course of the study. Reasons for loss to follow-up given. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | All expected outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | None noted. Baseline characteristics comparable. |
| **Asbee et al 2009**488 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed using computer-generated random allocation.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Study randomization was numbered and sealed in an opaque envelope. Randomisation occurred in consecutive order at the time of the new obstetrical visit.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Of 144 women randomised, 44 (31%) were excluded after randomisation; therefore 100 (69%) were included in the analyses. It was unclear which groups the excluded women had been randomised to. No other losses to follow-up were reported. |
| Selective reporting | High risk | Outcomes were not clearly pre-specified in the methods (only total GWG and BMI change from pre-pregnancy to before delivery were discussed in the methods). While the results section details secondary outcomes including operative vaginal birth, neonatal weight, pre-eclampsia, GDM, vaginal/perinatal lacerations and shoulder dystocia, no numeric outcome data were reported; quote: “no statistically significant differences were noted between the groups”. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Asci & Rathfisch 2016**489 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “The women were divided into randomized groups by a staff [member] who was not involved in this study, by drawing lots.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | “Participants were blind about which group they were involved in and the evaluated study outcomes.” Not clear how participants could be unaware of the group to which they were allocated. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced attrition between groups. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Bogaerts et al 2013**510 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Randomisation took place by choosing one opaque envelope containing a ticket indicating one of the three groups.” |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition and reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | “Obese women with GDM or preterm delivery, as well as those with missing psychological measurements throughout pregnancy, were not excluded but this was controlled for in the statistical models.” |
| **Bruno et al 2017**499 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “The randomisation list was obtained by computer-generated random allocation with a 1:1 ratio.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “The allocations were sealed in numbered white envelopes, which were kept in the midwifery facility. After eligibility was assessed, a midwife opened the next random envelope.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | The trial was described as open: “Because of the study design, the gynaecologist and the dietitian knew the group allocation of the patient”. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “The obstetrician in charge of the enrolled women was blind to the allocation group. The data regarding the delivery and the newborns were collected from the clinical records by two residents who were blind to the allocation group.” Not clear whether some outcomes (such as GDM and GWG) were able to be assessed blind. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Of 191 women randomised, 131 (69%) women were included in the analyses. Women lost to follow-up were significantly younger, had a lower educational level and were more frequently overweight |
| Selective reporting | High risk | The protocol, published with ClinicalTrials.gov, was modified before the preliminary analyses; the primary outcome was changed, and additional secondary outcomes were included. The reporting of outcomes is incomplete for outcomes such as NICU admission (”were very few and did not differ between the groups“). |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Buckingham-Schutt et al 2019**483 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Some data appear to be missing from the CONSORT diagram. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Chan et al 2018**518 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed through the use of a computer-generated list of random numbers in blocks of 6 by a study coordinator.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Treatment assignments were concealed in consecutively-numbered sealed envelopes, which were opened sequentially upon subject enrollment.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | “The interventionists (the dietitian and the exercise instructor), the participants and the study coordinator were not blinded to the treatment assignment. However, the interventionists did not take any outcome measurements.” |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “All investigators, outcome assessors, clinicians and nurses of routine antenatal and postnatal care were blinded to the treatment assignment.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Loss to follow-up described and reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Dodd et al 2014**501,521,543,544 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “The computer-generated randomisation schedule used balanced variable blocks in the ratio 1:1 and was prepared by an investigator not involved with recruitment or clinical care.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “A research assistant counselled eligible women and then randomised them to receive lifestyle advice or standard care by telephoning the central randomisation service.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Outcome assessors were blinded to the treatment group allocated. After birth, a research assistant not involved in providing the intervention and blinded to treatment allocation obtained information relating to antenatal, birth, and infant outcomes from the case notes.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition (97% women included in the analyses) with reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Data for pre-specified outcomes (according to published trial protocol) were reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Dodd et al 2019484** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “We used a computer-based randomisation service in the Discipline of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, The University of Adelaide. The randomisation schedule used balanced variable blocks with stratification for parity (0 versus 1 or more) and was prepared by an investigator who was not involved with recruitment or clinical care.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | “Blinding of participants was not possible given the nature of the intervention.” |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Where possible, antenatal care-providers, outcome assessors and data analysts were blinded to treatment allocation.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Loss to follow-up described and reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Data for pre-specified outcomes were reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Gallagher et al 2018**502 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | The random allocation sequence was computer generated by the data manager. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | A printed copy was placed in the participant’s chart and the staff completing the randomisation informed the participant immediately in person of group assignment. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Staff involved in collection of measurements were blind to group assignment. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Reasons for attrition between allocation and study visits not given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | All pre-specified outcomes reported |
| Other limitations | High risk | Attendance at exercise classes was extremely poor at 9.7%. |
| **Guelinckx et al 2010**511 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Patients were randomly assigned by using block randomisation.” |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Loss to follow-up 9.7%. Reasons for excluding the participants from each group were similar |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Could not determine. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | Baseline characteristics of participants were similar between intervention and control groups. |
| **Harrison et al 2013**520,545 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Participating women were randomly assigned to intervention or control through computer-generated randomised sequencing.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Allocation concealment was achieved by using sealed opaque envelopes.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Due to the nature of the intervention and control, it was not possible to blind women, though “pedometers were sealed to blind participants to their step count”. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Care providers, investigators, and outcome data analysers were blinded to group allocation; Anthropometric assessment included weight... and height measured by a registered nurse unaware of participant allocation.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition, (86% of intervention group and 92% of the control group analysed) with reasons for loss to follow-up given. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Hawkins et al 2014**503 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “Eligible patients were randomised... by the health educators to either a lifestyle intervention or a standard care group. Randomization was stratified by age (< 30 years, ≥ 30 years) and pre-pregnancy BMI (25-30 kg/m², ≥ 30 kg/m²with a block size of four.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | As above; no further information provided. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Assessments were conducted by telephone, at baseline, mid-pregnancy, and at 6 weeks postpartum by bilingual and bicultural interviewers blinded to the assigned intervention group.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Of the 33 women randomised to the intervention group, 30 (94%), 32 (97%) and 24 (75%) were available for the mid-pregnancy, clinical outcome and postpartum assessments, respectively. Of the 35 women randomised to the control group, 29 (85%), 34 (97%) and 29 (85%) were available for the mid-pregnancy, clinical outcome and postpartum assessments respectively. The losses at mid-pregnancy and postpartum were associated with women being unable to be contacted via telephone; losses for clinical outcomes were associated with women being delivered off-site |
| Selective reporting | High risk | Reporting of GDM is incomplete (only the number of cases across both groups in text) and a very limited number of clinical outcomes are reported |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Hui et al 2012**490 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed using a computer-generated randomisation allocation table by a staff member without involvement in the study design.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “After randomisation, participants received a sealed envelope labelled with the assigned randomisation number, which contained instructions for participants.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | The nature of the study meant that participants and study staff were not blinded to the types of interventions |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Suggestion of differential attrition; 91% of intervention group and 79% of control group included in analysis. Reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Hui et al 2014**491 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed using a computer-generated randomization allocation table by a staff member without involvement in the study design.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “After randomisation participants received a sealed envelope labelled with the assigned randomisation number, which contained instructions for participants.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Authors reported that “the nature of the study meant that participants and study staff were not blinded to the types of interventions”. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Data on delivery route, maternal weight at delivery room, birth weight and birth weight-related obstetric procedures (induction, forceps or caesarean section) were collected from hospital medical charts by student assistants without knowledge in study design.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | “None of the participants discontinued during the participation”. No losses or exclusions. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Jing et al 2015**492 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “The participants were divided according to the sequence of time and randomised numbers produced by SAS version 11.0 (SAS Institute Inc, Raleigh, NC, USA).” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | “Participants and data analysts were masked to group assignment. The investigators were not masked to the assignment so that they could implement the personalised intervention for women in the intervention group.” While authors report women were blinded, blinding of women was not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | “Only women who finished the whole study were included in the analysis.” Suggestion of differential attrition; 88% of intervention group and 81% of control group included in analysis. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Kennelly et al 2018**506 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Randomisation was performed using a computer- generated sequence in a ratio of one to one. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The biostatistician prepared sequentially numbered, sealed opaque envelopes, which were opened at the first study visit. |
| Performance bias | High risk | As a result of the nature of the intervention, neither participants nor researchers were blinded to the intervention or outcomes. |
| Detection bias | High risk |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition; primary outcome data were available for 87% of intervention group and 90% of control group. Reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Kiani-Asiabar et al 2018**498 | | |
| Random sequence generation | High risk | Randomisations were performed using the method of the roll of a die. Those participants with numbers 1 and 2 framed group A; 3 and 4, group B and 5 and 6, group C |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Low attrition; primary outcome data were available for 82% of intervention group A, 84% of intervention Group B and 80% of control group. Reasons given. There is a discrepancy between the flow diagram, text and reporting of outcomes in Group A, with one women apparently lost to follow-up without explanation. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | Data analysis showed no differences between the intervention groups (A and B) and the control group |
| **Koivusalo et al 2016**519 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “In the randomisation process, we used randomly permuted blocks stratified by risk factors (BMI ≥30 kg/m², history of GDM).” Not stated how randomly permuted blocks were generated.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “The randomisation was performed by a study nurse and by dispensing the next sequentially numbered subject code and opening the corresponding code envelope, which included the intervention arm to be assigned to the subject.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Blinded-study physicians reviewed participants’ obstetric records and confirmed maternal and neonatal diagnosis.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition; 93% of intervention group and 91% of control group included in analysis. Reasons given. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | The trial has reported on perinatal outcomes; the trial protocol indicates that 12-month follow-up is also complete (this was not reported on), and that there will be ongoing follow-up to 10 years for mothers, fathers and children. The protocol indicates additional outcomes which have not yet been reported (including maternal quality of life, cost-effectiveness, prevention of maternal type 2 diabetes 1 year after birth, small-for-gestational age and neonatal hypoglycaemia). |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified |
| **Korpi-Hyovalti et al 2011**516,546 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “These high-risk women were randomly assigned to the lifestyle intervention group... or to the close follow- up group... by the study physician in the Central Hospital with the use of a computed randomisation list.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | “The health care nurses who scheduled the study visits did not have access to the randomisation list.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | No blinding, trial described as “open”. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Trial described as “open”. No further information provided. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | 60 women were randomised; 54 women (90%) were analysed. 3 women dropped out from each group (4 due to early miscarriage, 1 with a twin pregnancy, and 1 woman moved away). No detail of whether the characteristics of the women lost to follow-up differed from those analysed |
| Selective reporting | High risk | For the baseline characteristics, and a number of other outcomes, data were reported by groups, with the P values reported as “NS” (indicating non-significance). For a number of outcomes, the data were not presented (“There was no statistically significant difference between the randomised groups in terms of pre-eclampsia, induction of labour, lacerations, Caesarean deliveries (data not shown)”) |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Pre-pregnancy weight in the intervention group tended to be higher (P=0.061) with “all women weighing over 100 kg” being in the intervention group. Women in the control group tended to have a higher educational status (P=0.080). |
| **Kunath et al 2019497** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Cluster randomised — Within these five regions, paired cluster randomisation was conducted by matching two areas per region according to birth figures and socioeconomic status. In each of the five pairs, both urban and rural districts were included. One area of each pair was randomly assigned to the intervention and the other to the control group. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Reasons for missing outcome data were miscarriage (n=73), termination (n=9) or severe pregnancy complications (n=4). A further 158 (7.0%) women dropped out from both groups due to (multiple answers were possible) change of practice or residence (n=65), decline of further study visits (n=59) or no longer reachable (n=31). |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Some secondary outcomes described in the study design have not yet been reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | The proportion of nulliparous women was higher in the intervention (62%) than in the control group (53%). |
| **Luoto et al 2011**522,548-550 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “In the randomisation process, participating municipalities were first pairwise matched with regard to annual number of births, size and socioeconomic level of the population, estimated incidence of GDM, and urbanity level. Municipalities were then randomised by computer.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | “An inevitable limitation is also that the women and the nurses in the usual care group could not be blinded for the purpose of the study, which may have resulted in changes in their health behaviour or counselling practices.” |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | 14 clusters were randomised and all included in the analyses. Of the women who received the allocated intervention, 89% were followed up in the intervention group and 92% in the control group. For some outcomes ”n Missing“ is reported in the tables - it is unclear however from which groups the data are missing (for example, GWG ”n Missing“=31, and it is unclear if these women are from the intervention or control groups) |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | There were more women in the intervention group with high education than in the usual care group. The trial’s statistical methods appear to take clustering into account, and a number of individual level characteristics such as education (unadjusted and adjusted analyses were performed) |
| **Pawalia et al 2017**493 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | “Some subjects were lost to follow up; they are not included in this paper.”  “Some women wanted to learn exercises during pregnancy after they were allocated to control group. Such subjects were taught exercises for home, as not doing so would have been ethically wrong but they were excluded from the study in final analysis to prevent contamination.” |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | Women in the control group had a higher mean BMI at baseline. |
| **Petrella et al 2013**504 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation list was obtained by using a computer-generated random allocation in blocks of three.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “The numbers were sealed in numbered white envelopes. After eligibility assessment, the midwife open the next envelope.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | “Two women randomised to Controls later withdrew their consent for the study. Therefore, the remnant participants were 33 in the Therapeutic Lifestyle Changes group and 28 in the Controls.” |
| Selective reporting | High risk | A number of outcomes are reported incompletely as ”similar“ between groups, or ”no statistically significant differences“. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Phelan et al 2011**494,551 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was computer-generated in randomly varying block sizes and stratified by clinic and BMI category.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Allocation was concealed in opaque envelopes prepared by the study statistician.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | “Clinic staff and physicians were blinded to subject randomisation to prevent contamination.” However, blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “The clinic staff and physicians at these offices were blind to subject randomisation to prevent contamination of the data.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced attrition with reasons given. ITT analysis was performed assuming that those lost to follow-up were treatment failures. It was reported that this revealed almost identical results as for those completing the study (data not shown). |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Assessment from published study report. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | The two study groups did not significantly differ on key baseline measures (sample stratified). |
| **Phelan et al 2018**508 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation was computer-generated by the study statistician, and women were randomly assigned within site and by ethnicity (Hispanic or non-Hispanic).” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | High risk | “Participants were not blinded to treatment assignment, which could have biased responses to meal replacement intake and other self-reported measures.” |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Study is described as blinded but process not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | After randomisation, 4 usual-care and 3 intervention participants withdrew participation and 1 participant was lost to follow-up, leaving an analytic sample of 256. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | The two study groups did not significantly differ on key baseline measures. |
| **Polley et al 2002**495 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “Women were randomly assigned to the standard care control group or to the intervention.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Minimal losses to follow-up during the pregnancy period: of 61 women randomised to the intervention group, 2 women moved out of the area, 1 had a miscarriage, and 1 withdrew; thus 57 (93%) were followed to delivery; in the control group, of 59 women randomised, 4 women moved out of the area and 2 had miscarriages; thus 53 (90%) were followed to delivery. Follow-up: an additional 23 intervention group women were lost to postpartum follow-up, thus 34 (56%) were followed postpartum; an additional 13 control group women were lost postpartum, thus 40 (68%) were followed postpartum |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | While outcomes were described in the methods, with no access to a trial protocol, it is not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified (16/90 refused), and higher in overweight black women than in any of the other 3 weight-by-race categories |
| **Poston et al 2013**512 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “The randomised treatment was allocated automatically, balanced by minimisation for maternal age, centre, ethnicity, parity and BMI.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed online.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Study retention was 99.6% (256 of 257). |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. The methods specify a number of clinical outcomes for which data were “recorded but not reported”. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Poston et al 2015**513,552 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “We used a computer-generated randomisation procedure via a password-protected website.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Allocation to study groups was done by centre’s UPBEAT trial midwife.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | “In view of the nature of the intervention, participants and staff were aware of allocations.” |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Primary outcome data were available for 80% of women and 97% of infants in the intervention group and 84% of mothers and 97% of infants in the control group. Authors reported that “the main reason for missing outcome data was that participants declined to attend further study visits.” More women in the intervention group (16%) compared with the control group (12%) failed to complete the OGTT required for the primary outcome. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Rauh et al 2013**496,554 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Women “were randomly assigned to either an ‘intervention’ or ‘control group’ using a computer-generated randomisation allocation table.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Randomisation was performed by a researcher not involved in the study design thereby preventing allocation bias.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | The trial was open-label. “The nature of the study meant that participants and study staff were not blinded to the types of interventions.” |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced attrition; 91% of intervention group and 89% of control group included in analysis with reasons given. Follow-up: 91% of women in the intervention group and 87% of women in the control group could be contacted at the 4-month follow-up and 89% of women in the intervention group and 78% of women in the control group were included in the 1-year follow-up. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. |
| Other limitations | High risk | “During recruitment, however it turned out that it was easier to recruit women for the intervention group than for the control group, yielding a 2:1 ratio“. The authors speculated that this may have been due to unmotivated gynaecologists/practice staff recruiting women, or low numbers of pregnant women among the control practices; they acknowledge that as practice staff and women were not blinded, knowledge of the ’control group’ status of these practices may have influence recruitment and participation rates, raising the possibility of post-randomisation selection. Pre-pregnancy weight and BMI were “although slightly” significantly higher in the control group, compared to the intervention group (with more overweight and obese women in the control group); median weight at the first antenatal visit was also higher among women in the control group. The sample size calculations did not take into account clustering. |
| **Renault et al 2014**451 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “The randomisation was stratified according to parity to ensure equal distribution of primiparous in the 3 groups.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Web allocation by an independent organisation properly concealed the procedure.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding not possible due to the nature of the study. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Low attrition rates for most outcomes. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | Could not determine. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | Baseline characteristics were comparable. Good compliance. |
| **Ronnberg et al 2015**486,555,556 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Consecutive randomisation after written informed consent was applied. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | The person responsible for producing the random sequence of group allocation had no other involvement in the study. |
| Performance bias | High risk | The study participants were not blinded to treatment. However, achieving blinding of treatment allocation for educational and exercise interventions is not feasible. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | There was a low loss to follow up (8%) in the group receiving intervention versus an intermediate loss (11%) in the group receiving standard care. The participants who were lost to follow up did not differ in age, parity or BMI category between groups. All data analysis was carried out according to intention to treat and according to the pre-established analysis plan |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | The consecutive randomisation used led to the same midwife receiving patients from both study groups in her practice. The caregiver’s awareness of IOM recommendations could have affected performance of standard maternity care. |
| **Ruchat et al 2012**482 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | “Each woman was randomised using a randomised/block procedure with four subjects per block into either the LI (30% HRR) or MI (70% HRR) group.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Forty-nine of the 73 participants completed the intervention. Before randomization, seven women decided to withdraw after the peak exercise test, eight women (MI group, n=4; LI group, n=4) dropped out because of reasons unrelated to exercise, nine women (MI group, n=3; LI group, n=6) dropped out because of time commitment concerns, leaving 26 women in the MI group and 23 women in the LI group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Historical control |
| **Sagedal et al 2017**300,487,557 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | Women were randomised “using a computer-generated list with 1:1 allocation ratio in blocks of 20”. |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “A research nurse assigned participants...The research nurse never met the participants, had no role in recruitment or measurements, and had no knowledge of questionnaire responses”. |
| Performance bias | High risk | “It was not feasible to blind participants to their group allocation, but they were instructed to refrain from revealing this to assessors”. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “All examinations, blood test evaluations, record reviews, and scoring of questionnaire responses were performed by assessors blinded to group allocation”. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced attrition; 98% of intervention group and 97% of control group were included in the main analyses (14 and 15 women respectively withdrew from participation but consented to data collection) and 66% of the intervention group and 62% of the control group were included in the 12-month analyses. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Outcomes reported as per the published trial protocol, except for the pre-specified outcomes ’maternal glucose levels, and ’hormones related to glucose metabolism’. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No obvious sources of other bias identified. |
| **Simmons et al 2017**402 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation … was performed using a computerised electronic random number generator, prestratified for site.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | The trial coordinator (D.S.) prepared and distributed sealed opaque envelopes, containing group allocations to each site. The allocation outcome was communicated to the participants by the coach. |
| Performance bias | High risk | The staff involved with measurements, but not the participants, were kept unaware of the intervention. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | Statistical analyses were performed blinded for allocation. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Data were analysed according to intention to treat and according to an a priori statistical analysis plan. Differences between women withdrawing from the study and those who stayed in the study were assessed. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | No significant differences between baseline characteristics of groups |
| **Trak-Fellermeier et al 2019509** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “An independent RCU statistician generated an urn randomisation scheme.” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Study staff other than a designated statistician and intervention staff remained blinded until the trial concluded.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Primary outcome imputed for 7/15 women in the intervention group and 4/16 in the control group. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | All pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | High risk | A higher proportion of women in the control group were African American (46.7 vs 6.3%) and a higher proportion of women in the intervention group were obese (87.5 vs 53.3%). |
| **Van Horn et al 2018505** | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Eligible pregnant women were randomized at a 1:1 allocation in random blocks of four and six” |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “Blinded study personnel collected all data.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | After randomisation, five participants experienced pregnancy losses; hence for secondary outcomes, the sample sizes vary. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | All expected outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | None noted. Baseline characteristics comparable. |
| **Vesco et al 2012**514,558,559 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | ”Randomisation ...using a computerised algorithm to generate the random assignments in blocks of four.“ |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Performance bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Good follow-up achieved. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Prespecified outcomes were reported. ITT analysis. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Follow-up weight gain data were collected at 34 weeks (i.e. earlier than most other included studies) |
| **Vinter et al 2011**515,560,561 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Participants were randomized 1:1 by computer-generated numbers.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | Women received allocation “in closed, opaque envelopes”. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Trial described as “non-blinded”; “blinding was not possible for pragmatic reasons”; “there was no blinding to patients or healthcare professionals”. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | See above For 2.8-year follow-up: “All children were measured by a medical doctor (M.T.) and a research bioanalyst, both blinded to the LiP intervention”. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Unclear risk | Balanced attrition; 83% of women in the intervention group and 86% of women in the control group were included in analyses, with reasons given. Follow-up at 6-month postpartum follow-up included 68% of women in the intervention group and 64% of women in the control group. The 66 women who did not attend, and were excluded had ”higher mean pre gestational BMI, higher GWG and more obstetric or neonatal complications, but the differences were not significant compared with those who did attend“. For 2.8-year follow-up included 55% of infants in the intervention group and 49% of infants in the control group. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. A protocol for the infant follow-up was supplied as supporting information. The trial registration lists “Metabolic Markers” as secondary outcome measures, however data were not reported for these outcomes. Some data are reported incompletely, e.g. breastfeeding at 5 months, ”no differences between the intervention groups“, and weight development from 0-5 months and 0-12 months “no difference... between the intervention groups...(data not known)”. |
| Other limitations | Low risk | The groups did not differ significantly on any maternal baseline characteristics, although there were more smokers in the control group despite stratified randomisation (11.7% versus 7.3%). The dropout group was older and had a higher percentage with a BMI ≥ 40 kg/m², and a higher percentage of smokers, compared with the completing group (though not statistically significant). For the follow-up trial: “At baseline, there were no differences between those who attended and who were lost to follow-up except for 20-h OGTT plasma glucose values performed at 28 weeks gestation“. |
| **Wang et al 2015**517 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Unclear risk | Authors reported that the trial was cluster randomised. However, it is not clear how clustering was used. The sequence generation is simply described as: “exponential random numbers produced the intervention group and the control group”. |
| Allocation concealment | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Performance bias | High risk | Blinding of women and trial personnel not considered feasible in view of the intervention and control. |
| Detection bias | Unclear risk | Not described. |
| Incomplete outcome data | Low risk | Balanced attrition; 91% of intervention group and 92% of control group were followed up and included in the analyses, with reasons for attrition given. |
| Selective reporting | Unclear risk | With no access to a trial protocol, it was not possible to confidently assess selective reporting. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | Limited methodological detail provided; insufficient information to determine risk of other bias. |
| **Willcox et al 2017**500 | | |
| Random sequence generation | Low risk | “Randomisation utilised computer-generated random numbers.” |
| Allocation concealment | Low risk | “Numbered cards allocating women to either the intervention or control groups were placed in opaque, sequentially numbered envelopes.” |
| Performance bias | High risk | Given the nature of the intervention, participants could not be blinded to group assignment. |
| Detection bias | Low risk | “The participant group allocation was re-coded by an independent researcher to ensure that the data analyst was blinded to allocation.” |
| Incomplete outcome data | High risk | Four women from each arm withdrew early in the intervention due to miscarriage or pregnancy complications, and one woman withdrew from the intervention arm citing dislike of the intervention. |
| Selective reporting | Low risk | Pre-specified outcomes reported. |
| Other limitations | Unclear risk | A higher proportion of the intervention group had lower household incomes than in the control group. |

## C Analyses

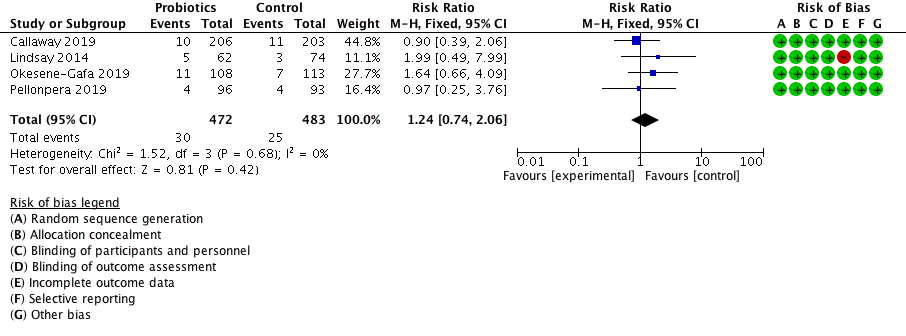
### Comparison 1: Probiotics versus placebo

##### Maternal outcomes

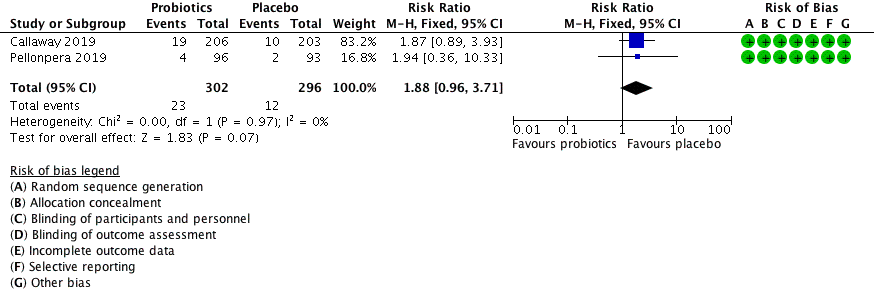
###### 1.1 Gestational diabetes



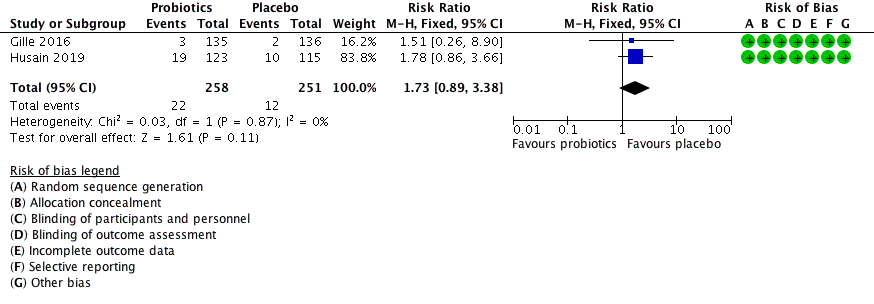
###### 1.2 Gestational hypertension



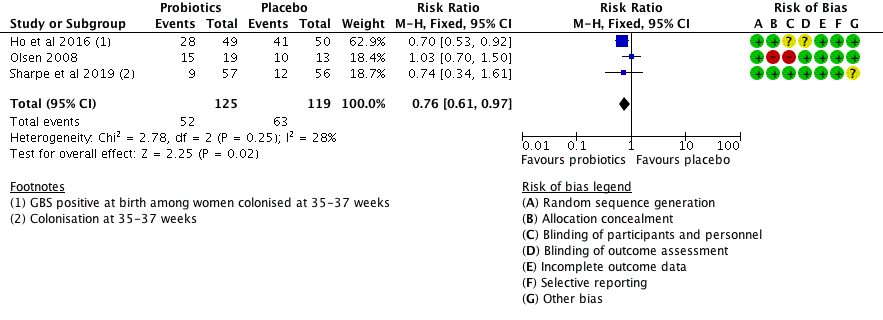
###### 1.3 Pre-eclampsia



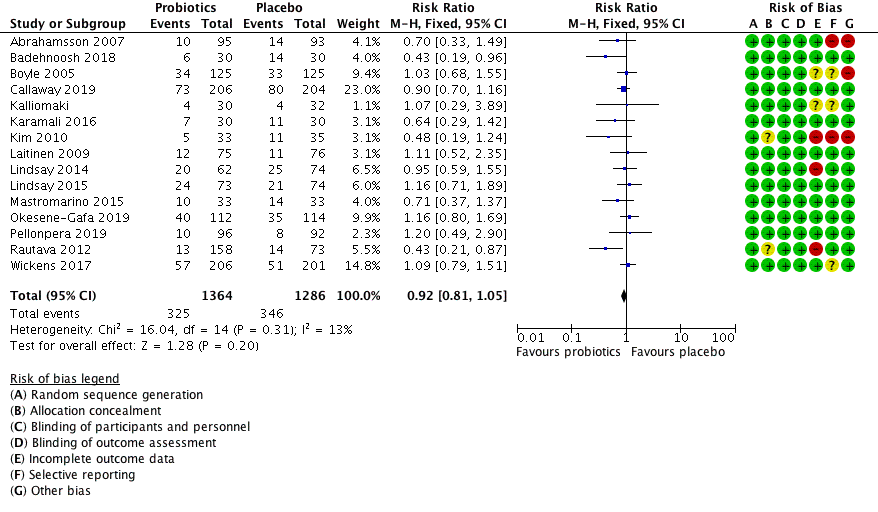
###### 1.4 Bacterial vaginosis



###### 1.5 Group B streptococcus

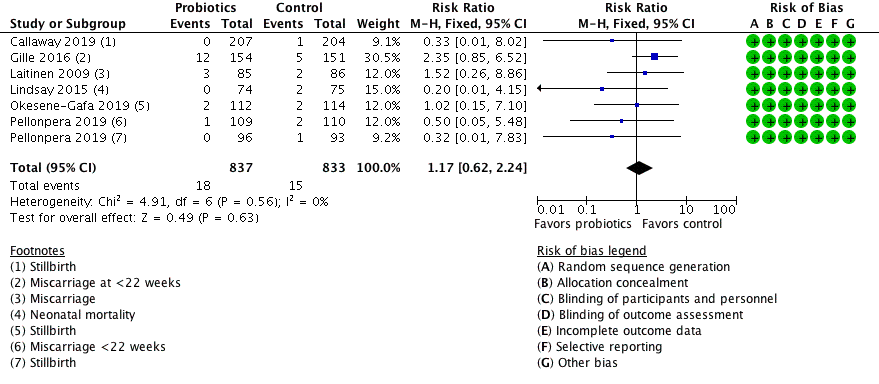


###### 1.6 Caesarean section

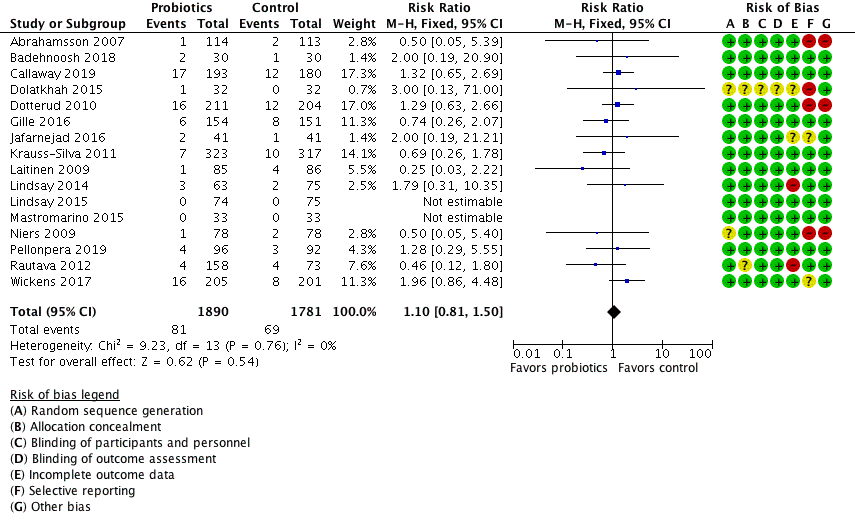


##### Infant outcomes

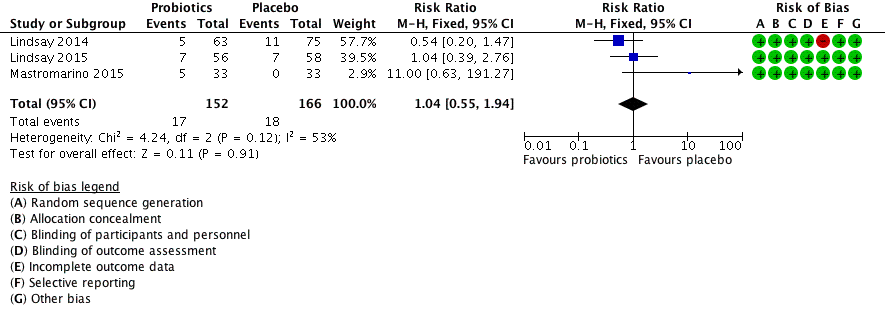
###### 1.7 Perinatal death



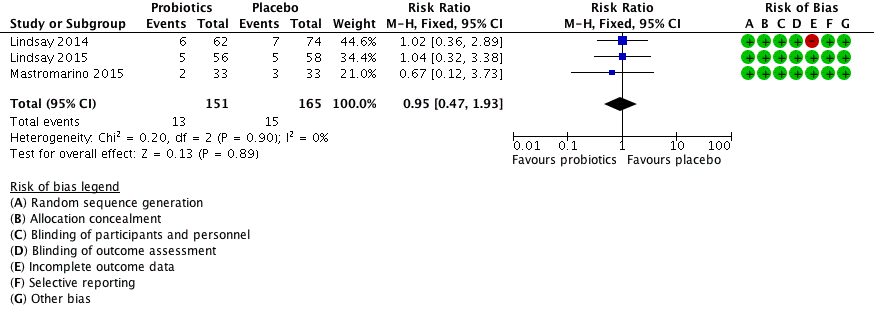
###### 1.8 Preterm birth <37 weeks



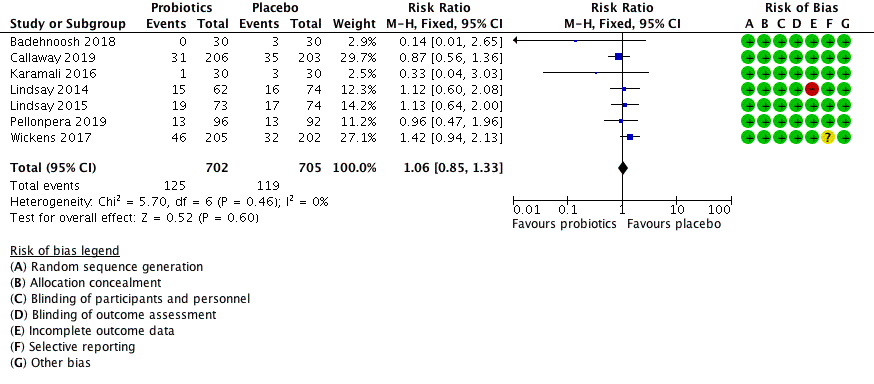
###### 1.9 Small for gestational age



###### 1.10 Large for gestational age



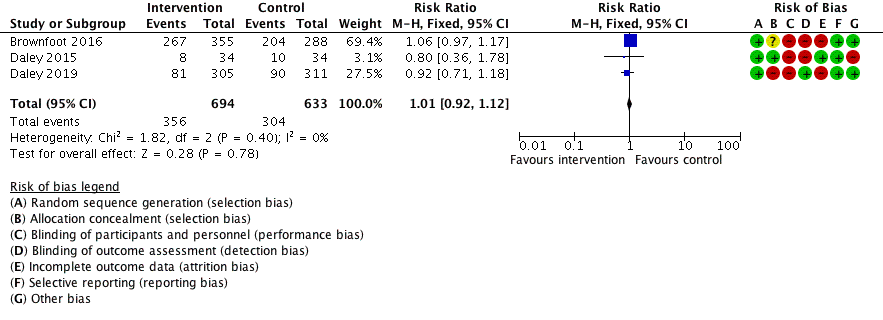
###### 1.11 Macrosomia >4,000 g



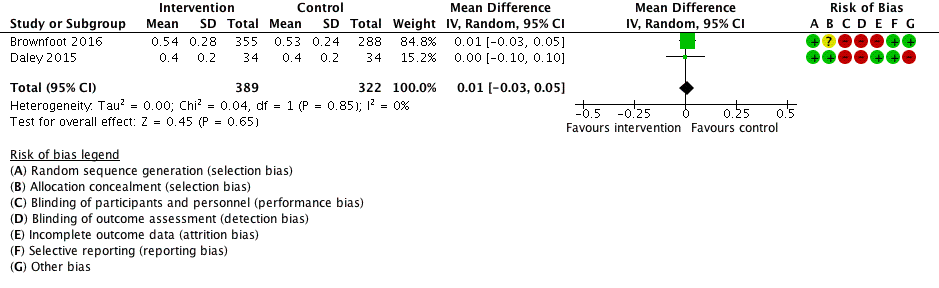
### Comparison 2: Regular weighing and advice on weight gain versus usual care

##### Maternal outcomes

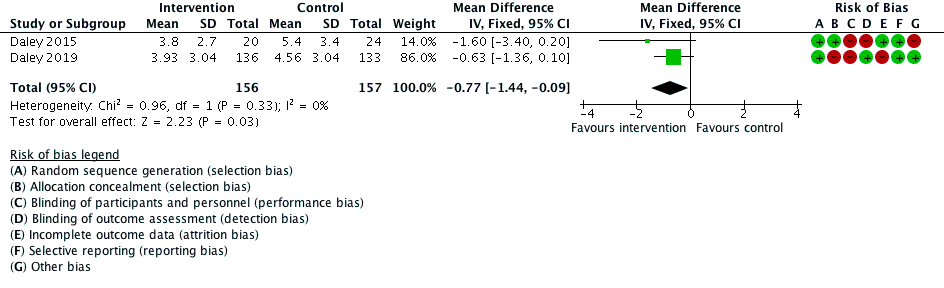
###### 2.1 Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines



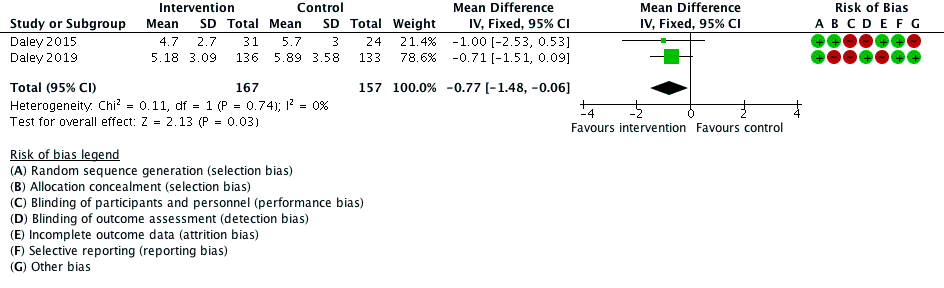
###### 2.2 Mean weight gain (kg per week)



###### 2.3 Depression



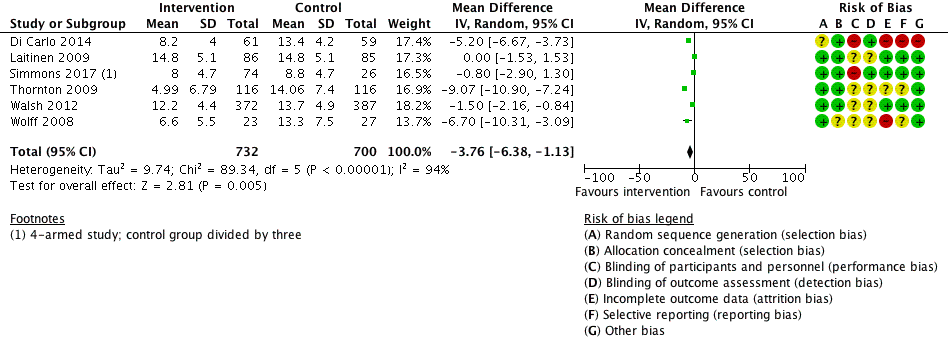
###### 2.4 Anxiety



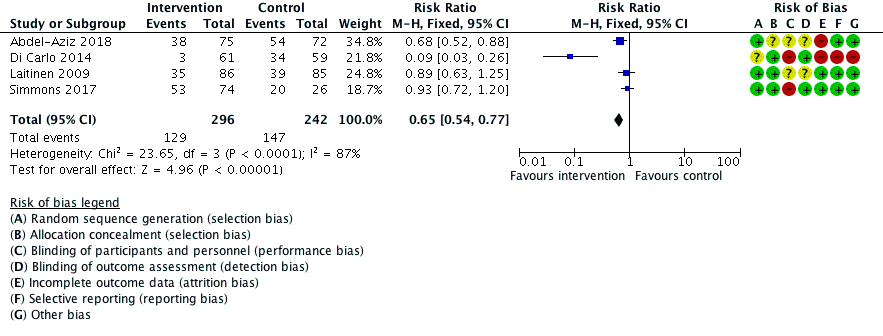
### Comparison 3: Diet versus usual care

##### Maternal outcomes

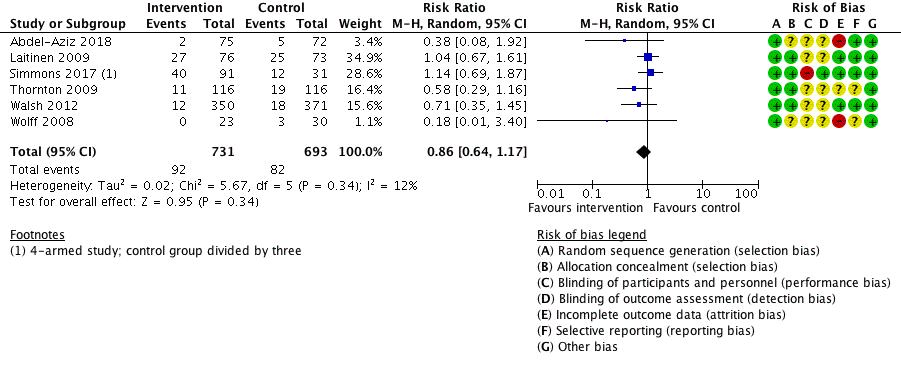
###### 3.1 Mean gestational weight gain



###### 3.2 Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines

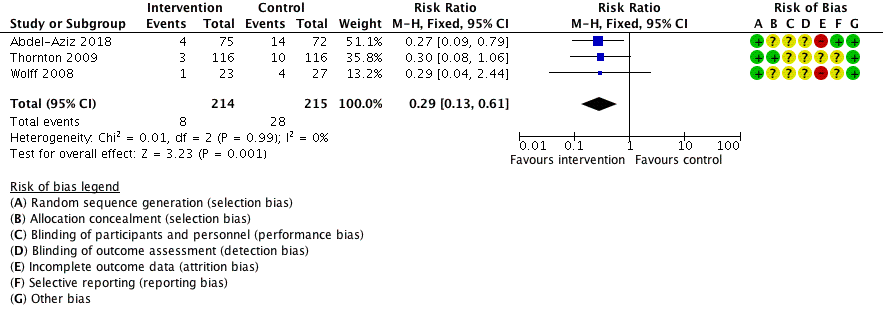


###### 3.3 Gestational diabetes

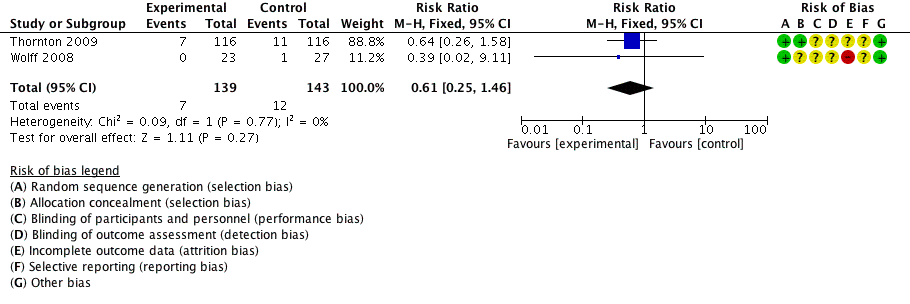


Note: Studies differed in diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes.

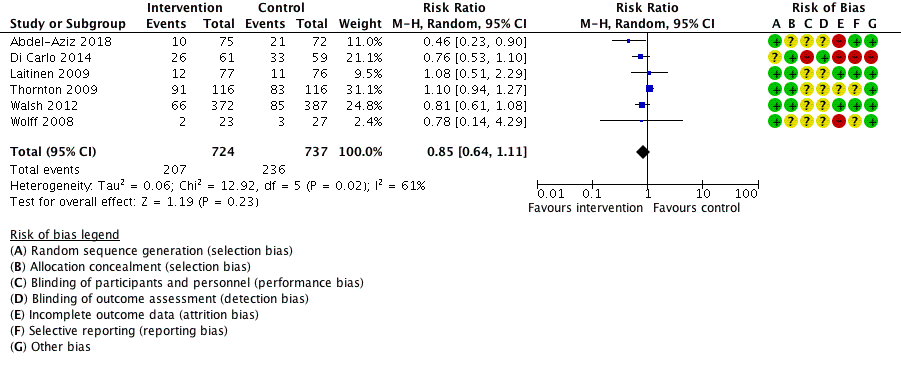
###### 3.4 Gestational hypertension



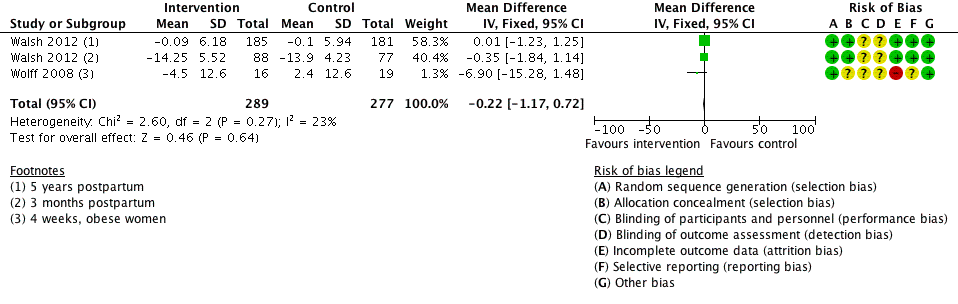
###### 3.5 Pre-eclampsia



###### 3.6 Caesarean section

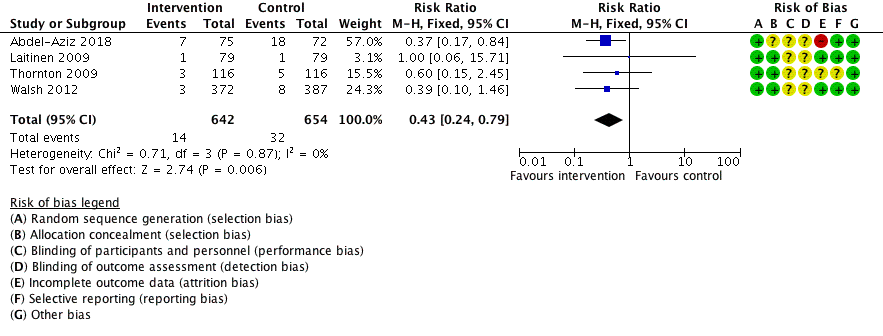


###### 3.7 Postnatal weight retention

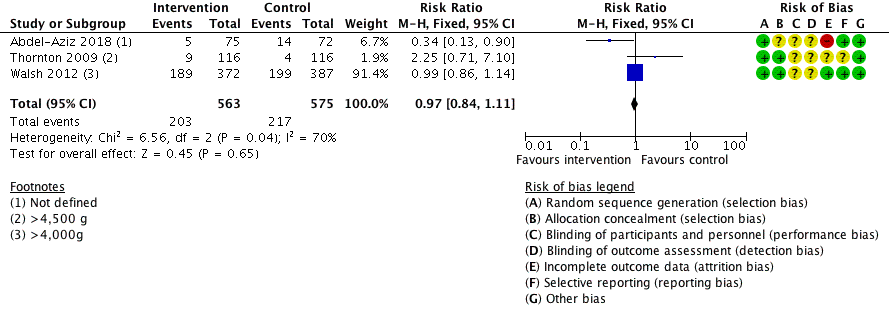


##### Infant outcomes

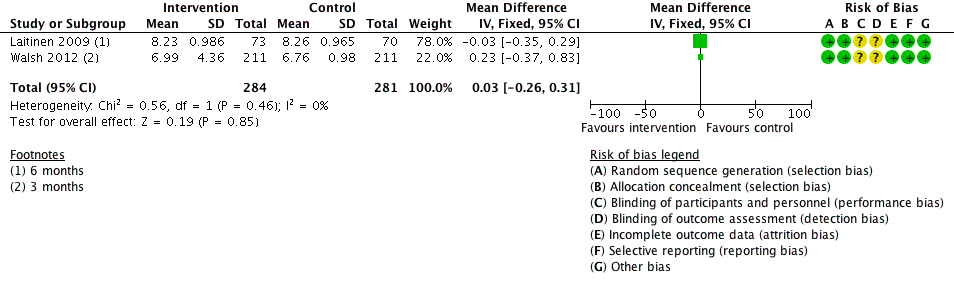
###### 3.8 Preterm birth



###### 3.9 Macrosomia



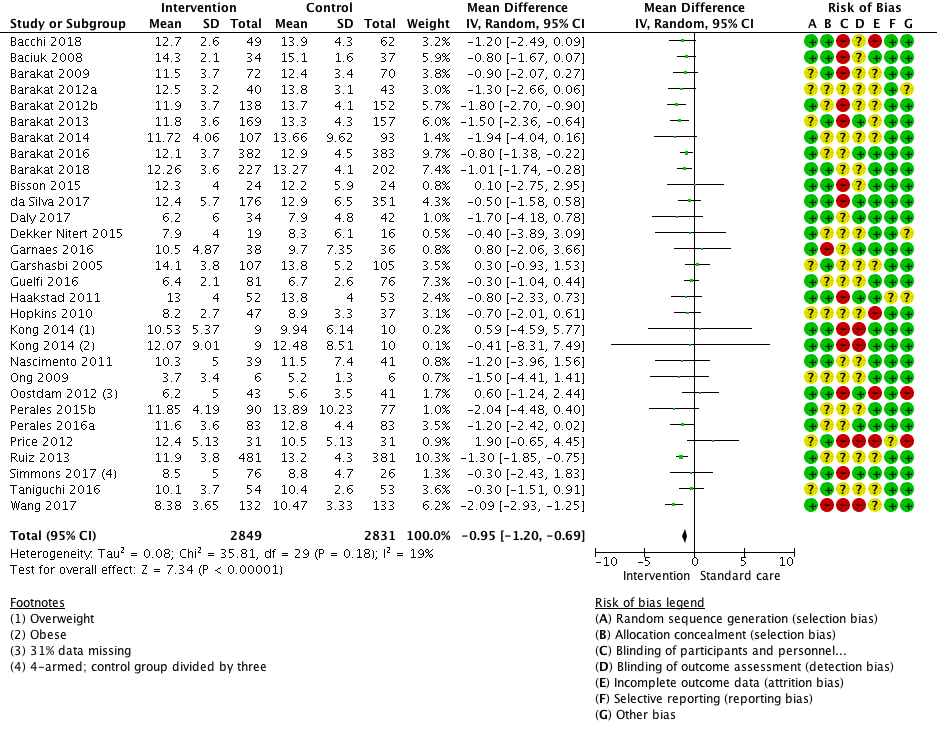
###### 3.10 Early childhood weight



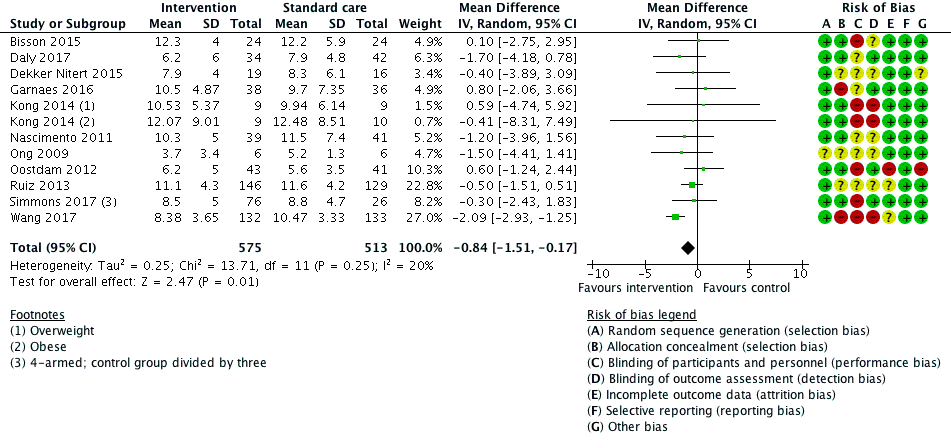
### Comparison 4: Exercise versus usual care

##### Maternal outcomes

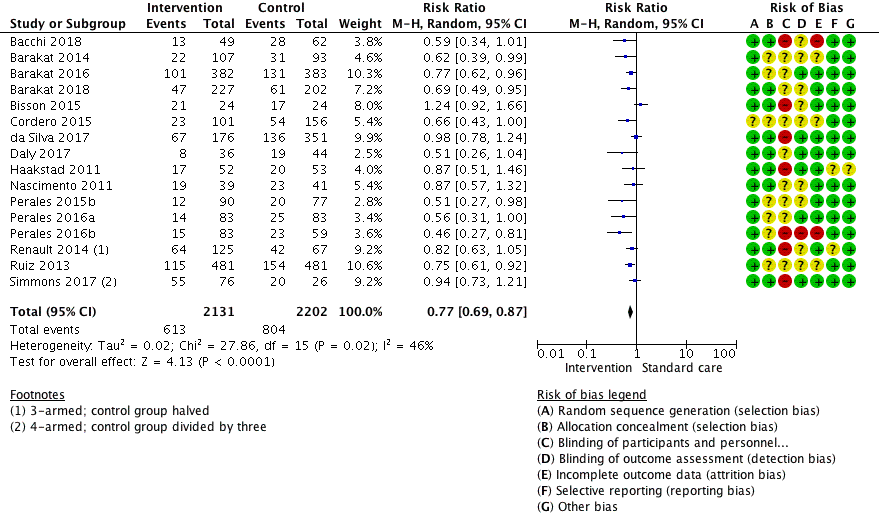
###### 4.1 Mean gestational weight gain



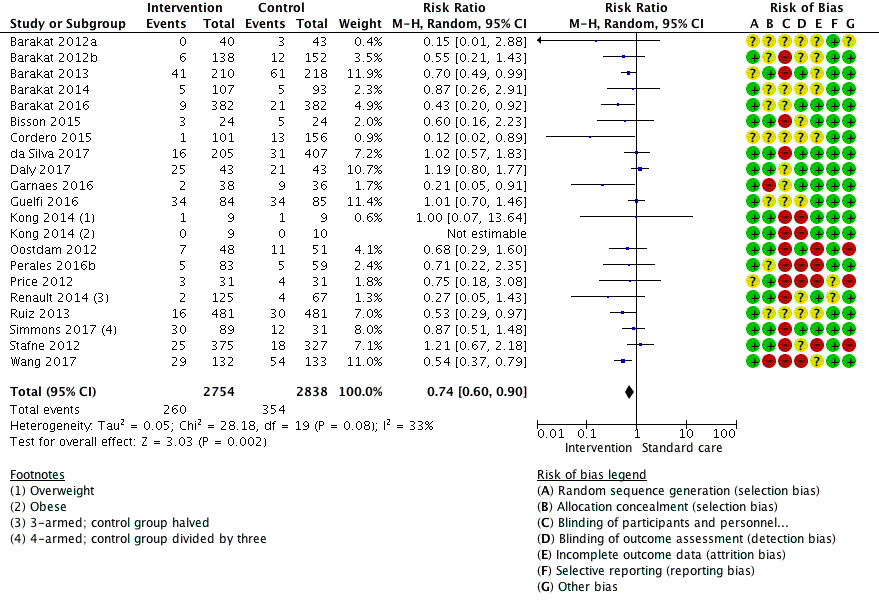
###### Mean gestational weight gain among women who were overweight or obese



###### 4.2 Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines

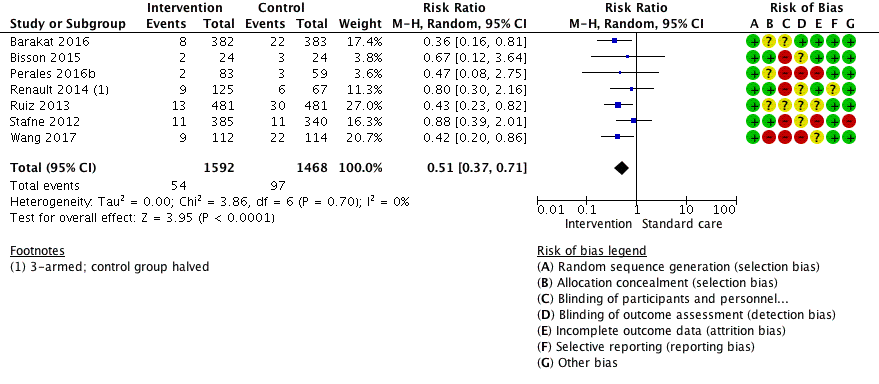


###### 4.3 Gestational diabetes

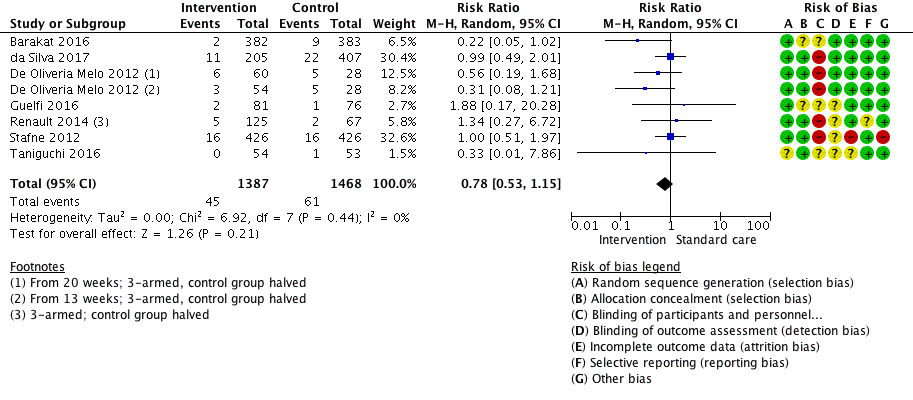


Note: Studies differed in diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes.

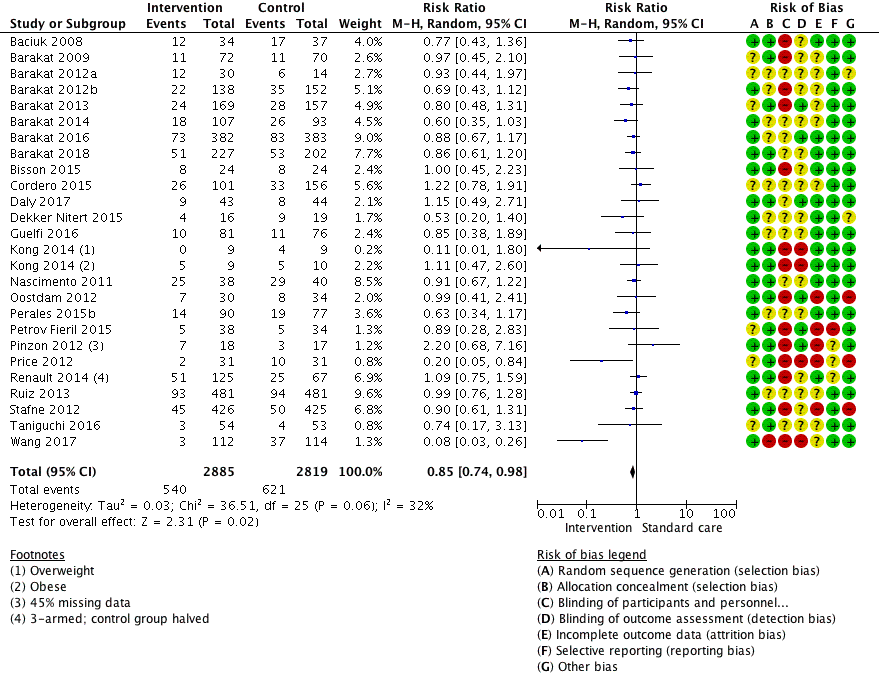
###### 4.4 Gestational hypertension



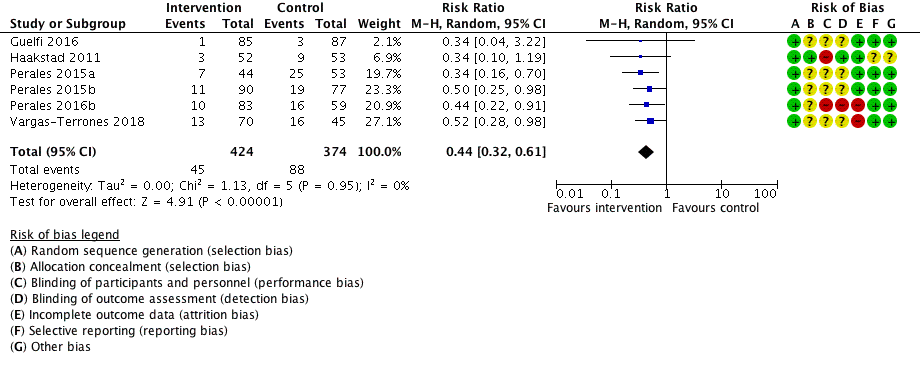
###### 4.5 Pre-eclampsia



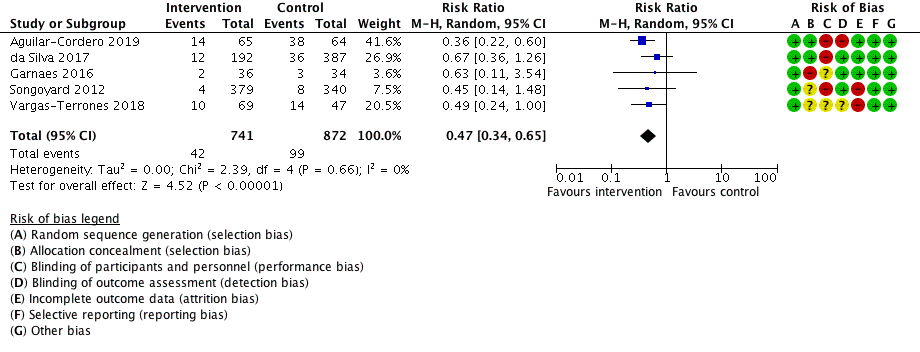
###### 4.6 Caesarean section



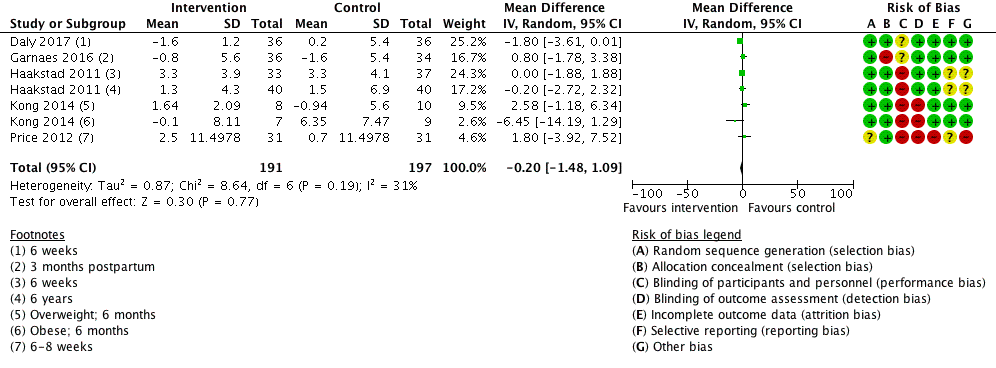
###### 4.7 Antenatal depression



###### 4.8 Postnatal depression

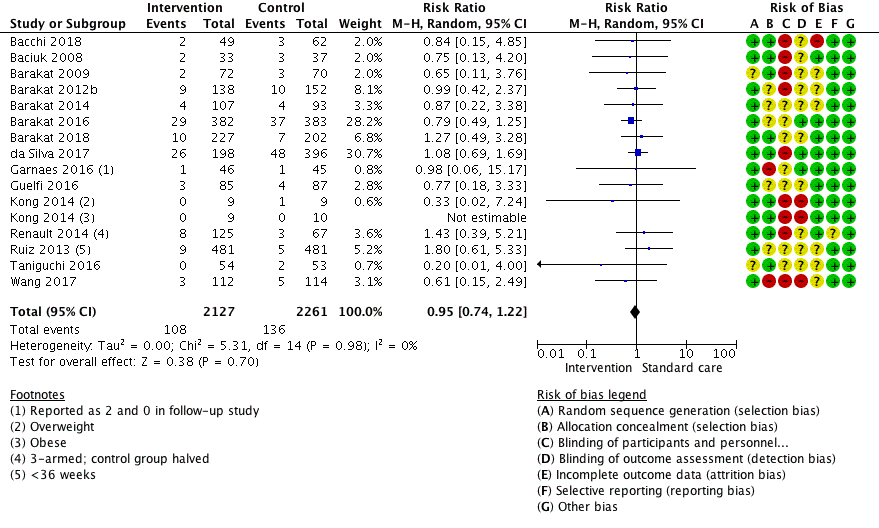


###### 4.9 Postnatal weight retention

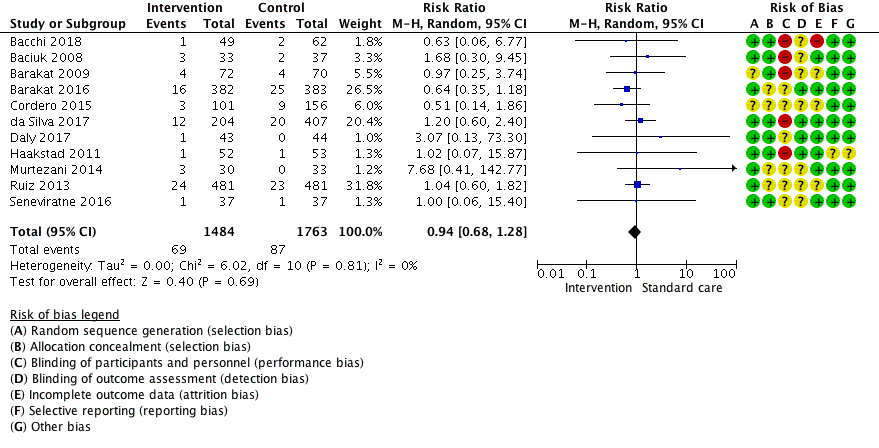


##### Infant outcomes

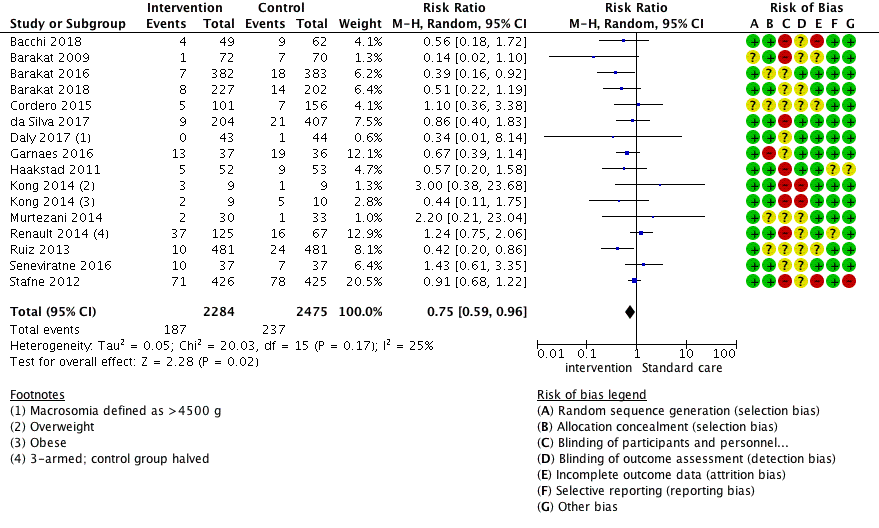
###### 4.10 Preterm birth



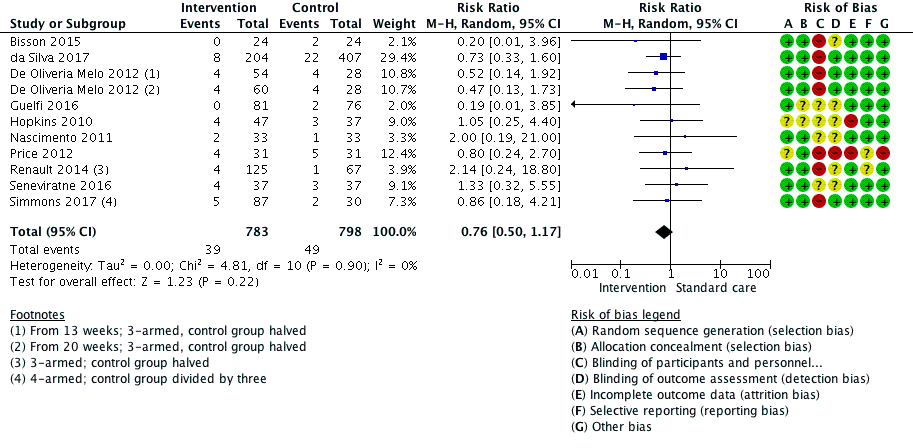
###### 4.11 Low birth weight



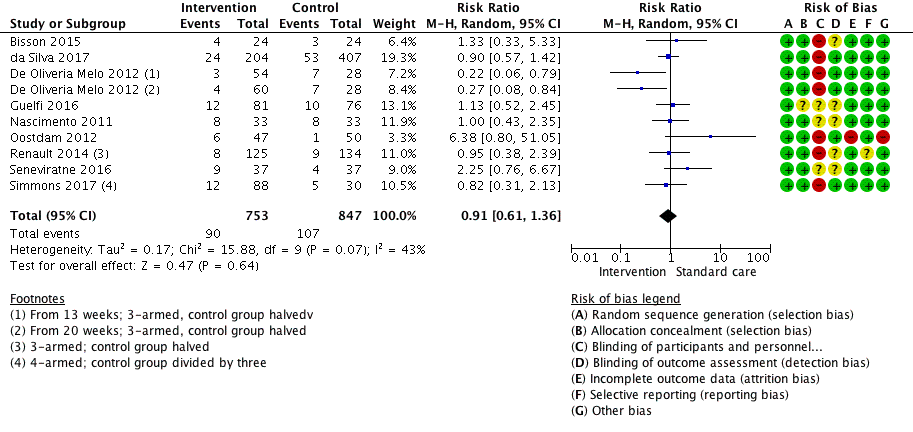
###### 4.12 Macrosomia



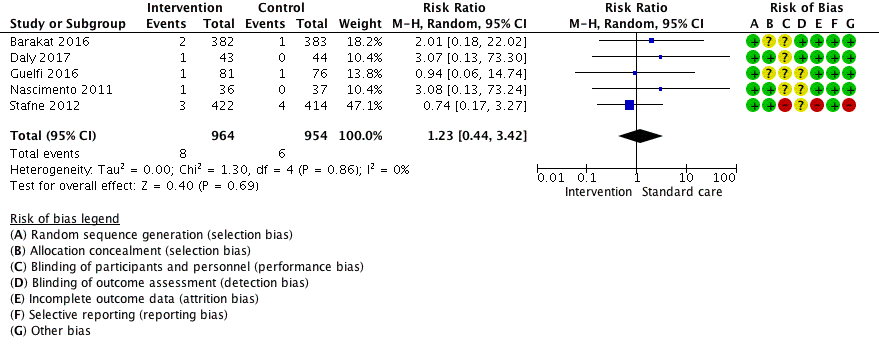
###### 4.13 Small for gestational age



###### 4.14 Large for gestational age



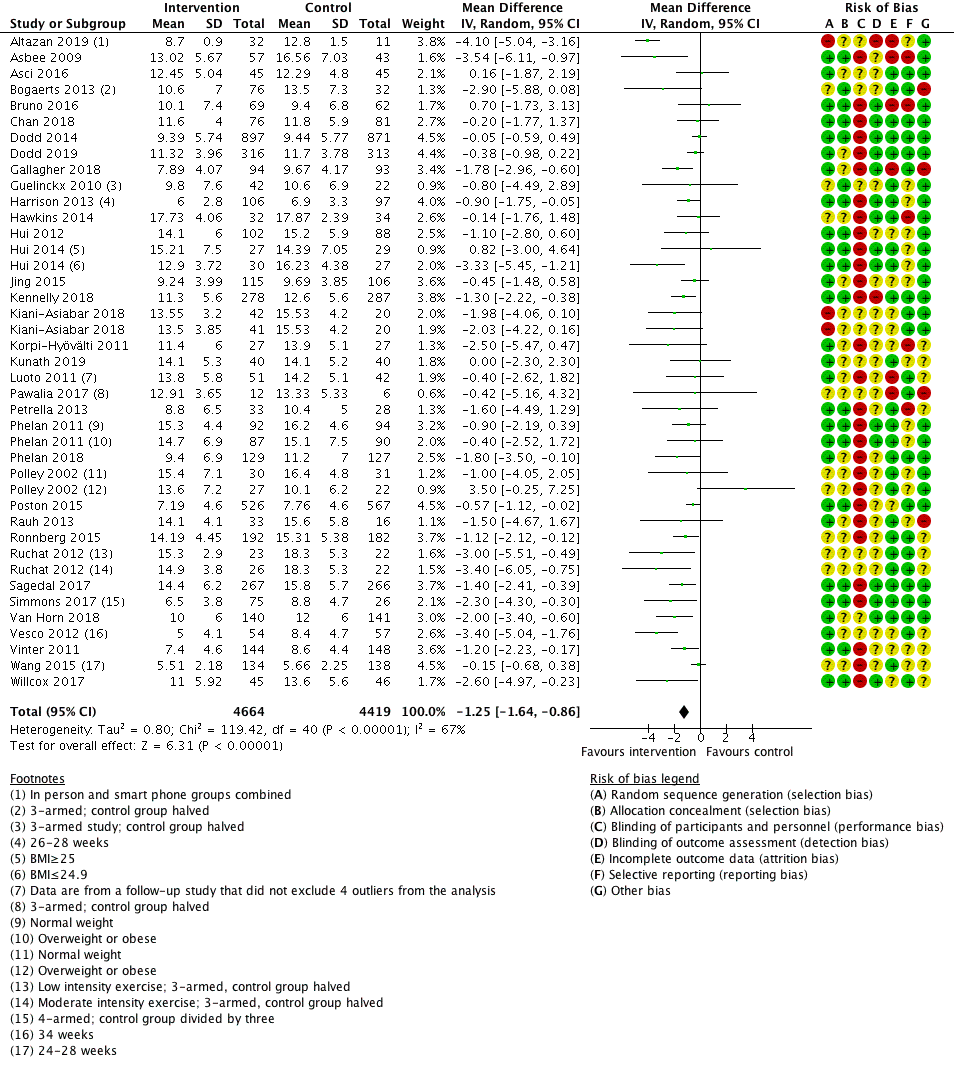
###### 4.15 Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes



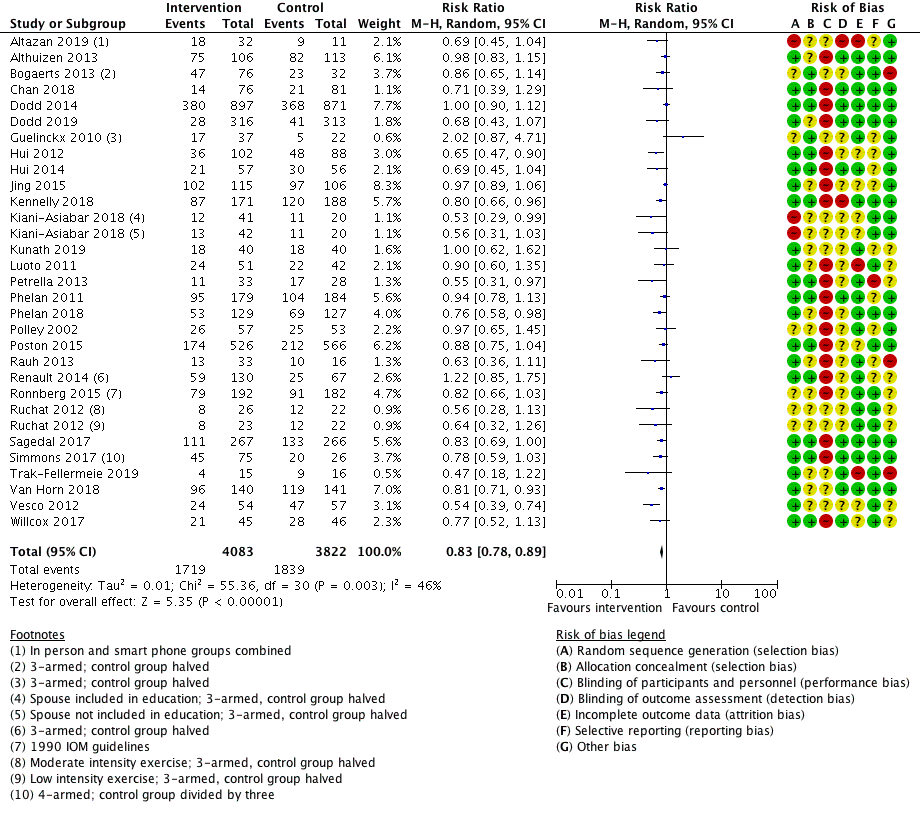
### Comparison 5: Lifestyle counselling as part of pregnancy care versus usual care alone

##### Maternal outcomes

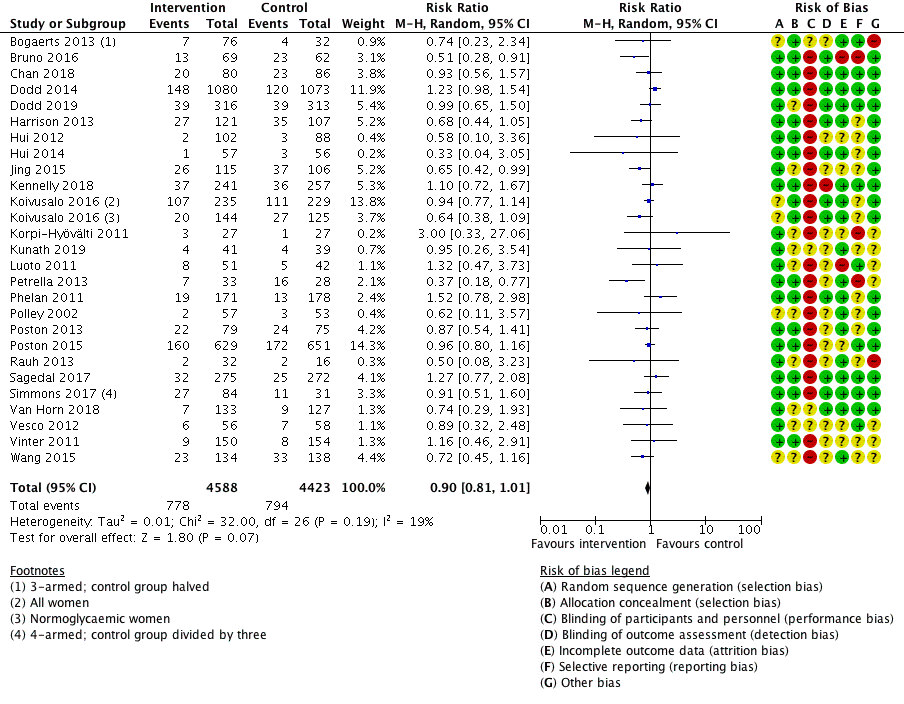
###### 5.1 Mean gestational weight gain



###### 5.2 Weight gain exceeding IOM guidelines

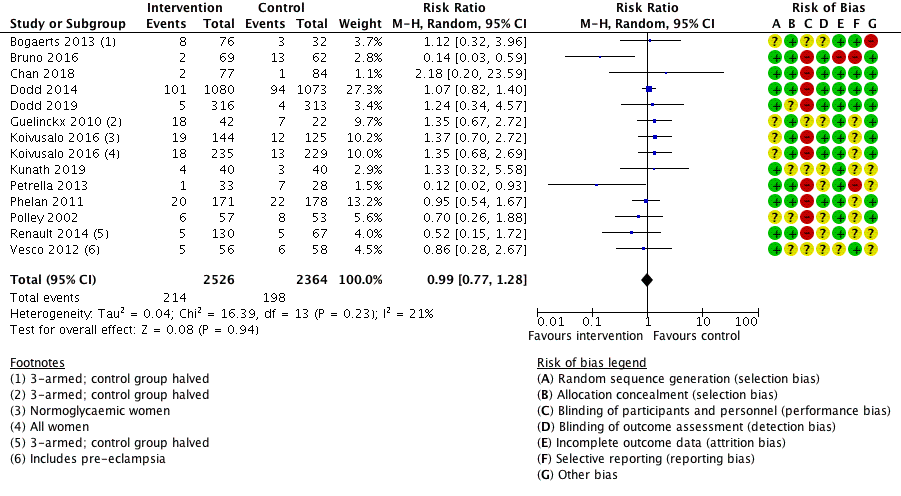


###### 5.3 Gestational diabetes

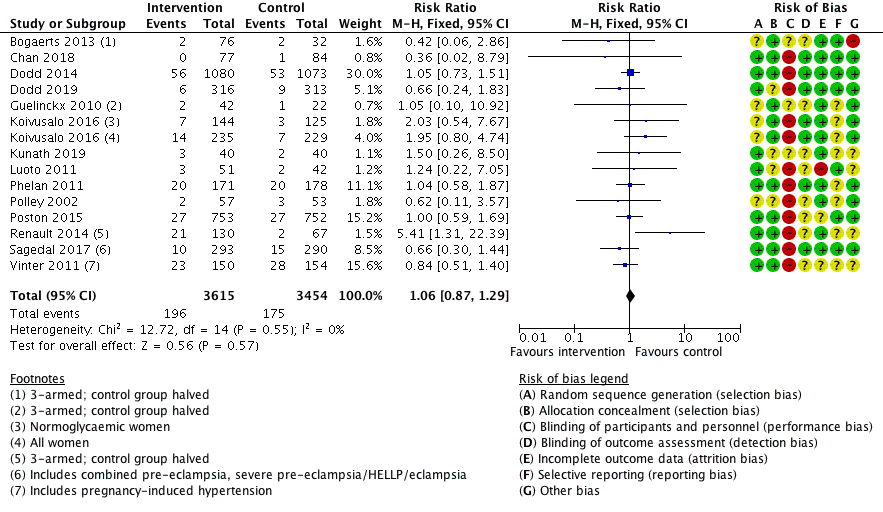


Note: Studies differed in diagnostic criteria for gestational diabetes.

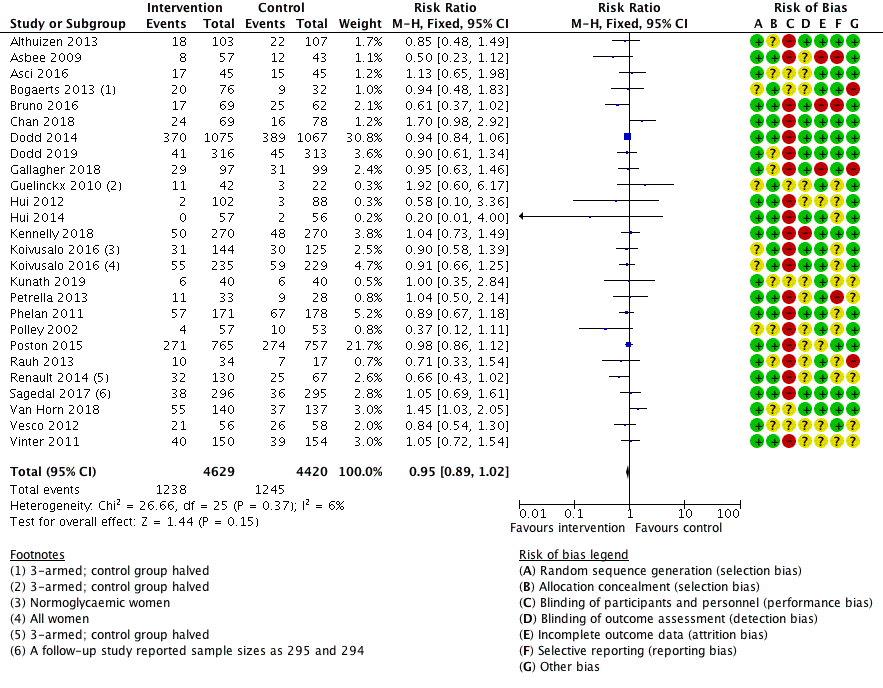
###### 5.4 Gestational hypertension



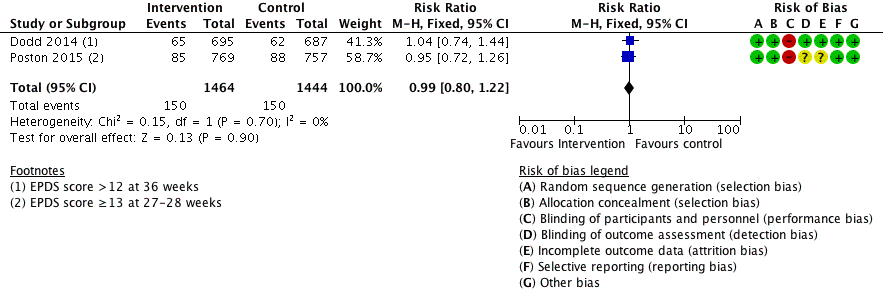
###### 5.5 Pre-eclampsia



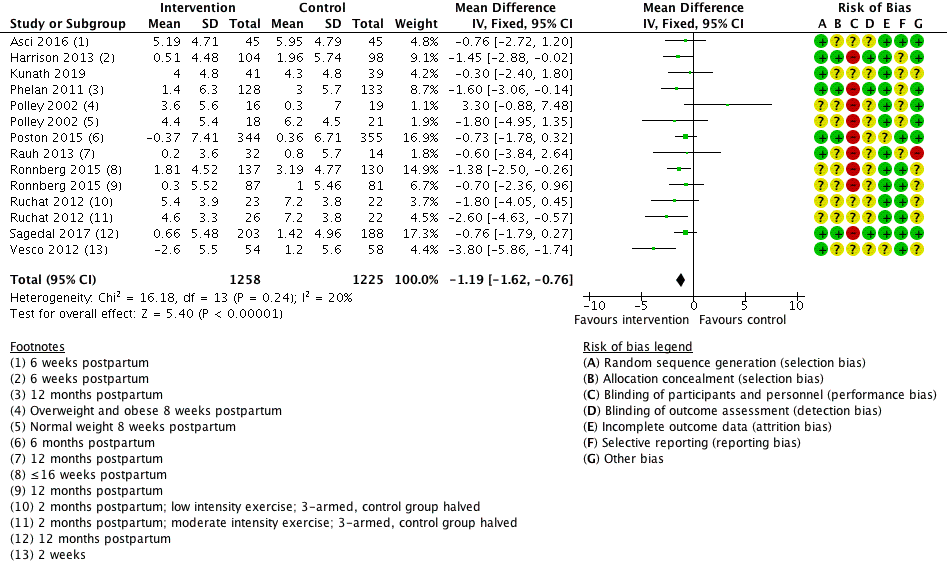
###### 5.6 Caesarean section



###### 5.7 Antenatal depression

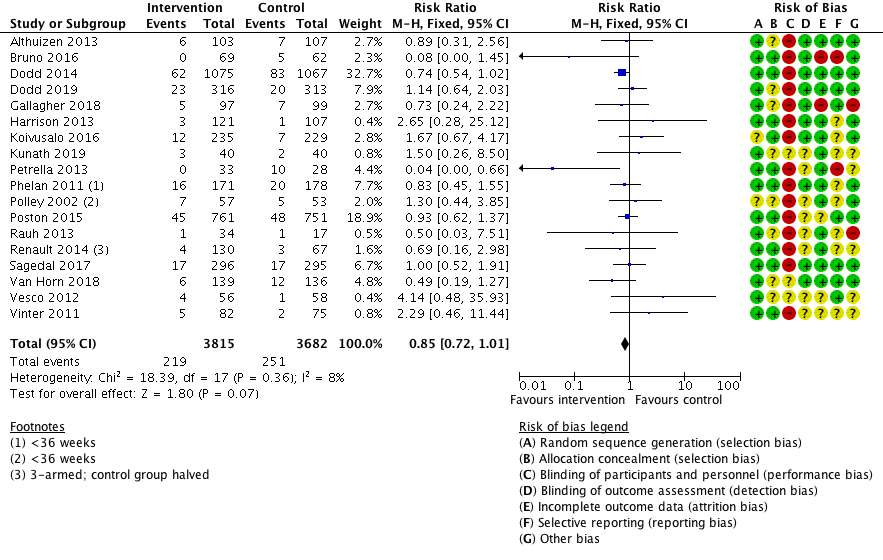


###### 5.8 Postnatal weight retention

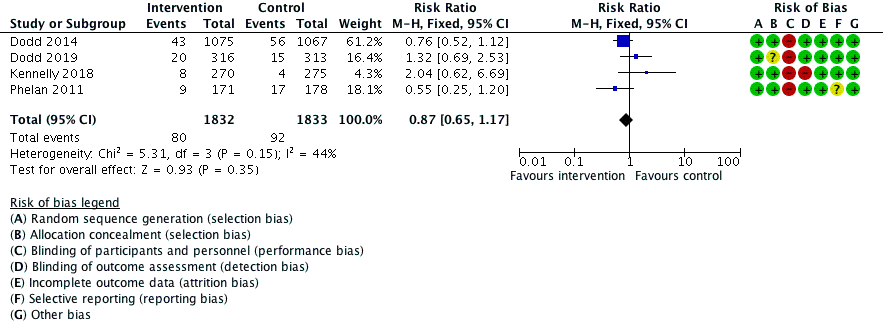


##### Infant outcomes

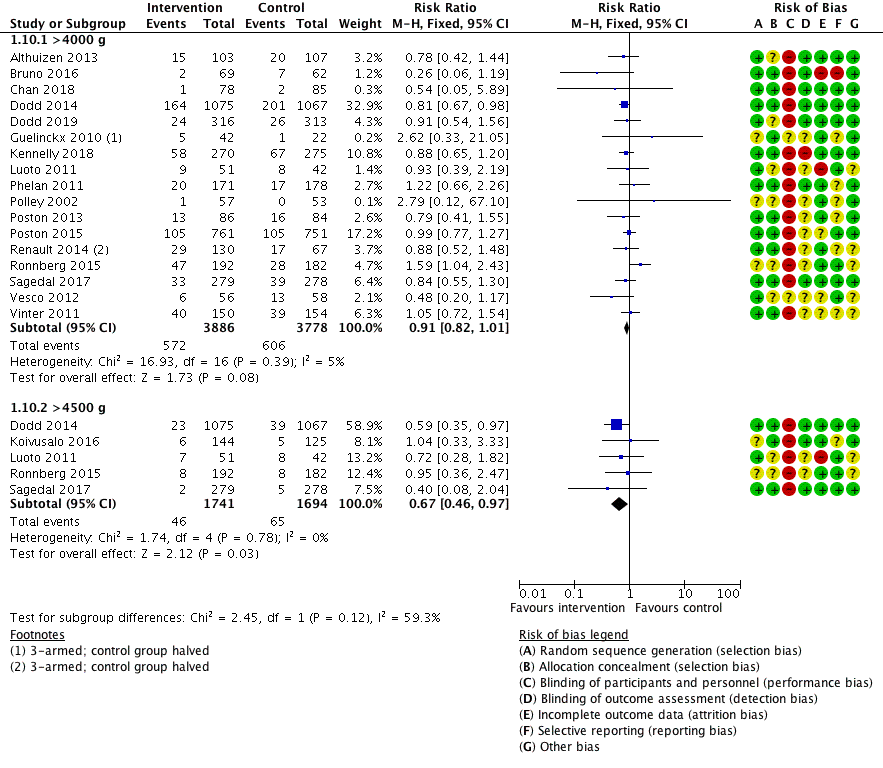
###### 5.9 Preterm birth



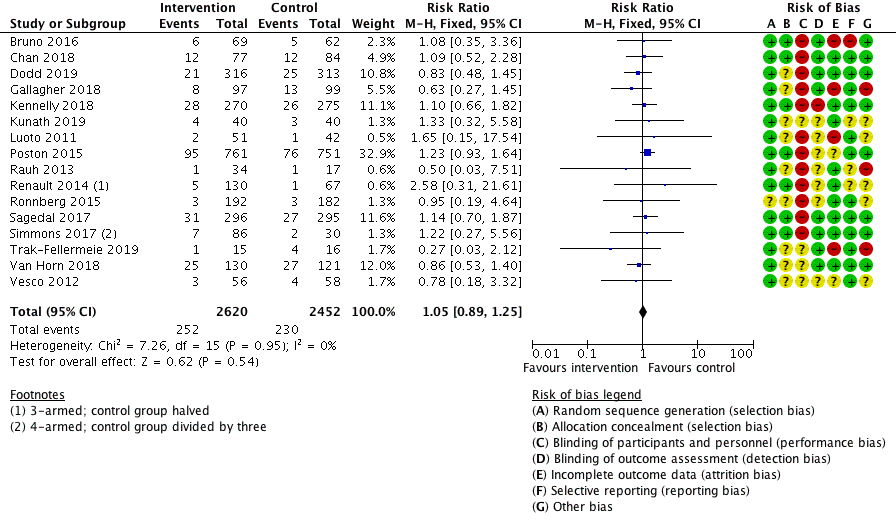
###### 5.10 Low birth weight



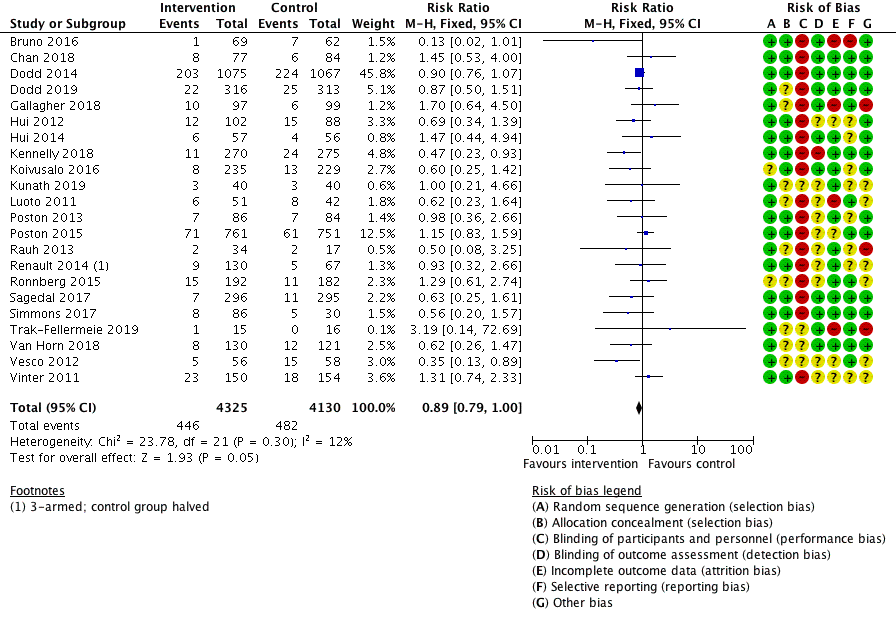
###### 5.11 Macrosomia >4,000 g



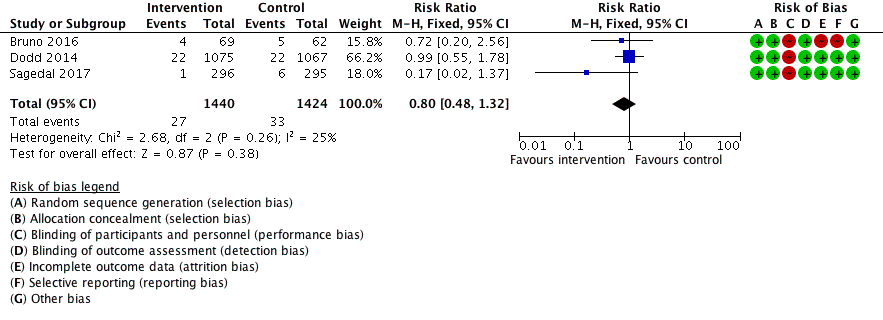
###### 5.12 Small for gestational age



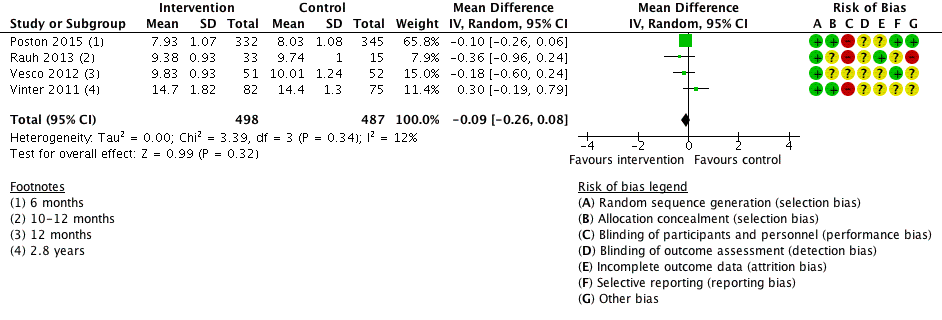
###### 5.13 Large for gestational age



###### 5.14 Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes



###### 5.15 Weight in early childhood



## D Excluded studies

### Diet (questions 1, 2 and 9)

#### Duplicate

Allen R, Rogozinska E, Sivarajasingam P et al (2014) Effect of diet- and lifestyle-based metabolic risk-modifying interventions on preeclampsia: a meta-analysis. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 93(10): 973-85.

Anleu E, Reyes M, Araya BM et al (2019) Effectiveness of an intervention of dietary counseling for overweight and obese pregnant women in the consumption of sugars and energy. *Nutrients* 11(2).

Asci O & Rathfisch G (2016) Effect of lifestyle interventions of pregnant women on their dietary habits, lifestyle behaviors, and weight gain: a randomized controlled trial. *J Health Popul Nutr* 35: 7.

Assaf-Balut C, Garcia de la Torre N, Fuentes M et al (2018) A high adherence to six food targets of the mediterranean diet in the late first trimester is associated with a reduction in the risk of materno-foetal outcomes: The St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study. *Nutrients* 11(1).

Baroni L, Goggi S, Battaglino R et al (2018) Vegan nutrition for mothers and children: practical tools for healthcare providers. *Nutrients* 11(1).

Bennett CJ, Walker RE, Blumfield ML et al (2018) Interventions designed to reduce excessive gestational weight gain can reduce the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 141: 69-79.

Chatzi L, Rifas-Shiman SL, Georgiou V et al (2017) Adherence to the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and offspring adiposity and cardiometabolic traits in childhood. *Pediatr Obes* 12 Suppl 1: 47-56.

Donazar-Ezcurra M, Lopez-Del Burgo C, Bes-Rastrollo M (2017) Primary prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus through nutritional factors: a systematic review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 17(1): 30.

Emmett PM, Jones LR, Golding J (2015) Pregnancy diet and associated outcomes in the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children. *Nutr Rev* 73 Suppl 3: 154-74.

Foster M, Herulah UN, Prasad A et al (2015) Zinc status of vegetarians during pregnancy: a systematic review of observational studies and meta-analysis of zinc intake. *Nutrients* 7(6): 4512-25.

Horan MK, McGowan CA, Gibney ER et al (2014) Maternal diet and weight at 3 months postpartum following a pregnancy intervention with a low glycaemic index diet: results from the ROLO randomised control trial. *Nutrients* 6(7): 2946-55.

Kolu P, Raitanen J, Puhkala J et al (2016) Effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of a cluster-randomized prenatal lifestyle counseling trial: a seven-year follow-up. *PLoS One* 11(12): e0167759.

Lee YQ, Collins CE, Schumacher TL et al (2018) Disparities exist between the dietary intake of Indigenous Australian women during pregnancy and the Australian dietary guidelines: the Gomeroi gaaynggal study. *J Hum Nutr Diet* 31(4): 473-85.

Raghavan R, Dreibelbis C, Kingshipp BL et al (2019) Dietary patterns before and during pregnancy and maternal outcomes: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr* 109(Suppl\_7): 705S-28S.

Renault KM, Carlsen EM, Norgaard K et al (2015) Intake of sweets, snacks and soft drinks predicts weight gain in obese pregnant women: detailed analysis of the results of a randomised controlled trial. *PLoS One* 10(7): e0133041.

Schumacher TL, Weatherall L, Keogh L et al (2018) Characterizing gestational weight gain in a cohort of Indigenous Australian women. *Midwifery* 60: 13-19.

Tieu J, Shepherd E, Middleton P et al (2017) Dietary advice interventions in pregnancy for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 1: CD006674.

#### Narrative review

Abiri B, Kelishadi R, Sadeghi H et al (2016) Effects of maternal diet during pregnancy on the risk of childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia: a systematic review. *Nutrition and Cancer* 68(7): 1065-72.

Baroni L, Goggi S, Battaglino R et al (2018) Vegan nutrition for mothers and children: practical tools for healthcare providers. *Nutrients* 11(1).

Baskin R, Hill B, Jacka FN et al (2015) The association between diet quality and mental health during the perinatal period. A systematic review. *Appetite* 91: 41-7.

Biagi C, Nunzio MD, Bordoni A et al (2019) Effect of adherence to Mediterranean diet during pregnancy on children's health: a systematic review. *Nutrients* 11(5).

D'Souza L, Jayaweera H, Pickett KE (2016) Pregnancy diets, migration, and birth outcomes. *Health Care Women Int* 37(9): 964-78.

Donazar-Ezcurra M, Lopez-Del Burgo C, Bes-Rastrollo M (2017) Primary prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus through nutritional factors: a systematic review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 17(1): 30.

Elliott-Sale KJ, Graham A, Hanley SJ et al (2019) Modern dietary guidelines for healthy pregnancy; maximising maternal and foetal outcomes and limiting excessive gestational weight gain. *Eur J Sport Sci* 19(1): 62-70.

Flynn AC, Dalrymple K, Barr S et al (2016) Dietary interventions in overweight and obese pregnant women: a systematic review of the content, delivery, and outcomes of randomized controlled trials. *Nutr Rev* 74(5): 312-28.

Leermakers ET, Moreira EM, Kiefte-de Jong JC et al (2015) Effects of choline on health across the life course: a systematic review. *Nutr Rev* 73(8): 500-22.

Moonesinghe H, Patil VK, Dean T et al (2016) Association between healthy eating in pregnancy and allergic status of the offspring in childhood. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* 116(2): 163-5.

Mousa A, Naqash A, Lim S (2019) Macronutrient and micronutrient intake during pregnancy: an overview of recent evidence. *Nutrients* 11(2).

O'Neil A, Itsiopoulos C, Skouteris H et al (2014) Preventing mental health problems in offspring by targeting dietary intake of pregnant women. *BMC Med* 12: 208.

Oostingh EC, Hall J, Koster MPH et al (2019) The impact of maternal lifestyle factors on periconception outcomes: a systematic review of observational studies. *Reprod Biomed Online* 38(1): 77-94.

Rees WD (2019) Interactions between nutrients in the maternal diet and the implications for the long-term health of the offspring. *Proc Nutr Soc* 78(1): 88-96.

Sparling TM, Henschke N, Nesbitt RC et al (2017) The role of diet and nutritional supplementation in perinatal depression: a systematic review. *Matern Child Nutr* 13(1).

Tielemans MJ, Garcia AH, Peralta Santos A et al (2016) Macronutrient composition and gestational weight gain: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr* 103(1): 83-99.

#### Wrong study design

Mijatovic-Vukas J, Capling L, Cheng S et al (2018) Associations of diet and physical activity with risk for gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 10(6).

Opie RS, Neff M, Tierney AC (2016) A behavioural nutrition intervention for obese pregnant women: Effects on diet quality, weight gain and the incidence of gestational diabetes. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 56(4): 364-73.

#### Wrong setting

Anleu E, Reyes M, Araya BM et al (2019) Effectiveness of an intervention of dietary counseling for overweight and obese pregnant women in the consumption of sugars and energy. *Nutrients* 11(2).

Lau Y, Klainin-Yobas P, Htun TP et al (2017) Electronic-based lifestyle interventions in overweight or obese perinatal women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obes Rev* 18(9): 1071-87.

O'Brien OA, McCarthy M, Gibney ER et al (2014) Technology-supported dietary and lifestyle interventions in healthy pregnant women: a systematic review. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 68(7): 760-6.

Okesene-Gafa KAM, Li M, McKinlay CJD et al (2019) Effect of antenatal dietary interventions in maternal obesity on pregnancy weight-gain and birthweight: Healthy Mums and Babies (HUMBA) randomized trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 221(2): 152 e1-52 e13.

Sherifali D, Nerenberg KA, Wilson S et al (2017) The effectiveness of ehealth technologies on weight management in pregnant and postpartum women: systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Med Internet Res* 19(10): e337.

#### Wrong population

Bao W, Bowers K, Tobias DK et al (2014) Prepregnancy low-carbohydrate dietary pattern and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a prospective cohort study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 99(6): 1378-84.

Bricker L, Reed K, Wood L et al (2015) Nutritional advice for improving outcomes in multiple pregnancies. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(11): CD008867.

Callaghan-Gillespie M, Schaffner AA, Garcia P et al (2017) Trial of ready-to-use supplemental food and corn-soy blend in pregnant Malawian women with moderate malnutrition: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 106(4): 1062-69.

Carmichael SL, Yang W, Gilboa S et al (2016) Elevated body mass index and decreased diet quality among women and risk of birth defects in their offspring. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 106(3): 164-71.

Deveer R, Deever M, Akbaba E et al (2013) The effect of diet on pregnancy outcomes among pregnants with abnormal glucose challenge test. *Eur Rev Med Pharmacol* 17: 1258-61.

Donazar-Ezcurra M, Lopez-Del Burgo C, Martinez-Gonzalez MA et al (2017) Pre-pregnancy adherences to empirically derived dietary patterns and gestational diabetes risk in a Mediterranean cohort: the Seguimiento Universidad de Navarra (SUN) project. *Br J Nutr* 118(9): 715-21.

Jarman M, Mathe N, Ramazani F et al (2018) Dietary patterns prior to pregnancy and associations with pregnancy complications. *Nutrients* 10(7).

Koutelidakis AE, Alexatou O, Kousaiti S et al (2018) Higher adherence to Mediterranean diet prior to pregnancy is associated with decreased risk for deviation from the maternal recommended gestational weight gain. *Int J Food Sci Nutr* 69(1): 84-92.

Lamyian M, Hosseinpour-Niazi S, Mirmiran P et al (2017) Pre-pregnancy fast food consumption is associated with gestational diabetes mellitus among Tehranian women. *Nutrients* 9(3).

Looman M, Schoenaker D, Soedamah-Muthu SS et al (2018) Pre-pregnancy dietary carbohydrate quantity and quality, and risk of developing gestational diabetes: the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health. *Br J Nutr* 120(4): 435-44.

Mijatovic-Vukas J, Capling L, Cheng S et al (2018) Associations of Diet and Physical Activity with Risk for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients* 10(6).

Ormesher L, Myers JE, Chmiel C et al (2018) Effects of dietary nitrate supplementation, from beetroot juice, on blood pressure in hypertensive pregnant women: A randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled feasibility trial. *Nitric Oxide* 80: 37-44.

Osorio-Yanez C, Gelaye B, Qiu C et al (2017) Maternal intake of fried foods and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Ann Epidemiol* 27(6): 384-90 e1.

Parisi F, Rousian M, Koning IV et al (2018) Periconceptional maternal dairy-rich dietary pattern is associated with prenatal cerebellar growth. *PLoS One* 13(5): e0197901.

#### Wrong outcomes

Donnelly JM, Walsh JM, Byrne J et al (2015) Impact of maternal diet on neonatal anthropometry: a randomized controlled trial. *Pediatr Obes* 10(1): 52-6.

Gresham E, Bisquera A, Byles JE et al (2016) Effects of dietary interventions on pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Matern Child Nutr* 12(1): 5-23.

Horan MK, McGowan CA, Gibney ER et al (2016) Maternal nutrition and glycaemic index during pregnancy impacts on offspring adiposity at 6 months of age--analysis from the ROLO randomised controlled trial. *Nutrients* 8(1).

Kinnunen TI, Puhkala J, Raitanen J et al (2014) Effects of dietary counselling on food habits and dietary intake of Finnish pregnant women at increased risk for gestational diabetes - a secondary analysis of a cluster-randomized controlled trial. *Matern Child Nutr* 10(2): 184-97.

Ota E, Hori H, Mori R et al (2015) Antenatal dietary education and supplementation to increase energy and protein intake. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(6): CD000032.

Taylor RM, Fealy SM, Bisquera A et al (2017) Effects of nutritional interventions during pregnancy on infant and child cognitive outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 9(11).

#### Wrong comparator

Hill B, Skouteris H, Fuller-Tyszkiewicz M et al (2016) Can a health coaching intervention delivered during pregnancy help prevent excessive gestational weight gain? *Journal of Behavioral Medicine* 39(5): 793-803.

Kizirian NV, Kong Y, Muirhead R et al (2016) Effects of a low-glycemic index diet during pregnancy on offspring growth, body composition, and vascular health: a pilot randomized controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 103(4): 1073-82.

Moses RG, Casey SA, Quinn EG et al (2014) Pregnancy and Glycemic Index Outcomes study: effects of low glycemic index compared with conventional dietary advice on selected pregnancy outcomes. *Am J Clin Nutr* 99(3): 517-23.

Skouteris H, McPhie S, Hill B et al (2016) Health coaching to prevent excessive gestational weight gain: A randomized-controlled trial. *Br J Health Psychol* 21(1): 31-51.

#### Study included in a systematic review

Karamanos B, Thanopoulou A, Anastasiou E et al (2013) Relation of the Mediterranean diet with the incidence of gestational diabetes. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 68(1): 8-13.

Markovic TP, Muirhead R, Overs S et al (2016) Randomized Controlled trial investigating the effects of a low-glycemic index diet on pregnancy outcomes in women at high risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: The GI Baby 3 Study. *Diabetes Care* 39(1): 31-8.

Petherick ES, Tuffnell D, Wright J (2014) Experiences and outcomes of maternal Ramadan fasting during pregnancy: results from a sub-cohort of the Born in Bradford birth cohort study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 335.

Seckin KD, Yeral MI, Karsli MF et al (2014) Effect of maternal fasting for religious beliefs on fetal sonographic findings and neonatal outcomes. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 126(2): 123-5.

#### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

Gresham E, Byles JE, Bisquera A et al (2014) Effects of dietary interventions on neonatal and infant outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *American J Clin Nutrition* 100(5): 1298-321.

#### Overview of studies included individually

Peaceman AM, Clifton RG, Phelan S et al (2018) Lifestyle interventions limit gestational weight gain in women with overweight or obesity: LIFE-Moms Prospective meta-analysis. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 26(9): 1396-404.

#### Pregnancy not reported separately

Garcia-Larsen V, Ierodiakonou D, Jarrold K et al (2018) Diet during pregnancy and infancy and risk of allergic or autoimmune disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Med* 15(2): e1002507.

Netting MJ, Middleton PF, Makrides M (2014) Does maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation affect outcomes in offspring? A systematic review of food-based approaches. *Nutrition* 30(11-12): 1225-41.

#### Not generalisable to the Australian context

Mani I, Dwarkanath P, Thomas T et al (2016) Maternal fat and fatty acid intake and birth outcomes in a South Indian population. *Int J Epidemiol* 45(2): 523-31.

Pathirathna ML, Sekijima K, Sadakata M et al (2017) Impact of second trimester maternal dietary intake on gestational weight gain and neonatal birth weight. *Nutrients* 9(6).

### Supplements (question 3)

#### Vitamin B9 (folic acid)

##### Wrong study design

Alfonso VH, Bandoli G, von Ehrenstein O et al (2018) Early folic acid supplement initiation and risk of adverse early childhood respiratory health: a population-based study. *Matern Child Health J* 22(1): 111-19.

Fortes C, Mastroeni S, Mannooranparampil TJ et al (2019) Pre-natal folic acid and iron supplementation and atopic dermatitis in the first 6 years of life. *Arch Dermatol Res* 311(5): 361-67.

Taylor CM, Atkinson C, Penfold C et al (2015) Folic acid in pregnancy and mortality from cancer and cardiovascular disease: further follow-up of the Aberdeen folic acid supplementation trial. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 69(8): 789-94.

Veeranki SP, Gebretsadik T, Dorris SL et al (2014) Association of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy and infant bronchiolitis. *Am J Epidemiol* 179(8): 938-46.

Veeranki SP, Gebretsadik T, Mitchel EF et al (2015) Maternal folic acid supplementation during pregnancy and early childhood asthma. *Epidemiology* 26(6): 934-41.

Yan J, Liu Y, Cao L et al (2017) Association between duration of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy and risk of postpartum depression. *Nutrients* 9(11).

Yu Y, Gu G, Yang J et al (2017) Correlation between folic acid supplement in different stage of pregnancy and wheezing in infants: a case-control study. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 10(9): 13950-53.

Zetstra-van der Woude PA, De Walle HE, Hoek A et al (2014) Maternal high-dose folic acid during pregnancy and asthma medication in the offspring. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 23(10): 1059-65.

##### Duplicate

Bixenstine PJ, Cheng TL, Cheng D et al (2015) Association between preconception counseling and folic acid supplementation before pregnancy and reasons for non-use. *Matern Child Health J* 19(9): 1974-84.

Hodgetts VA, Morris RK, Francis A et al. Effectiveness of folic acid supplementation in pregnancy on reducing the risk of small-for-gestational age neonates: a population study, systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG*. 2015; 122(4): 478-90.

USPST (2017) Folic acid supplementation for the prevention of neural tube defects: us preventive services task force recommendation statement. *JAMA* 317(2): 183-89.

##### Narrative review

Gao Y, Sheng C, Xie RH et al (2016) New perspective on impact of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy on neurodevelopment/autism in the offspring children - a systematic review. *PLoS One* 11(11): e0165626.

Gomes S, Lopes C, Pinto E (2016) Folate and folic acid in the periconceptional period: recommendations from official health organizations in thirty-six countries worldwide and WHO. *Public Health Nutr* 19(1): 176-89.

Murray LK, Smith MJ, Jadavji NM (2018) Maternal oversupplementation with folic acid and its impact on neurodevelopment of offspring. *Nutr Rev* 76(9): 708-21.

USPST (2017) Folic acid supplementation for the prevention of neural tube defects: us preventive services task force recommendation statement. *JAMA* 317(2): 183-89.

van Gool JD, Hirche H, Lax H et al (2018) Folic acid and primary prevention of neural tube defects: A review. *Reprod Toxicol* 80: 73-84.

Xie RH, Liu YJ, Retnakaran R et al (2016) Maternal folate status and obesity/insulin resistance in the offspring: a systematic review. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 40(1): 1-9.

##### Wrong population

Brown SB, Reeves KW, Bertone-Johnson ER (2014) Maternal folate exposure in pregnancy and childhood asthma and allergy: a systematic review. *Nutr Rev* 72(1): 55-64.

de Smit DJ, Weinreich SS, Cornel MC (2015) Effects of a simple educational intervention in well-baby clinics on women's knowledge about and intake of folic acid supplements in the periconceptional period: a controlled trial. *Public Health Nutr* 18(6): 1119-26.

Nguyen PH, Gonzalez-Casanova I, Young MF et al (2017) Preconception micronutrient supplementation with iron and folic acid compared with folic acid alone affects linear growth and fine motor development at 2 years of age: a randomized controlled trial in vietnam. *J Nutr* 147(8): 1593-601.

Suren P, Roth C, Bresnahan M et al (2013) Association between maternal use of folic acid supplements and risk of autism spectrum disorders in children. *JAMA* 309(6): 570-7.

Toivonen KI, Lacroix E, Flynn M et al (2018) Folic acid supplementation during the preconception period: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prev Med* 114: 1-17.

##### Not relevant to the Australian context

Cawley S, Mullaney L, McKeating A et al (2016a) Knowledge about folic acid supplementation in women presenting for antenatal care. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 70(11): 1285-90.

##### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

Crider KS, Cordero AM, Qi YP et al (2013) Prenatal folic acid and risk of asthma in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr* 98(5): 1272-81.

##### Observational study included in a systematic review

Czeizel AE, Vereczkey A, Szabo I (2015) Folic acid in pregnant women associated with reduced prevalence of severe congenital heart defects in their children: a national population-based case-control study. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 193: 34-9.

##### Does not answer research question

Cawley S, Mullaney L, McKeating A et al (2016b) A review of European guidelines on periconceptional folic acid supplementation. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 70(2): 143-54.

Chilukuri N, Cheng TL, Psoter KJ et al (2018) Effectiveness of a pediatric primary care intervention to increase maternal folate use: results from a cluster randomized controlled trial. *J Pediatr* 192: 247-52 e1.

Gildestad T, Bjorge T, Vollset SE et al (2015) Folic acid supplements and risk for oral clefts in the newborn: a population-based study. *Br J Nutr* 114(9): 1456-63.

Roy A, Kocak M, Hartman TJ et al (2018) Association of prenatal folate status with early childhood wheeze and atopic dermatitis. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 29(2): 144-50.

Shere M, Nguyen P, Tam C et al (2015) Pregnancy-induced changes in the long-term pharmacokinetics of 1.1 mg vs. 5 mg folic acid: a randomized clinical trial. *J Clin Pharmacol* 55(2): 159-67.

Yang L, Jiang L, Bi M et al (2015) High dose of maternal folic acid supplementation is associated to infant asthma. *Food Chem Toxicol* 75: 88-93. [Pregnancy not reported separately]

Yang X, Chen H, Du Y et al (2016) Periconceptional folic acid fortification for the risk of gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Matern Child Nutr* 12(4): 669-79.

#### Other B vitamins

##### Wrong study design

Falsaperla R, Saporito MAN, Di Stefano V et al (2017) Pyridoxine supplementation during pregnancy, lactation and the first months of life: A review of the literature. *Curr Pediatr Res* 21(4): 613-19.

Jeruszka-Bielak M, Isman C, Schroder TH et al (2017) South Asian ethnicity is related to the highest risk of vitamin B12 deficiency in pregnant Canadian women. *Nutrients* 9(4).

O'Malley EG, Reynolds CME, Cawley S et al (2018) Folate and vitamin B12 levels in early pregnancy and maternal obesity. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 231: 80-84.

Pawlak R, Lester SE, Babatunde T (2014) The prevalence of cobalamin deficiency among vegetarians assessed by serum vitamin B12: a review of literature. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 68(5): 541-8.

Schroder TH, Sinclair G, Mattman A et al (2017) Pregnant women of South Asian ethnicity in Canada have substantially lower vitamin B12 status compared with pregnant women of European ethnicity. *Br J Nutr* 118(6): 454-62.

Sukumar N, Venkataraman H, Wilson S et al (2016) Vitamin B12 Status among pregnant women in the UK and Its association with obesity and gestational diabetes. *Nutrients* 8(12).

##### Does not answer research question

Devi S, Mukhopadhyay A, Dwarkanath P et al (2017) Combined vitamin B-12 and balanced protein-energy supplementation affect homocysteine remethylation in the methionine cycle in pregnant south indian women of low vitamin B-12 status. *J Nutrit* 147(6): 1094-103.

Raghavan R, Riley AW, Volk H et al (2018) Maternal multivitamin intake, plasma folate and vitamin B12 levels and autism spectrum disorder risk in offspring. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 32(1): 100-11.

Whitfield KC, Karakochuk CD, Kroeun H et al (2016) Perinatal consumption of thiamine-fortified fish sauce in rural cambodia: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Pediatr* 170(10): e162065.

#### Vitamin C

##### Wrong population

Azami M, Azadi T, Farhang S et al (2017) The effects of multi mineral-vitamin D and vitamins (C+E) supplementation in the prevention of preeclampsia: An RCT. *Int J Reprod Biomed (Yazd)* 15(5): 273-78. [High-risk pregnancies]

Zhou K, West HM, Zhang J et al (2015) Interventions for leg cramps in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(8): CD010655.

Yieh L, McEvoy CT, Hoffman SW et al (2018) Cost effectiveness of vitamin c supplementation for pregnant smokers to improve offspring lung function at birth and reduce childhood wheeze/asthma. *J Perinatol* 38(7): 820-27.

##### Narrative review

FIGO Working Group on Good Clinical Practice in Maternal-Fetal Medicine (2019) Good clinical practice advice: Micronutrients in the periconceptional period and pregnancy. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 144(3): 317-21.

Grzeskowiak L (2018) Vitamin and mineral supplementation during pregnancy: Is more necessarily better? *J Pharm Prac Res* 48: 106-07. [Editorial]

##### RCT included in another systematic review

Casanueva E, Ripoll C, Tolentino M et al (2005) Vitamin C supplementation to prevent premature rupture of the chorioamniotic membranes: a randomized trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 81(4): 859-63.

##### Wrong intervention

Chavatte-Palmer P, Cohen JM, Beddaoui M et al (2015) Maternal antioxidant levels in pregnancy and risk of preeclampsia and small for gestational age birth: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Plos One* 10(8).

##### Does not answer research question

Tita AT, Doherty L, Roberts JM et al (2018) Adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes in indicated compared with spontaneous preterm birth in healthy nulliparas: A secondary analysis of a randomized trial. *Am J Perinatol* 35(7): 624-31.

#### Vitamin E

##### Duplicate

Azami M, Azadi T, Farhang S et al (2017) The effects of multi mineral-vitamin D and vitamins (C+E) supplementation in the prevention of preeclampsia: An RCT. *Int J Reprod Biomed (Yazd)* 15(5): 273-78. [High-risk pregnancies]

##### RCT included in systematic review

Abramovici A, Gandley RE, Clifton RG et al (2015) Prenatal vitamin C and E supplementation in smokers is associated with reduced placental abruption and preterm birth: a secondary analysis. *BJOG* 122(13): 1740-7.

#### Vitamin A

##### Wrong outcomes

Ahmad SM, Alam MJ, Khanam A et al (2018) Vitamin A supplementation during pregnancy enhances pandemic H1N1 Vaccine response in mothers, but enhancement of transplacental antibody transfer may depend on when mothers are vaccinated during pregnancy. *The Journal of Nutrition* 148(12): 1968-75.

##### Narrative review

Cruz S, da Cruz SP, Ramalho A (2018) Impact of Vitamin A supplementation on pregnant women and on women who have just given birth: A systematic review. *J Am Coll Nutr* 37(3): 243-50.

##### No intervention

Cohen JM, Beddaoui M, Kramer MS et al (2015) Maternal antioxidant levels in pregnancy and risk of preeclampsia and small for gestational age birth: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 10(8): e0135192.

Hanson C, Schumacher MV, Lyden E et al (2018) Fat-soluble vitamins A and E and health disparities in a cohort of pregnant women at delivery. *J Nutr Sci* 7: e14.

#### Multiple micronutrients

##### Wrong population

Akison LK, Kuo J, Reid N et al (2018) Effect of choline supplementation on neurological, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes in offspring arising from alcohol exposure during development: a quantitative systematic review of clinical and preclinical studies. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research* 42(9): 1591-611.

Looman M, Schoenaker D, Soedamah-Muthu SS et al (2019) Pre-pregnancy dietary micronutrient adequacy is associated with lower risk of developing gestational diabetes in Australian women. *Nutr Res* 62: 32-40.

##### Does not answer research question

Barenys M, Masjosthusmann S, Fritsche E (2017) Is intake of flavonoid-based food supplements during pregnancy safe for the developing child? a literature review. *Curr Drug Targets* 18(2): 196-231.

Caudill MA, Strupp BJ, Muscalu L et al (2018) Maternal choline supplementation during the third trimester of pregnancy improves infant information processing speed: a randomized, double-blind, controlled feeding study. *FASEB J* 32(4): 2172-80.

Larson LM & Yousafzai AK (2017) A meta-analysis of nutrition interventions on mental development of children under-two in low- and middle-income countries. *Matern Child Nutr* 13(1).

Leermakers ET, Moreira EM, Kiefte-de Jong JC et al (2015) Effects of choline on health across the life course: a systematic review. *Nutr Rev* 73(8): 500-22.

Masih SP, Plumptre L, Ly A et al (2015) Pregnant Canadian women achieve recommended intakes of one-carbon nutrients through prenatal supplementation but the supplement composition, including choline, requires reconsideration. *J Nutr* 145(8): 1824-34.

Wilkinson D, Shepherd E, Wallace EM (2016) Melatonin for women in pregnancy for neuroprotection of the fetus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 3: CD010527.

##### Duplicate

Perkins AV & Vanderlelie JJ (2016) Multiple micronutrient supplementation and birth outcomes: The potential importance of selenium. *Placenta* 48 Suppl 1: S61-S65.

##### Narrative review

Biesalski HK & Tinz J (2017) Multivitamin/mineral supplements: Rationale and safety - A systematic review. *Nutrition* 33: 76-82.

FIGO Working Group on Good Clinical Practice in Maternal-Fetal Medicine (2019) Good clinical practice advice: Micronutrients in the periconceptional period and pregnancy. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 144(3): 317-21.

Gernand AD (2019) The upper level: examining the risk of excess micronutrient intake in pregnancy from antenatal supplements. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1444(1): 22-34.

Parisi F, di Bartolo I, Savasi VM et al (2019) Micronutrient supplementation in pregnancy: Who, what and how much? *Obstet Med* 12(1): 5-13.

Perkins AV & Vanderlelie JJ (2016) Multiple micronutrient supplementation and birth outcomes: The potential importance of selenium. *Placenta* 48 Suppl 1: S61-S65.

Sparling TM, Henschke N, Nesbitt RC et al (2017) The role of diet and nutritional supplementation in perinatal depression: a systematic review. *Matern Child Nutr* 13(1).

##### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

Devakumar D, Fall CH, Sachdev HS et al (2016) Maternal antenatal multiple micronutrient supplementation for long-term health benefits in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Med* 14: 90.

Taylor RM, Fealy SM, Bisquera A et al (2017) Effects of nutritional interventions during pregnancy on infant and child cognitive outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 9(11).

##### Does not report on pregnancy separately

Garcia-Larsen V, Ierodiakonou D, Jarrold K et al (2018) Diet during pregnancy and infancy and risk of allergic or autoimmune disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Med* 15(2): e1002507.

##### Not relevant to the Australian contetx

Quinn MK, Smith ER, Williams PL et al (2020) The effect of maternal multiple micronutrient supplementation on female early infant mortality is fully mediated by increased gestation duration and intrauterine growth. *J Nutr* 150(2): 356-63.

Suchdev PS, Pena-Rosas JP, De-Regil LM (2015) Multiple micronutrient powders for home (point-of-use) fortification of foods in pregnant women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(6): CD011158.

#### Iron

##### Wrong population

Ali MK, Abbas AM, Abdelmagied AM et al (2017) A randomized clinical trial of the efficacy of single versus double-daily dose of oral iron for prevention of iron deficiency anemia in women with twin gestations. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 30(23): 2884-89.

Angulo-Barroso RM, Li M, Santos DC et al (2016) Iron Supplementation in Pregnancy or Infancy and Motor Development: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Pediatrics* 137(4).

Nguyen PH, Young M, Gonzalez-Casanova I et al (2016) Impact of Preconception Micronutrient Supplementation on Anemia and Iron Status during Pregnancy and Postpartum: A Randomized Controlled Trial in Rural Vietnam. *PLoS One* 11(12): e0167416.

##### Systematic literature review with all studies included in another systematic review

Cantor AG, Bougatsos C, Dana T et al (2015) Routine iron supplementation and screening for iron deficiency anemia in pregnancy: a systematic review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Ann Intern Med* 162(8): 566-76.

##### Narrative review

Iqbal S & Ekmekcioglu C (2019) Maternal and neonatal outcomes related to iron supplementation or iron status: a summary of meta-analyses. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 32(9): 1528-40.

##### Wrong comparator

Matias SL, Mridha MK, Young RT et al (2018) Daily Maternal Lipid-Based Nutrient Supplementation with 20 mg Iron, Compared with Iron and Folic Acid with 60 mg Iron, Resulted in Lower Iron Status in Late Pregnancy but Not at 6 Months Postpartum in Either the Mothers or Their Infants in Bangladesh. *J Nutr* 148(10): 1615-24.

Serdula MK, Zhou Y, Li H et al (2019) Prenatal iron containing supplements provided to Chinese women with no or mild anemia had no effect on hemoglobin concentration in post-partum women or their infants at 6 and 12 months of age. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 73(11): 1473-79.

Wang L, Mei Z, Li H et al (2016) Modifying effects of maternal Hb concentration on infant birth weight in women receiving prenatal iron-containing supplements: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Nutr* 115(4): 644-9.

##### Does not answer research question

Yadav K, Ahamed F, Kant S et al (2018) Effect of directly observed oral iron supplementation during pregnancy on iron status in a rural population in Haryana: A randomized controlled trial. *Indian Journal of Public Health* 62(4).

#### Calcium

##### Wrong population

Hofmeyr GJ & Manyame S (2017) Calcium supplementation commencing before or early in pregnancy, or food fortification with calcium, for preventing hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 9: CD011192.

Hofmeyr GJ, Betrán AP, Singata-Madliki M et al (2019) Prepregnancy and early pregnancy calcium supplementation among women at high risk of pre-eclampsia: a multicentre, double-blind, randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *The Lancet* 393(10169): 330-39.

##### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

An L-b, Li W-t, Xie T-n et al (2015) Calcium supplementation reducing the risk of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and related problems: A meta-analysis of multicentre randomized controlled trials. *International Journal of Nursing Practice* 21: 19-31.

##### Wrong interevention

Asemi Z, Samimi M, Siavashani MA et al (2016) Calcium-Vitamin D Co-supplementation Affects Metabolic Profiles, but not Pregnancy Outcomes, in Healthy Pregnant Women. *Int J Prev Med* 7: 49.

Mansouri A, Mirghafourvand M, Charandabi SMA et al (2017) The effect of Vitamin D and calcium plus Vitamin D on leg cramps in pregnant women: A randomized controlled trial. *J Res Med Sci* 22: 24.

##### Does not answer research question

Cormick AP, Betran IB, Romero CF et al (2019) Global inequities in dietary calcium intake during pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG* 126(4):444-456.

Jung ME, Stork MJ, Stapleton J et al (2016) A systematic review of behavioural interventions to increase maternal calcium intake. *Matern Child Nutr* 12(2): 193-204.

Ward KA, Jarjou L, Prentice A (2017) Long-term effects of maternal calcium supplementation on childhood growth differ between males and females in a population accustomed to a low calcium intake. *Bone* 103: 31-38.

#### Iodine

##### Duplicate

Abel MH, Brandlistuen RE, Caspersen IH et al (2019) Language delay and poorer school performance in children of mothers with inadequate iodine intake in pregnancy: results from follow-up at 8 years in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Eur J Nutr* 58(8): 3047-58.

Farebrother J, Naude CE, Nicol L et al (2018) Effects of iodized salt and iodine supplements on prenatal and postnatal growth: a systematic review. *Adv Nutr* 9(3): 219-37.

Mitchell EKL, Martin JC, D'Amore A et al (2018) Maternal iodine dietary supplements and neonatal thyroid stimulating hormone in Gippsland, Australia. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr* 27(4): 848-52.

##### Wrong study design

Abel MH, Brandlistuen RE, Caspersen IH et al (2019) Language delay and poorer school performance in children of mothers with inadequate iodine intake in pregnancy: results from follow-up at 8 years in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Eur J Nutr* 58(8): 3047-58.

Abel MH, Caspersen IH, Meltzer HM et al (2017a) Suboptimal maternal iodine intake is associated with impaired child neurodevelopment at 3 years of age in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *J Nutr* 147(7): 1314-24.

Abel MH, Ystrom E, Caspersen IH et al (2017b) Maternal iodine intake and offspring attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: results from a large prospective cohort study. *Nutrients* 9(11).

Berg V, Nost TH, Skeie G et al (2017) Thyroid homeostasis in mother-child pairs in relation to maternal iodine status: the MISA study. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 71(8): 1002-07.

Bliddal S, Boas M, Hilsted L et al (2017) Increase in thyroglobulin antibody and thyroid peroxidase antibody levels, but not preterm birth-rate, in pregnant Danish women upon iodine fortification. *Eur J Endocrinol* 176(5): 603-12.

Candido AC, Morais NS, Dutra LV et al (2019) Insufficient iodine intake in pregnant women in different regions of the world: a systematic review. *Arch Endocrinol Metab* 63(3): 306-11.

Charoenratana C, Leelapat P, Traisrisilp K et al (2016) Maternal iodine insufficiency and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Matern Child Nutr* 12(4): 680-7.

Chen R, Li Q, Cui W et al (2018) Maternal iodine insufficiency and excess are associated with adverse effects on fetal growth: a prospective cohort study in Wuhan, China. *J Nutr* 148(11): 1814-20.

De Leo S, Pearce EN, Braverman LE (2017) Iodine supplementation in women during preconception, pregnancy, and lactation: Current Clinical practice by U.S. Obstetricians and Midwives. *Thyroid* 27(3): 434-39.

Dold S, Zimmermann MB, Jukic T et al (2018) Universal salt iodization provides sufficient dietary iodine to achieve adequate iodine nutrition during the first 1000 days: a cross-sectional multicenter study. *J Nutr* 148(4): 587-98.

Hynes KL, Otahal P, Burgess JR et al (2017) Reduced educational outcomes persist into adolescence following mild iodine deficiency in utero, despite adequacy in childhood: 15-year follow-up of the gestational iodine cohort investigating auditory processing speed and working memory. *Nutrients* 9(12).

Levie D, Korevaar TIM, Bath SC et al (2019) Association of Maternal iodine status with child IQ: A meta-analysis of individual participant data. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 104(12): 5957-67.

Manousou S, Johansson B, Chmielewska A et al (2018) Role of iodine-containing multivitamins during pregnancy for children's brain function: protocol of an ongoing randomised controlled trial: the SWIDDICH study. *BMJ Open* 8(4): e019945.

Murcia M, Espada M, Julvez J et al (2018) Iodine intake from supplements and diet during pregnancy and child cognitive and motor development: the INMA Mother and Child Cohort Study. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 72(3): 216-22.

Reynolds AN & Skeaff SA (2018) Maternal adherence with recommendations for folic acid and iodine supplements: A cross-sectional survey. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 58(1): 125-27.

Rochau U, Qerimi Rushaj V, Schaffner M et al (2020) Decision-analytic modeling studies in prevention and treatment of iodine deficiency and thyroid disorders: a systematic overview. *Thyroid*.

Torlinska B, Bath SC, Janjua A et al (2018) Iodine status during pregnancy in a region of mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency is not associated with adverse obstetric outcomes; results from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC). *Nutrients* 10(3).

Wang Z, Li C, Teng Y et al (2020) The effect of iodine-containing vitamin supplementation during pregnancy on thyroid function in late pregnancy and postpartum depression in an iodine-sufficient area. *Biol Trace Elem Res*.

Zhou SJ, Condo D, Ryan P et al (2019) Association between maternal iodine intake in pregnancy and childhood neurodevelopment at age 18 months. *Am J Epidemiol* 188(2): 332-38.

##### Narrative review

Alexander EK, Pearce EN, Brent GA et al (2017) 2017 Guidelines of the American Thyroid Association for the diagnosis and management of thyroid disease during pregnancy and the postpartum. *Thyroid* 27(315-89).

##### Does not answer research question

Amiri P, Hamzavi Zarghani N, Nazeri P et al (2017) Can an educational intervention improve iodine nutrition status in pregnant women? a randomized controlled trial. *Thyroid* 27(3): 418-25.

Pearce EN, Lazarus JH, Moreno-Reyes R et al (2016) Consequences of iodine deficiency and excess in pregnant women: an overview of current knowns and unknowns. *Am J Clin Nutr* 104 Suppl 3: 918S-23S.

Nazarpour S, Ramezani Tehrani F, Behboudi-Gandevani S et al (2019) Maternal urinary iodine concentration and pregnancy outcomes in euthyroid pregnant women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Biol Trace Elem Res*.

##### Wrong population

Ashman AM, Collins CE, Weatherall LJ et al (2016) Dietary intakes and anthropometric measures of Indigenous Australian women and their infants in the Gomeroi gaaynggal cohort. *J Dev Orig Health Dis* 7(5): 481-97. [Postnatal]

Burns K, Yap C, Mina A et al (2018) Iodine deficiency in women of childbearing age: not bread alone? *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr* 27(4): 853-59.

McKenna E, Hure A, Perkins A et al (2017) Dietary supplement use during preconception: The Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health. *Nutrients* 9(10).

#### Zinc

##### Wrong outcomes

Ahmad SM, Hossain MB, Monirujjaman M et al (2016) Maternal zinc supplementation improves hepatitis B antibody responses in infants but decreases plasma zinc level. *Eur J Nutr* 55(5): 1823-9.

Mispireta ML, Caulfield LE, Zavaleta N et al (2017) Effect of maternal zinc supplementation on the cardiometabolic profile of Peruvian children: results from a randomized clinical trial. *J Dev Orig Health Dis* 8(1): 56-64.

##### Wrong population

Karamali M, Heidarzadeh Z, Seifati SM et al (2016) Zinc Supplementation and the effects on pregnancy outcomes in gestational diabetes: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes* 124(1): 28-33.

Karamali M, Bahramimoghadam S, Sharifzadeh F et al (2018) Magnesium-zinc-calcium-vitamin D co-supplementation improves glycemic control and markers of cardiometabolic risk in gestational diabetes: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 43(6): 565-70.

Mesdaghinia E, Naderi F, Bahmani F et al (2019) The effects of zinc supplementation on clinical response and metabolic profiles in pregnant women at risk for intrauterine growth restriction: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*: 1-7.

Roshanravan N, Alizadeh M, Hedayati M et al (2015) Effect of zinc supplementation on insulin resistance, energy and macronutrients intakes in pregnant women with impaired glucose tolerance. *Iran J Public Health* 44(2): 211-7.

Roshanravan N, Tarighat-Esfanjani A, Mesri Alamdari N et al (2018) The effects of zinc supplementation on inflammatory parameters in pregnant women with impaired glucose tolerance: a randomized placebo controlled clinical trial. *Prog Nutrition* 20(Suppl 1): 330-36.

Roshanravan N, Alizadeh M, Asghari Jafarabadi M et al (2019) Effect of prenatal zinc supplementation on adipose tissue-derived hormones and neonatal weight, height and head circumference in women with impaired glucose tolerance test: randomized clinical controlled trial. *Int J Diabetes Developing Countries*: 39(3): 471-7.

Shah D, Sachdev HS, Gera T et al (2016) Fortification of staple foods with zinc for improving zinc status and other health outcomes in the general population. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(6): CD010697.

Shahnazi M, Farshbaf Khalili A, Azimi S (2016) Effect of zinc supplement on prevention of PPROM and improvement of some pregnancy outcomes in pregnant women with a history of PPROM: A randomized double -blind controlled trial. *Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal* 19(3).

##### Narrative review

Terrin G, Berni Canani R, Di Chiara M et al (2015) Zinc in early life: a key element in the fetus and preterm neonate. *Nutrients* 7(12): 10427-46.

Wilson RL, Grieger JA, Bianco-Miotto T et al (2016) Association between maternal zinc status, dietary zinc intake and pregnancy complications: A systematic review. *Nutrients* 8(10).

##### Does not answer research question

Naem NE, El-Sayed NM, Nossier SA et al (2014) Zinc status and dietary intake of pregnant women, Alexandria, Egypt. *J Egypt Public Health Assoc* 89(1): 35-41.

#### Magnesium

##### Duplicate

Veronese N, Demurtas J, Pesolillo G et al (2020) Magnesium and health outcomes: an umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses of observational and intervention studies. *Eur J Nutr* 59(1): 263-72.

##### Wrong study design

Alves JG, de Araujo CA, Pontes IE et al (2014) The BRAzil MAGnesium (BRAMAG) trial: a randomized clinical trial of oral magnesium supplementation in pregnancy for the prevention of preterm birth and perinatal and maternal morbidity. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 222. [Protocol]

Veronese N, Watutantrige-Fernando S, Luchini C et al (2016) Effect of magnesium supplementation on glucose metabolism in people with or at risk of diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of double-blind randomized controlled trials. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 70(12): 1463. [Corrigendum]

##### Not supplementation

Lai JS, Cai S, Feng L et al (2019) Associations of maternal zinc and magnesium with offspring learning abilities and cognitive development at 4 years in GUSTO. *Nutr Neurosci*: 1-10.

##### Wrong population

Asemi Z, Karamali M, Jamilian M et al (2015) Magnesium supplementation affects metabolic status and pregnancy outcomes in gestational diabetes: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 102(1): 222-29.

Fard FE, Mirghafourvand M, Mohammad-Alizadeh Charandabi S et al (2017) Effects of zinc and magnesium supplements on postpartum depression and anxiety: A randomized controlled clinical trial. *Women Health* 57(9): 1115-28.

##### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

Veronese N, Demurtas J, Pesolillo G et al (2020) Magnesium and health outcomes: an umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses of observational and intervention studies. *Eur J Nutr* 59(1): 263-72.

#### Selenium

##### Wrong study design

Barman M, Brantsaeter AL, Nilsson S et al. Maternal dietary selenium intake is associated with increased gestational length and decreased risk of preterm delivery. *Br J Nutr*. 2020; 123(2): 209-19.

Pieczynska J, Placzkowska S, Sozanski R et al. Is maternal dietary selenium intake related to antioxidant status and the occurrence of pregnancy complications? *J Trace Elem Med Biol*. 2019; 54: 110-7.

##### Wrong intervention

Guo Y, Yu P, Zhu J et al. High maternal selenium levels are associated with increased risk of congenital heart defects in the offspring. *Prenat Diagn*. 2019; 39(12): 1107-14.

Lewandowska M, Sajdak S, Lubinski J. The role of early pregnancy maternal selenium levels on the risk for small-for-gestational age newborns. *Nutrients*. 2019; 11(10).

Lewandowska M, Sajdak S, Lubiński J. Serum selenium level in early healthy pregnancy as a risk marker of pregnancy induced hypertension. *Nutrients*. 2019; 11(5).

##### Wrong population

Mesdaghinia E, Rahavi A, Bahmani F et al (2017) Clinical and metabolic response to selenium supplementation in pregnant women at risk for intrauterine growth restriction: randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Biol Trace Elem Res* 178(1): 14-21.

##### Narrative review

Lewicka I, Kocyłowski R, Grzesiak M et al (2017) Selected trace elements concentrations in pregnancy and their possible role — literature review. *Ginekologia Polska* 88(9): 509-14.

Mirone M, Giannetta E, Isidori AM (2013) Selenium and reproductive function. A systematic review. *J Endocrinol Invest* 36(10 Suppl): 28-36.

### Nutritionally based complementary medicines (question 4)

#### Herbal preparations

##### Non-ingested modalities

Adlan AS, Chooi KY, Mat Adenan NA (2017) Acupressure as adjuvant treatment for the inpatient management of nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy: A double-blind randomized controlled trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 43(4): 662-68.

Buchberger B & Krabbe L (2018) Evaluation of outpatient acupuncture for relief of pregnancy-related conditions. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 141(2): 151-58.

Chang HC, Yu CH, Chen SY et al (2015) The effects of music listening on psychosocial stress and maternal-fetal attachment during pregnancy. *Complement Ther Med* 23(4): 509-15.

Chen PJ, Chou CC, Yang L et al (2017) Effects of aromatherapy massage on pregnant women's stress and immune function: a longitudinal, prospective, randomized controlled trial. *J Altern Complement Med* 23(10): 778-86.

Clarkson CE, O'Mahony D, Jones DE (2015) Adverse event reporting in studies of penetrating acupuncture during pregnancy: a systematic review. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 94(5): 453-64.

Corbijn van Willenswaard K, Lynn F, McNeill J et al (2017) Music interventions to reduce stress and anxiety in pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Psychiatry* 17(1): 271.

Coyle ME, Smith CA, Peat B (2012) Cephalic version by moxibustion for breech presentation. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(5): CD003928.

Effati-Daryani F, Mohammad-Alizadeh-Charandabi S, Mirghafourvand M et al (2018) Effect of lavender cream with or without footbath on sleep quality and fatigue in pregnancy and postpartum: a randomized controlled trial. *Women Health* 58(10): 1179-91.

Emami-Sahebi A, Elyasi F, Yazdani-Charati J et al (2018) Psychological interventions for nausea and vomiting of pregnancy: A systematic review. *Taiwan J Obstet Gynecol* 57(5): 644-49.

Garcia-Mochon L, Martin JJ, Aranda-Regules JM et al (2015) Cost effectiveness of using moxibustion to correct non-vertex presentation. *Acupunct Med* 33(2): 136-41.

Hensel KL, Roane BM, Chaphekar AV et al (2016) PROMOTE Study: Safety of osteopathic manipulative treatment during the third trimester by labor and delivery outcomes. *J Am Osteopath Assoc* 116(11): 698-703.

Joulaeerad N, Ozgoli G, Hajimehdipoor H et al (2018) Effect of aromatherapy with peppermint oil on the severity of nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a single-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *J Reprod Infertil* 19(1): 32-38.

Liu YH, Lee CS, Yu CH et al (2016) Effects of music listening on stress, anxiety, and sleep quality for sleep-disturbed pregnant women. *Women Health* 56(3): 296-311.

Marc I, Toureche N, Ernst E et al (2011) Mind-body interventions during pregnancy for preventing or treating women's anxiety. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(7): CD007559.

Mirghafourvand M, Sehhati Shafaie F, Mohammad-Alizadeh-Charandabi S et al (2016) Effect of vocalization of the Holy Quran with and without translation on pregnancy outcomes: a randomized clinical trial. *Iran Red Crescent Med J* 18(9): e35421.

Ozkan SA & Rathfisch G (2018) The effect of relaxation exercises on sleep quality in pregnant women in the third trimester: A randomized controlled trial. *Complement Ther Clin Pract* 32: 79-84.

Park J, Sohn Y, White AR et al (2014) The safety of acupuncture during pregnancy: a systematic review. *Acupunct Med* 32(3): 257-66.

Sananes N, Roth GE, Aissi GA et al (2016) Acupuncture version of breech presentation: a randomized sham-controlled single-blinded trial. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 204: 24-30.

Smith CA, Shewamene Z, Galbally M et al (2019) The effect of complementary medicines and therapies on maternal anxiety and depression in pregnancy: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Affect Disord* 245: 428-39.

Soltanipour F, Delaram M, Taavoni S et al (2014) The effect of olive oil and the Saj® cream in prevention of striae gravidarum: A randomized controlled clinical trial. *Complementary Therapies in Medicine* 22(2): 220-25.

Tragea C, Chrousos GP, Alexopoulos EC et al (2014) A randomized controlled trial of the effects of a stress management programme during pregnancy. *Complement Ther Med* 22(2): 203-11.

Van den Heuvel E, Goossens M, Vanderhaegen H et al (2016) Effect of acustimulation on nausea and vomiting and on hyperemesis in pregnancy: a systematic review of Western and Chinese literature. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 16: 13.

Yavari Kia P, Safajou F, Shahnazi M et al (2014) The effect of lemon inhalation aromatherapy on nausea and vomiting of pregnancy: a double-blinded, randomized, controlled clinical trial. *Iran Red Crescent Med J* 16(3): e14360.

Zahra M, Fateme B, Fatemeh MK et al (2019) The effect of Benson’s muscle relaxation technique on severity of pregnancy nausea. *Electronic Journal of General Medicine* 16(2).

##### Narrative review

Adams J, Steel A, Frawley J et al (2017) Substantial out-of-pocket expenditure on maternity care practitioner consultations and treatments during pregnancy: estimates from a nationally-representative sample of pregnant women in Australia. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 17(1): 114.

Ahmed M, Hwang JH, Choi S et al (2017) Safety classification of herbal medicines used among pregnant women in Asian countries: a systematic review. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 17(1): 489.

Babbar S, Williams KB, Maulik D (2017) Complementary and alternative medicine use in modern obstetrics: a survey of the central association of obstetricians & gynecologists members. *J Evid Based Complementary Altern Med* 22(3): 429-35.

Barenys M, Masjosthusmann S, Fritsche E (2017) Is Intake of flavonoid-based food supplements during pregnancy safe for the developing child? a literature review. *Curr Drug Targets* 18(2): 196-231.

Barnes LAJ, Barclay L, McCaffery K et al (2018) Complementary medicine products used in pregnancy and lactation and an examination of the information sources accessed pertaining to maternal health literacy: a systematic review of qualitative studies. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 18(1): 229.

Barnes LAJ, Barclay L, McCaffery K et al (2019a) Complementary medicine products: Information sources, perceived benefits and maternal health literacy. *Women Birth* 32(6): 493-520.

Barnes LAJ, Barclay L, McCaffery K et al (2019b) Women's health literacy and the complex decision-making process to use complementary medicine products in pregnancy and lactation. *Health Expect* 22(5): 1013-27.

Belica AL, Ćetković NB, Milić NB et al (2017) Herbal therapy in pregnancy - what to expect when you expect? *Natural Product Comm* 12(12): 1957-69.

Bowman D, Steel A, Adams J et al (2014) The characteristics of women using different forms of botanical medicines to manage pregnancy-related health conditions: A preliminary cross-sectional analysis. *Advances in Integrative Medicine* 1(3): 138-43.

Dante G, Bellei G, Neri I et al (2014) Herbal therapies in pregnancy: what works? *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol* 26(2): 83-91.

Frawley J, Adams J, Broom A et al (2014) Majority of women are influenced by nonprofessional information sources when deciding to consult a complementary and alternative medicine practitioner during pregnancy. *J Altern Complement Med* 20(7): 571-7.

Frawley J, Sibbritt D, Broom A et al (2016a) Complementary and alternative medicine practitioner use prior to pregnancy predicts use during pregnancy. *Women Health* 56(8): 926-39.

Frawley J, Sundberg T, Steel A et al (2016b) Prevalence and characteristics of women who consult with osteopathic practitioners during pregnancy; a report from the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH). *J Bodyw Mov Ther* 20(1): 168-72.

Ghouri F, Hollywood A, Ryan K (2018) A systematic review of non-antibiotic measures for the prevention of urinary tract infections in pregnancy. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 18(1): 99.

Gilmartin CE, Vo-Tran TH, Leung L (2018) Complementary medicines in pregnancy: recommendations and information sources of healthcare professionals in Australia. *Int J Clin Pharm* 40(2): 421-27.

Khorasani F, Aryan H, Sobhi A et al (2020) A systematic review of the efficacy of alternative medicine in the treatment of nausea and vomiting of pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 40(1): 10-19.

Mollart L, Stulz V, Foureur M (2019) Midwives' personal views and beliefs about complementary and alternative medicine (CAM): A national survey. *Complement Ther Clin Pract* 34: 235-39.

Munoz Balbontin Y, Stewart D, Shetty A et al (2019) Herbal medicinal product use during pregnancy and the postnatal period: a systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol* 133(5): 920-32.

O'Donnell A, McParlin C, Robson SC et al (2016) Treatments for hyperemesis gravidarum and nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a systematic review and economic assessment. *Health Technol Assess* 20(74): 1-268.

Ozgoli G & Saei Ghare Naz M (2018) Effects of complementary medicine on nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a systematic review. *Int J Prev Med* 9: 75.

Peng W, Lauche R, Frawley J et al (2018) Utilization of complementary and alternative medicine and conventional medicine for headache or migraine during pregnancy: A cross-sectional survey of 1,835 pregnant women. *Complement Ther Med* 41: 192-95.

Sibbritt DW, Catling CJ, Adams J et al (2014) The self-prescribed use of aromatherapy oils by pregnant women. *Women Birth* 27(1): 41-5.

Steel A (2016) Important considerations of the use of complementary and alternative medicine through pregnancy, labour and birth: an update based on recent Australian research. *Aust J Herb Med* 28(2): 36-40.

Steel A, Adams J, Sibbritt D et al (2014) Determinants of women consulting with a complementary and alternative medicine practitioner for pregnancy-related health conditions. *Women Health* 54(2): 127-44.

Steel A, Hall H, Diezel H et al (2019) Filling the gaps in contemporary maternity care: The perceptions of complementary medicine practitioners providing care to women during pregnancy. *Complement Ther Clin Pract* 34: 174-78.

##### Does not answer research question

Boelig RC, Barton SJ, Saccone G et al (2018) Interventions for treating hyperemesis gravidarum: a Cochrane systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 31(18): 2492-505.

Jo J, Lee SH, Lee JM et al (2016) Use and safety of Korean herbal medicine during pregnancy: A Korean medicine literature review. *European Journal of Integrative Medicine* 8(1): 4-11.

Raikkonen K, Martikainen S, Pesonen AK et al (2017) Maternal licorice consumption during pregnancy and pubertal, cognitive, and psychiatric outcomes in children. *Am J Epidemiol* 185(5): 317-28.

Shawahna R & Taha A (2017) Which potential harms and benefits of using ginger in the management of nausea and vomiting of pregnancy should be addressed? A consensual study among pregnant women and gynecologists. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 17(1): 204.

##### Wrong comparator

Boltman-Binkowski H (2016) A systematic review: Are herbal and homeopathic remedies used during pregnancy safe? *Curationis* 39(1): 1514.

Jafari-Dehkordi E, Hashem-Dabaghian F, Aliasl F et al (2017) Comparison of quince with vitamin B6 for treatment of nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a randomised clinical trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 37(8): 1048-52.

Shakeri A, Hashempur MH, Mojibian M et al (2018) A comparative study of ranitidine and quince (Cydonia oblonga mill) sauce on gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) in pregnancy: a randomised, open-label, active-controlled clinical trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 38(7): 899-905.

##### Wrong outcomes

Cao H, Wu R, Han M et al (2017) Oral administration of Chinese herbal medicine during gestation period for preventing hemolytic disease of the newborn due to ABO incompatibility: A systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *PLoS One* 12(7): e0180746.

##### Wrong intervention

Dennis CL & Dowswell T (2013) Interventions (other than pharmacological, psychosocial or psychological) for treating antenatal depression. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(7): CD006795.

Evans K, Morrell CJ, Spiby H (2018) Systematic review and meta-analysis of non-pharmacological interventions to reduce the symptoms of mild to moderate anxiety in pregnant women. *J Adv Nurs* 74(2): 289-309.

##### Duplicate

Frawley J, Adams J, Steel A et al (2015) Women's use and self-prescription of herbal medicine during pregnancy: an examination of 1,835 pregnant women. *Womens Health Issues* 25(4): 396-402.

##### RCT included in a systematic review

Sharifzadeh F, Kashanian M, Koohpayehzadeh J et al (2018) A comparison between the effects of ginger, pyridoxine (vitamin B6) and placebo for the treatment of the first trimester nausea and vomiting of pregnancy (NVP). *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 31(19): 2509-14.

##### Systematic review with all studies included in another systematic review

Matthews A, Haas DM, O'Mathuna DP et al (2015) Interventions for nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(9): CD007575.

McParlin C, O'Donnell A, Robson SC et al (2016) Treatments for hyperemesis gravidarum and nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a systematic review. *JAMA* 316(13): 1392-401.

#### Probiotics

##### Supplementation beyond pregnancy

Allen SJ, Jordan S, Storey M et al (2014) Probiotics in the prevention of eczema: a randomised controlled trial. *Arch Dis Child* 99(11): 1014-9.

Baldassarre ME, Di Mauro A, Mastromarino P et al (2016) Administration of a multi-strain probiotic product to women in the perinatal period differentially affects the breast milk cytokine profile and may have beneficial effects on neonatal gastrointestinal functional symptoms. a randomized clinical trial. *Nutrients* 8(11).

Garcia-Larsen V, Ierodiakonou D, Jarrold K et al (2018) Diet during pregnancy and infancy and risk of allergic or autoimmune disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Med* 15(2): e1002507.

Kallio S, Kukkonen AK, Savilahti E et al (2019) Perinatal probiotic intervention prevented allergic disease in a Caesarean-delivered subgroup at 13-year follow-up. *Clin Exp Allergy* 49(4): 506-15.

Mansfield JA, Bergin SW, Cooper JR et al (2014) Comparative probiotic strain efficacy in the prevention of eczema in infants and children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Mil Med* 179(6): 580-92.

Simpson MR, Dotterud CK, Storro O et al (2015) Perinatal probiotic supplementation in the prevention of allergy related disease: 6 year follow up of a randomised controlled trial. *BMC Dermatol* 15: 13.

Slykerman RF, Hood F, Wickens K et al (2017) Effect of Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 in pregnancy on postpartum symptoms of depression and anxiety: a randomised double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *EBioMedicine* 24: 159-65.

Slykerman RF, Kang J, Van Zyl N et al (2018) Effect of early probiotic supplementation on childhood cognition, behaviour and mood a randomised, placebo-controlled trial. *Acta Paediatr* 107(12): 2172-78.

Wickens K, Barthow C, Mitchell EA et al (2018a) Effects of Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 in early life on the cumulative prevalence of allergic disease to 11 years. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 29(8): 808-14.

Wickens K, Barthow C, Mitchell EA et al (2018b) Maternal supplementation alone with Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 during pregnancy and breastfeeding does not reduce infant eczema. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 29(3): 296-302.

Zuccotti G, Meneghin F, Aceti A et al (2015) Probiotics for prevention of atopic diseases in infants: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Allergy* 70(11): 1356-71.

##### Wrong study design

Bertelsen RJ, Brantsaeter AL, Magnus MC et al (2014) Probiotic milk consumption in pregnancy and infancy and subsequent childhood allergic diseases. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 133(1): 165-71 e1-8.

Nordqvist M, Jacobsson B, Brantsaeter AL et al (2018) Timing of probiotic milk consumption during pregnancy and effects on the incidence of preeclampsia and preterm delivery: a prospective observational cohort study in Norway. *BMJ Open* 8(1): e018021.

##### Wrong comparator

Asgharian H, Homayouni-Rad A, Mirghafourvand M et al (2020) Effect of probiotic yoghurt on plasma glucose in overweight and obese pregnant women: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Eur J Nutr* 59(1): 205-15.

Fernandez L, Cardenas N, Arroyo R et al (2016) Prevention of infectious mastitis by oral administration of Lactobacillus salivarius PS2 during late pregnancy. *Clin Infect Dis* 62(5): 568-73.

Mantaring J, Benyacoub J, Destura R et al (2018) Effect of maternal supplement beverage with and without probiotics during pregnancy and lactation on maternal and infant health: a randomized controlled trial in the Philippines. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 18(1): 193.

##### Wrong outcomes

Jamilian M, Bahmani F, Vahedpoor Z et al (2016) Effects of probiotic supplementation on metabolic status in pregnant women: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Arch Iran Med* 19(10): 687-82.

##### Systematic review with studies included in another systematic review

Barrett HL, Dekker Nitert M, Conwell LS et al (2014) Probiotics for preventing gestational diabetes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(2): CD009951.

Cuello-Garcia CA, Brozek JL, Fiocchi A et al (2015) Probiotics for the prevention of allergy: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 136(4): 952-61.

Li L, Han Z, Niu X et al (2019) Probiotic supplementation for prevention of atopic dermatitis in infants and children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Dermatol* 20(3): 367-77.

Panduru M, Panduru NM, Salavastru CM et al (2015) Probiotics and primary prevention of atopic dermatitis: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled studies. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol* 29(2): 232-42.

Szajewska H & Horvath A (2018) Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG in the primary prevention of eczema in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 10(9).

Zhang GQ, Hu HJ, Liu CY et al (2016) Probiotics for prevention of atopy and food hypersensitivity in early childhood: A PRISMA-compliant systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 95(8): e2562.

Zheng J, Feng Q, Zheng S et al (2018) The effects of probiotics supplementation on metabolic health in pregnant women: An evidence based meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 13(5): e0197771.

##### Does not answer research question

Davies G, Jordan S, Brooks CJ et al (2018) Long term extension of a randomised controlled trial of probiotics using electronic health records. *Sci Rep* 8(1): 7668.

##### Letter

Peldan P, Kukkonen AK, Savilahti E et al (2017) Perinatal probiotics decreased eczema up to 10 years of age, but at 5-10 years, allergic rhino-conjunctivitis was increased. *Clin Exp Allergy* 47(7): 975-79.

### Physical activity (questions 5, 6 and 9)

#### Not in English

Fritel X, Fauconnier A, De Tayrac R et al. [Prevent postnatal urinary incontinence by prenatal pelvic floor exercise? Rationale and protocol of the multicenter randomized study PreNatal Pelvic floor Prevention (3PN)]. *Journal de Gynécologie Obstétrique et Biologie de la Reproduction*. 2008; 37(5): 441-48.

Park SH, Kang CB, Jang SY et al. [Effect of Kegel exercise to prevent urinary and fecal incontinence in antenatal and postnatal women: systematic review]. *J Korean Acad Nurs*. 2013; 43(3): 420-30.

#### Duplicate

Artal R, O'Toole M. Guidelines of the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists for exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. *Br J Sports Med*. 2003; 37(1): 6-12; discussion

Bacchi M, Mottola MF, Perales M et al. Aquatic Activities During Pregnancy Prevent Excessive Maternal Weight Gain and Preserve Birth Weight: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Am J Health Promot*. 2018; 32(3): 729-35.

Barakat R, Franco E, Perales M et al. Exercise during pregnancy is associated with a shorter duration of labor. A randomized clinical trial. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2018; 224: 33-40.

Barakat R, Refoyo I, Coteron J et al. Exercise during pregnancy has a preventative effect on excessive maternal weight gain and gestational diabetes. A randomized controlled trial. *Braz J Phys Ther*. 2019; 23(2): 148-55.

Broekhuizen K, Simmons D, Devlieger R et al. Cost-effectiveness of healthy eating and/or physical activity promotion in pregnant women at increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: economic evaluation alongside the DALI study, a European multicenter randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2018; 15(1): 23.

Craemer KA, Sampene E, Safdar N et al. Nutrition and Exercise Strategies to Prevent Excessive Pregnancy Weight Gain: A Meta-analysis. *AJP Rep.* 2019; 9(1): e92-e120.

Davenport MH, Kathol AJ, Mottola MF et al. Prenatal exercise is not associated with fetal mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 108-15.

Davenport MH, McCurdy AP, Mottola MF et al. Impact of prenatal exercise on both prenatal and postnatal anxiety and depressive symptoms: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1376-85.

Davenport MH, Ruchat SM, Sobierajski F et al. Impact of prenatal exercise on maternal harms, labour and delivery outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 99-107.

Davenport MH, Yoo C, Mottola MF et al. Effects of prenatal exercise on incidence of congenital anomalies and hyperthermia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med.* 2019; 53(2): 116-23.

El-Shamy Fayiz F, Abd El Fatah E. Effect of Antenatal Pelvic Floor Muscle Exercise on Mode of Delivery: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Integrative Medicine International.* 2018; 4(3-4): 187-97.

Garnaes KK, Morkved S, Salvesen KA et al. Exercise training during pregnancy reduces circulating insulin levels in overweight/obese women postpartum: secondary analysis of a randomised controlled trial (the ETIP trial). *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2018; 18(1): 18.

Kahyaoglu Sut H, Balkanli Kaplan P. Effect of pelvic floor muscle exercise on pelvic floor muscle activity and voiding functions during pregnancy and the postpartum period. *Neurourol Urody*n. 2016; 35(3): 417-22.

Kennelly MA, Ainscough K, Lindsay KL et al. Pregnancy exercise and nutrition with smartphone application support. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*. 2018; 131(5): 818-26.

Kong KL, Campbell C, Wagner K et al. Impact of a walking intervention during pregnancy on post-partum weight retention and infant anthropometric outcomes. *J Dev Orig Health Dis*. 2014; 5(3): 259-67.

Kunath J, Gunther J, Rauh K et al. Effects of a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy to prevent excessive gestational weight gain in routine care - the cluster-randomised GeliS trial. *BMC Med*. 2019; 17(1): 5.

Madsen M, Jorgensen T, Jensen ML et al. Leisure time physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage: a study within the Danish National Birth Cohort. *BJOG.* 2007; 114(11): 1419-26.

Magro-Malosso ER, Saccone G, Di Mascio D et al. Exercise during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth in overweight and obese women: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2017; 96(3): 263-73.

Mijatovic-Vukas J, Capling L, Cheng S et al. Associations of Diet and Physical Activity with Risk for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*. 2018; 10(6).

Mottola MF, Nagpal TS, Bgeginski R et al. Is supine exercise associated with adverse maternal and fetal outcomes? A systematic review. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 82-9.

Nino Cruz GI, Ramirez Varela A, da Silva ICM et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment: A systematic review. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2018; 32(4): 369-79.

Nobles C, Marcus BH, Stanek EJ, 3rd et al. The Effect of an exercise intervention on gestational weight gain: The Behaviors Affecting Baby and You (B.A.B.Y.) Study: A randomized controlled trial. *Am J Health Promot*. 2018; 32(3): 736-44.

Nobles C, Marcus BH, Stanek EJ, 3rd et al. The effect of an exercise intervention on gestational weight gain: The Behaviors Affecting Baby and You (B.A.B.Y.) study: A randomized controlled trial. *Am J Health Promot*. 2018; 32(3): 736-44.

O'Brien EC, Segurado R, Geraghty AA et al. Impact of maternal education on response to lifestyle interventions to reduce gestational weight gain: individual participant data meta-analysis. *BMJ Open*. 2019; 9(8): e025620.

Prapavessis H, De Jesus S, Harper T et al. The effects of acute exercise on tobacco cravings and withdrawal symptoms in temporary abstinent pregnant smokers. *Addict Behav*. 2014; 39(3): 703-8.

Price BB, Amini SB, Kappeler K. Exercise in pregnancy: effect on fitness and obstetric outcomes-a randomized trial. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2012; 44(12): 2263-9.

Rodriguez-Blanque R, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Sanchez-Lopez AM et al. The influence of physical activity in water on sleep quality in pregnant women: A randomised trial. *Women Birth.* 2018; 31(1): e51-e8.

Shieh C, Cullen DL, Pike C et al. Intervention strategies for preventing excessive gestational weight gain: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obes Rev.* 2018; 19(8): 1093-109.

Ussher M, Lewis S, Aveyard P et al. The London Exercise And Pregnant smokers (LEAP) trial: a randomised controlled trial of physical activity for smoking cessation in pregnancy with an economic evaluation. *Health Technol Assess. 2015; 19(84): vii-xxiv, 1-135.*

Van Horn L, Peaceman A, Kwasny M et al. Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension Diet and Activity to Limit Gestational Weight: Maternal Offspring Metabolics Family Intervention Trial, a Technology Enhanced Randomized Trial. *Am J Prev Med.* 2018; 55(5): 603-14.

Walker R, Bennett C, Blumfield M et al. Attenuating Pregnancy Weight Gain-What Works and Why: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*. 2018; 10(7).

Yu Y, Xie R, Shen C et al. Effect of exercise during pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2018; 31(12): 1632-7.

#### Narrative review

Abbasi M and van den Akker O. A systematic review of changes in women’s physical activity before and during pregnancy and the postnatal period. *J Reproductive Infant Psych*. 2015; 33(4): 325–58.

ACOG Committee Opinion No. 650: Physical activity and exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2015; 126(6): e135-42.

Agha-Jaffar R, Oliver N, Johnston D et al. Gestational diabetes mellitus: does an effective prevention strategy exist? *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2016; 12(9): 533-46.

Ahluwahlia M. Supporting the individual needs of obese pregnant women: Effects of risk-management processes. *Brit J Midwifery.* 2015; 23(10): 702-08.

Ainscough KM, Lindsay KL, O'Sullivan EJ et al. Behaviour change in overweight and obese pregnancy: a decision tree to support the development of antenatal lifestyle interventions. *Public Health Nutr*. 2017; 20(14): 2642-8.

Albright E. Exercise during pregnancy. *Curr Sports Med Rep*. 2016; 15(4): 226-7.

Alvarez-Bueno C, Cavero-Redondo I, Sanchez-Lopez M et al. Pregnancy leisure physical activity and children's neurodevelopment: a narrative review. BJOG. 2018; 125(10): 1235-42.

Álvarez-Bueno C, Cavero-Redondo I, Sánchez-López M et al. Pregnancy leisure physical activity and children's neurodevelopment: a narrative review. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology*. 2018; 125(10): 1235-42.

Alves JGB, Alves GV. Effects of physical activity on children's growth. J Pediatr (Rio J). 2019; 95 Suppl 1: 72-8.

Artal R, O'Toole M. Guidelines of the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists for exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. *Br J Sports Med*. 2003; 37(1): 6-12; discussion

Artal R. Exercise in pregnancy: Guidelines. *Clin Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 59(3): 639-44.

Artal R. The role of exercise in reducing the risks of gestational diabetes mellitus in obese women. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol*. 2015; 29(1): 123-32.

Barakat R, Perales M, Garatachea N et al. Exercise during pregnancy. A narrative review asking: what do we know? *Br J Sports Med*. 2015; 49(21): 1377-81.

Bell, R. The effects of vigorous exercise during pregnancy on birth weight. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2002; 5(1): 32-36.

Berghella V, Saccone G. Exercise in pregnancy! *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2017; 216(4): 335-7.

Bezerra KC, Rocha SR, Oriá MOB et al. Interventions for the prevention of urinary incontinence during prenatal care: An integrative review. *Braz J Nurs.* 2016; 15(1).

Bianchi C, Aragona M, Bertolotto et al. Improving prescription of physical exercise in prophylaxis/therapy of gestational diabetes: A survey from evidence to current recommendations. *Ital J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2016; 28(4): 15-22.

Blaize AN, Pearson KJ, Newcomer SC. Impact of maternal exercise during pregnancy on offspring chronic disease susceptibility. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*. 2015; 43(4): 198-203.

Boissonnault JS, Klestinski JU, Pearcy K. The Role of exercise in the management of pelvic girdle and low back pain in pregnancy. *Journal of Womenʼs Health Physical Therapy*. 2012; 36(2): 69-77.

Bonzini M, Coggon D, Palmer KT. Risk of prematurity, low birthweight and pre-eclampsia in relation to working hours and physical activities: a systematic review. *Occup Environ Med*. 2007; 64(4): 228-43.

Bredin SS, Foulds HJ, Burr JF et al. Risk assessment for physical activity and exercise clearance: in pregnant women without contraindications. *Can Fam Physician*. 2013; 59(5): 515-7.

Chan CWH, Au Yeung E, Law BMH. Effectiveness of Physical Activity Interventions on Pregnancy-Related Outcomes among Pregnant Women: A Systematic Review. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2019; 16(10).

Charlesworth S, Foulds HJ, Burr JF et al. Evidence-based risk assessment and recommendations for physical activity clearance: pregnancy. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2011; 36 Suppl 1: S33-48.

Curtis K, Weinrib A, Katz J. Systematic review of yoga for pregnant women: current status and future directions. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med*. 2012; 2012: 715942.

Dalrymple KV, Martyni-Orenowicz J, Flynn AC et al. Can antenatal diet and lifestyle interventions influence childhood obesity? A systematic review. Matern Child Nutr. 2018; 14(4): e12628.

Davies GAL, Wolfe LA, Mottola MF et al. No. 129-Exercise in Pregnancy and the Postpartum Period. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can*. 2018; 40(2): e58-e65.

Dipietro L, Evenson KR, Bloodgood B et al. Benefits of Physical Activity during Pregnancy and Postpartum: An Umbrella Review. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2019; 51(6): 1292-302.

Downs DS, Chasan-Taber L, Evenson KR et al. Physical activity and pregnancy: past and present evidence and future recommendations. *Res Q Exerc Sport*. 2012; 83(4): 485-502.

Evenson KR, Mottola MF, Artal R. Review of recent physical activity guidelines during pregnancy to facilitate advice by health care providers. Obstet Gynecol Surv. 2019; 74(8): 481-9.

Ferraro ZM, Gaudet L, Adamo KB. The potential impact of physical activity during pregnancy on maternal and neonatal outcomes. *Obstet Gynecol Surv*. 2012; 67(2): 99-110.

Flak AL, Yun Tark J, Tinker SC et al. Major, non-chromosomal, birth defects and maternal physical activity: a systematic review. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol*. 2012; 94(7): 521-31.

Flynn AC, Dalrymple K, Barr S et al. Dietary interventions in overweight and obese pregnant women: a systematic review of the content, delivery, and outcomes of randomized controlled trials. *Nutr Rev*. 2016; 74(5): 312-28.

Hassall J. Exercise in pregnancy: A review of current evidence. *Essentially MIDIRS*. 2011; 2(1): 39-42.

Hegaard HK, Ersboll AS, Damm P. Exercise in pregnancy: First trimester risks. *Clin Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 59(3): 559-67.

Hewage SS, Wu S, Neelakantan N et al. Systematic review of effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of lifestyle interventions to improve clinical diabetes outcome measures in women with a history of GDM. Clin Nutr ESPEN. 2020; 35: 20-9.

Hilde G, Bo K. The pelvic floor during pregnancy and after childbirth, and the effect of pelvic floor muscle training on urinary incontinence - a literature review. *Current Women s Health Reviews*. 2015; 11(1): 19-30.

Hinman SK, Smith KB, Quillen DM et al. Exercise in pregnancy: A clinical review. *Sports Health*. 2015; 7(6): 527-31.

Hollenbach D, Broker R, Herlehy S et al. Non-pharmacological interventions for sleep quality and insomnia during pregnancy: A systematic review. *J Can Chiropr Assoc*. 2013; 57(3): 260-70.

Jovanovic-Peterson L, Peterson CM. Review of gestational diabetes mellitus and low-calorie diet and physical exercise as therapy. *Diabetes Metab Rev*. 1996; 12(4): 287-308.

Kader M, Naim-Shuchana S. Physical activity and exercise during pregnancy. *European Journal of Physiotherapy*. 2013; 16(1): 2-9.

Kaiser L, Allen LH, American Dietetic A. Position of the American Dietetic Association: nutrition and lifestyle for a healthy pregnancy outcome. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2008; 108(3): 553-61.

Kehler AK, Heinrich KM. A selective review of prenatal exercise guidelines since the 1950s until present: Written for women, health care professionals, and female athletes. *Women Birth*. 2015; 28(4): e93-8.

Kolomanska D, Zarawski M, Mazur-Bialy A. Physical Activity and Depressive Disorders in Pregnant Women-A Systematic Review. Medicina (Kaunas). 2019; 55(5).

Kolomanska-Bogucka D, Mazur-Bialy AI. Physical activity and the occurrence of postnatal depression-a systematic review. Medicina (Kaunas). 2019; 55(9).

Lillios S, Young J. The Effects of core and lower extremity strengthening on pregnancy-related low back and pelvic girdle pain. *Journal of Womenʼs Health Physical Therapy*. 2012; 36(3): 116-24.

Lindbohm ML. Physical workload--a risk factor for miscarriage? *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2013; 39(4): 321-3.

Liu N, Gou WH, Wang J et al. Effects of exercise on pregnant women's quality of life: A systematic review. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol. 2019; 242: 170-7.

MacDonald LA, Waters TR, Napolitano PG et al. Clinical guidelines for occupational lifting in pregnancy: evidence summary and provisional recommendations. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2013; 209(2): 80-8.

Makaruk B, Galczak-Kondraciuk A, Forczek W et al. The Effectiveness of Regular Exercise Programs in the Prevention of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus-A Systematic Review. Obstet Gynecol Surv. 2019; 74(5): 303-12.

McCarty-Singleton S, Sciscione AC. Maternal activity restriction in pregnancy and the prevention of preterm birth: an evidence-based review. *Clin Obstet Gynecol*. 2014; 57(3): 616-27.

Mitanchez D, Ciangura C, Jacqueminet S. How Can Maternal Lifestyle Interventions Modify the Effects of Gestational Diabetes in the Neonate and the Offspring? A Systematic Review of Meta-Analyses. Nutrients. 2020; 12(2).

Mooventhan A. A comprehensive review on scientific evidence-based effects (including adverse effects) of yoga for normal and high-risk pregnancy-related health problems. J Bodyw Mov Ther. 2019; 23(4): 721-7.

Morkved S, Bo K. Effect of pelvic floor muscle training during pregnancy and after childbirth on prevention and treatment of urinary incontinence: a systematic review. *Br J Sports Med*. 2014; 48(4): 299-310.

Mottola MF, Davenport MH, Ruchat SM et al. No. 367-2019 Canadian Guideline for Physical Activity throughout Pregnancy. J Obstet Gynaecol Can. 2018; 40(11): 1528-37.

Nascimento SL, Surita FG, Cecatti JG. Physical exercise during pregnancy: a systematic review. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2012; 24(6): 387-94.

Nicodemus NA, Jr. Prevention of excessive gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention. *Curr Obes Rep*. 2018; 7(2): 105-11.

Norman JE, Reynolds RM. Prescribing Exercise and Lifestyle Training for High Risk Women in Pregnancy and Early Post-partum-Is It Worth It? *PLoS Med*. 2016; 13(7): e1002093.

Obinna EA, Martins NUN, Ugochukwu N et al. Effects of aerobic exercise on the gestational weight gain of healthy pregnant women–a systematic review. Indian J Physiother Occupat Ther. 2019; 13(2): 29-32.

Padayachee C, Coombes JS. Exercise guidelines for gestational diabetes mellitus. *World J Diabetes*. 2015; 6(8): 1033-44.

Palmer KT, Bonzini M, Bonde JP et al. Pregnancy: occupational aspects of management: concise guidance. *Clin Med (Lond)*. 2013; 13(1): 75-9.

Poudevigne MS, O'Connor PJ. A review of physical activity patterns in pregnant women and their relationship to psychological health. *Sports Med*. 2006; 36(1): 19-38.

Priett MD & Caputo J. Exercise guidelines for pregnant and postpartum women. Strength and Conditioning J. 2011; 33(3): 100-103.

Rasmussen KM, Catalano PM, Yaktine AL. New guidelines for weight gain during pregnancy: what obstetrician/gynecologists should know. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2009; 21(6): 521-6.

Reyes LM, Davenport MH. Exercise as a therapeutic intervention to optimize fetal weight. *Pharmacol Res*. 2018; 132: 160-7.

Savvaki D, Taousani E, Goulis DG et al. Guidelines for exercise during normal pregnancy and gestational diabetes: a review of international recommendations. Hormones (Athens). 2018; 17(4): 521-9.

Schmidt SM, Chari R, Davenport MH. Exercise during pregnancy: Current recommendations by Canadian Maternity Health Care Providers. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can*. 2016; 38(2): 177-8.

Schnirring L. New ACOG recommendations encourage exercise in pregnancy. *The Physician and Sportsmedicine*. 2015; 30(8): 9-10.

Siebel AL, Carey AL, Kingwell BA. Can exercise training rescue the adverse cardiometabolic effects of low birth weight and prematurity? *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol*. 2012; 39(11): 944-57.

Skouteris H, Hartley-Clark L, McCabe M et al. Preventing excessive gestational weight gain: a systematic review of interventions. *Obes Rev*. 2010; 11(11): 757-68.

Smith KM, Campbell CG. Physical activity during pregnancy: impact of applying different physical activity guidelines. *J Pregnancy*. 2013; 2013: 165617.

Szumilewicz A, Wojtyla A, Zarebska A et al. Influence of prenatal physical activity on the course of labour and delivery according to the new Polish standard for perinatal care. *Ann Agric Environ Med*. 2013; 20(2): 380-9.

Szumilewicz A, Worska A, Raikowska N et al. Summary of guidelines for exercise in pregnancy — are they comprehensive enough for designing the contents of a prenatal exercise program. *Curr Women’s Health Rev*. 2015; 11: 3-12.

Szumilewicz A. Who and how should prescribe and conduct exercise programs for pregnant women? Recommendation based on the European educational standards for pregnancy and postnatal exercise specialists. Dev Period Med. 2018; 22(2): 107-12.

Van Kampen M, Devoogdt N, De Groef A et al. The efficacy of physiotherapy for the prevention and treatment of prenatal symptoms: a systematic review. *Int Urogynecol J*. 2015; 26(11): 1575-86.

Weissgerber TL, Wolfe LA, Davies GA et al. Exercise in the prevention and treatment of maternal-fetal disease: a review of the literature. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab*. 2006; 31(6): 661-74.

Wolf HT, Owe KM, Juhl M et al. Erratum to: Leisure time physical activity and the risk of pre-eclampsia: a systematic review. *Matern Child Health J*. 2014; 18(4): 2020-2023.

Wolf HT, Owe KM, Juhl M et al. Leisure time physical activity and the risk of pre-eclampsia: a systematic review. *Matern Child Health J*. 2014; 18(4): 899-910.

Wolfe LA, Davies GA, School of P et al. Canadian guidelines for exercise in pregnancy. *Clin Obstet Gynecol*. 2003; 46(2): 488-95.

Zavorsky GS, Longo LD. Exercise guidelines in pregnancy: new perspectives. *Sports Med*. 2011; 41(5): 345-60.

#### Wrong setting

Huberty JL, Buman MP, Leiferman JA et al. Dose and timing of text messages for increasing physical activity among pregnant women: a randomized controlled trial. *Translational Behavioral Medicine*. 2016; 7(2): 212-23.

Lewis BA, Martinson BC, Sherwood NE et al. A pilot study evaluating a telephone-based exercise intervention for pregnant and postpartum women. *J Midwifery Womens Health*. 2011; 56(2): 127-31.

Mertens L, Braeken M, Bogaerts A. Effect of lifestyle coaching including telemonitoring and telecoaching on gestational weight gain and postnatal weight loss: a systematic review. *Telemed J E Health*. 2019; 25(10): 889-901.

#### Wrong intervention

Agur W, Steggles P, Waterfield M et al. Does antenatal pelvic floor muscle training affect the outcome of labour? A randomised controlled trial. *Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct*. 2008; 19(1): 85-8.

Agur WI, Steggles P, Waterfield M et al. The long-term effectiveness of antenatal pelvic floor muscle training: eight-year follow up of a randomised controlled trial. *BJOG*. 2008; 115(8): 985-90.

Davis K, Goodman SH, Leiferman J et al. A randomized controlled trial of yoga for pregnant women with symptoms of depression and anxiety. *Complement Ther Clin Pract*. 2015; 21(3): 166-72.

Hyakutake MT, Han V, Baerg L et al. Pregnancy-associated pelvic floor health knowledge and reduction of symptoms: The PREPARED randomized controlled trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can*. 2018; 40(4): 418-25.

Jiang Q, Wu Z, Zhou L et al. Effects of yoga intervention during pregnancy: a review for current status. *Am J Perinatol*. 2015; 32(6): 503-14.

Leon-Larios F, Corrales-Gutierrez I, Casado-Mejia R et al. Influence of a pelvic floor training programme to prevent perineal trauma: A quasi-randomised controlled trial. *Midwifery*. 2017; 50: 72-7.

Miquelutti MA, Cecatti JG, Makuch MY. Evaluation of a birth preparation program on lumbopelvic pain, urinary incontinence, anxiety and exercise: a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2013; 13: 154.

Mohammadi F, Malakooti J, Babapoor J et al. The effect of a home-based exercise intervention on postnatal depression and fatigue: A randomized controlled trial. *Int J Nurs Pract*. 2015; 21(5): 478-85.

Ozkan SA & Rathfisch G (2018) The effect of relaxation exercises on sleep quality in pregnant women in the third trimester: A randomized controlled trial. *Complement Ther Clin Pract* 32: 79-84.

Pelaez M, Gonzalez-Cerron S, Montejo R et al. Pelvic floor muscle training included in a pregnancy exercise program is effective in primary prevention of urinary incontinence: a randomized controlled trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2014; 33(1): 67-71.

Reilly ET, Freeman RM, Waterfield MR et al. Prevention of postpartum stress incontinence in primigravidae with increased bladder neck mobility: a randomised controlled trial of antenatal pelvic floor exercises. *BJOG*. 2002; 109(1): 68-76.

Sangsawang B, Sangsawang N. Is a 6-week supervised pelvic floor muscle exercise program effective in preventing stress urinary incontinence in late pregnancy in primigravid women?: a randomized controlled trial. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2016; 197: 103-10.

Sobhgol SS, Priddis H, Smith CA et al (2019) The Effect of Pelvic Floor Muscle Exercise on Female Sexual Function During Pregnancy and Postpartum: A Systematic Review. *Sex Med Rev* 7(1): 13-28.

#### Wrong study design

Abeysena C, Jayawardana P, Seneviratne RdA. Effect of psychosocial stress and physical activity on preterm birth: A cohort study. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Research*. 2010; 36(2): 260-7.

Aune D, Saugstad OD, Henriksen T et al. Physical activity and the risk of preeclampsia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Epidemiology*. 2014; 25(3): 331-43.

Aune D, Sen A, Henriksen T et al. Physical activity and the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2016; 31(10): 967-97.

Barakat R, Perales M, Cordero Y et al. Influence of land or water exercise in pregnancy on outcomes: A cross-sectional study. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2017; 49(7): 1397-403.

Borodulin K, Evenson KR, Monda K et al. Physical activity and sleep among pregnant women. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2010; 24(1): 45-52.

Callaway LK, Colditz PB, Byrne NM et al. Prevention of gestational diabetes: feasibility issues for an exercise intervention in obese pregnant women. *Diabetes Care*. 2010; 33(7): 1457-9.

de Wit L, Jelsma JG, van Poppel MN et al. Physical activity, depressed mood and pregnancy worries in European obese pregnant women: results from the DALI study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2015; 15: 158.

Dempsey JC, Sorensen TK, Williams MA et al. Prospective study of gestational diabetes mellitus risk in relation to maternal recreational physical activity before and during pregnancy. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2004; 159(7): 663-70.

Domingues MR, Matijasevich A, Barros AJ. Physical activity and preterm birth: a literature review. *Sports Med*. 2009; 39(11): 961-75.

Ghodsi Z, Asltoghiri M. Effects of aerobic exercise training on maternal and neonatal outcome: a randomized controlled trial on pregnant women in Iran. *J Pak Med Assoc*. 2014; 64(9): 1053-6.

Hayman M, Reaburn P, Browne M et al. Feasibility, acceptability and efficacy of a web-based computer-tailored physical activity intervention for pregnant women - the Fit4Two randomised controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2017; 17(1): 96.

Hegaard HK, Hedegaard M, Damm P et al. Leisure time physical activity is associated with a reduced risk of preterm delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2008; 198(2): 180 e1-5.

Hui AL, Ludwig S, Gardiner P et al. Community-based exercise and dietary intervention during pregnancy:A pilot study. *Canadian Journal of Diabetes*. 2006; 30(2): 1-7.

Janke J. The effect of relaxation therapy on preterm labor outcomes. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 1999; 28(3): 255-63.

Jorge C, Santos-Rocha R, Bento T. Can group exercise programs improve health outcomes in pregnant women? A systematic review. *Curr Women’s Health Rev*. 2015; 11(75-87).

Juhl M, Andersen PK, Olsen J et al. Physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of preterm birth: a study within the Danish National Birth Cohort. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2008; 167(7): 859-66.

Kasawara KT, do Nascimento SL, Costa ML et al. Exercise and physical activity in the prevention of pre-eclampsia: systematic review. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2012; 91(10): 1147-57.

Lamina S, Agbanusi E. Effect of aerobic exercise training on maternal weight gain in pregnancy: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Ethiop J Health Sci*. 2013; 23(1): 59-64.

Lee A, Karpavicius J, Gasparini E et al. Implementing a diet and exercise program for limiting maternal weight gain in obese pregnant women: a pilot study. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2012; 52(5): 427-32.

Lokey EA, Tran ZV, Wells CL et al. Effects of physical exercise on pregnancy outcomes. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*. 1991; 23(11).

Mijatovic-Vukas J, Capling L, Cheng S et al. Associations of diet and physical activity with risk for gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients*. 2018; 10(6).

Oken E, Ning Y, Rifas-Shiman SL et al. Associations of physical activity and inactivity before and during pregnancy with glucose tolerance. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2006; 108(5): 1200-7.

Ong MJ, Wallman KE, Fournier PA et al. Enhancing energy expenditure and enjoyment of exercise during pregnancy through the addition of brief higher intensity intervals to traditional continuous moderate intensity cycling. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2016; 16(1): 161.

Owe KM, Nystad W, Skjaerven R et al. Exercise during pregnancy and the gestational age distribution: a cohort study. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2012; 44(6): 1067-74.

Owe KM, Nystad W, Stigum H et al. Exercise during pregnancy and risk of cesarean delivery in nulliparous women: a large population-based cohort study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 215(6): 791 e1- e13.

Pastorino S, Bishop T, Crozier SR et al (2019) Associations between maternal physical activity in early and late pregnancy and offspring birth size: remote federated individual level meta-analysis from eight cohort studies. *BJOG* 126(4): 459-70.

Schlussel MM, Souza EB, Reichenheim ME et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and maternal-child health outcomes: a systematic literature review. *Cad Saude Publica*. 2008; 24 Suppl 4: s531-44.

Smith SA, Michel Y. A pilot study on the effects of aquatic exercises on discomforts of pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2006; 35(3): 315-23.

Strom M, Mortensen EL, Halldorson TI et al. Leisure-time physical activity in pregnancy and risk of postpartum depression: a prospective study in a large national birth cohort. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2009; 70(12): 1707-14.

Sui Z, Grivell RM, Dodd JM. Antenatal exercise to improve outcomes in overweight or obese women: A systematic review. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2012; 91(5): 538-45.

Tobias DK, Zhang C, van Dam RM et al. Physical activity before and during pregnancy and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care*. 2011; 34(1): 223-9.

Tomic V, Sporis G, Tomic J et al. The effect of maternal exercise during pregnancy on abnormal fetal growth. *Croat Med J*. 2013; 54(4): 362-8.

Zhu Y, Hedderson MM, Feng J et al. The Pregnancy Environment and Lifestyle Study (PETALS): a population-based longitudinal multi-racial birth cohort. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2017; 17(1): 122.

#### Wrong outcomes

Ainscough KM, O'Brien EC, Lindsay KL et al (2019) Nutrition, behavior change and physical activity outcomes from the pears rct-an mhealth-supported, lifestyle intervention among pregnant women with overweight and obesity. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* 10: 938.

Babbar S, Parks-Savage AC, Chauhan SP. Yoga during pregnancy: a review. *Am J Perinatol*. 2012; 29(6): 459-64.

Barakat R, Vargas M, Brik M et al (2018) Does Exercise during pregnancy affect placental weight?: a randomized clinical trial. *Eval Health Prof* 41(3): 400-14.

Benjamin DR, van de Water AT, Peiris CL. Effects of exercise on diastasis of the rectus abdominis muscle in the antenatal and postnatal periods: a systematic review. *Physiotherapy*. 2014; 100(1): 1-8.

Bhartia N, Jain S, Shankar N et al (2019) Effects of antenatal yoga on maternal stress and clinical outcomes in north indian women: a randomised controlled trial. *JIACM* 20(1): 10-14.

Brik M, Fernandez-Buhigas I, Martin-Arias A et al (2019) Does exercise during pregnancy impact on maternal weight gain and fetal cardiac function? A randomized controlled trial. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 53(5): 583-89.

Chiavaroli V, Hopkins SA, Derraik JGB et al (2018) Exercise in pregnancy: 1-year and 7-year follow-ups of mothers and offspring after a randomized controlled trial. *Sci Rep* 8(1): 12915.

Clapp JF, 3rd, Kim H, Burciu B et al. Beginning regular exercise in early pregnancy: effect on fetoplacental growth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2000; 183(6): 1484-8.

Clapp JF, 3rd, Kim H, Burciu B et al. Continuing regular exercise during pregnancy: effect of exercise volume on fetoplacental growth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2002; 186(1): 142-7.

Currie S, Sinclair M, Liddle DS et al. Application of objective physical activity measurement in an antenatal physical activity consultation intervention: a randomised controlled trial. *BMC Public Health*. 2015; 15: 1259.

El-Shamy Fayiz F, Abd El Fatah E. Effect of antenatal pelvic floor muscle exercise on mode of delivery: A randomized controlled trial. *Integrative Medicine International*. 2018; 4(3-4): 187-97.

Eslami E, Mohammad Alizadeh Charandabi S, Farshbaf Khalili A et al (2018) The effect of a lifestyle-based training package on weight gain and frequency of gestational diabetes in obese and overweight pregnant females. *Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal* In Press(In Press).

Fernandes M (2020) Child developmental follow up in obstetric RCTs: a unique opportunity. *BJOG* 127(4): 518.

Flannery C, Fredrix M, Olander EK et al (2019) Effectiveness of physical activity interventions for overweight and obesity during pregnancy: a systematic review of the content of behaviour change interventions. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 16(1): 97.

Gallagher D, Rosenn B, Toro-Ramos T et al (2018) Greater neonatal fat-free mass and similar fat mass following a randomized trial to control excess gestational weight gain. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 26(3): 578-87.

Grotenfelt NE, Wasenius N, Eriksson JG et al (2020) Effect of maternal lifestyle intervention on metabolic health and adiposity of offspring: Findings from the Finnish Gestational Diabetes Prevention Study (RADIEL). *Diabetes Metab* 46(1): 46-53.

Gunther J, Hoffmann J, Kunath J et al (2019) Effects of a lifestyle intervention in routine care on prenatal dietary behavior-findings from the cluster-randomized GeliS trial. *J Clin Med* 8(7).

Haakstad LAH, Vistad I, Sagedal LR et al. How does a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy influence perceived barriers to leisure-time physical activity? The Norwegian fit for delivery study, a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1): 127.

Hawkins M, Chasan-Taber L, Marcus B et al. Impact of an exercise intervention on physical activity during pregnancy: the behaviors affecting baby and you study. *Am J Public Health*. 2014; 104(10): e74-81.

Hellenes OM, Vik T, Lohaugen GC et al. Regular moderate exercise during pregnancy does not have an adverse effect on the neurodevelopment of the child. *Acta Paediatr*. 2015; 104(3): 285-91.

Hoffmann J, Gunther J, Geyer K et al (2019) Effects of a lifestyle intervention in routine care on prenatal physical activity - findings from the cluster-randomised GeliS trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 19(1): 414.

Kahyaoglu Sut H, Balkanli Kaplan P. Effect of pelvic floor muscle exercise on pelvic floor muscle activity and voiding functions during pregnancy and the postpartum period. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2016; 35(3): 417-22.

McMillan AG, May LE, Gaines GG et al (2019) Effects of aerobic exercise during pregnancy on 1-month infant neuromotor skills. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 51(8): 1671-76.

Mills HL, Patel N, White SL et al (2019) The effect of a lifestyle intervention in obese pregnant women on gestational metabolic profiles: findings from the UK Pregnancies Better Eating and Activity Trial (UPBEAT) randomised controlled trial. *BMC Med* 17(1): 15.

Robledo-Colonia AF, Sandoval-Restrepo N, Mosquera-Valderrama YF et al. Aerobic exercise training during pregnancy reduces depressive symptoms in nulliparous women: a randomised trial. *J Physiotherapy*. 2012; 58(1): 9-15.

Rodriguez-Blanque R, Aguilar-Cordero MJ, Marin-Jimenez AE et al (2020) Influence of a water-based exercise program in the rate of spontaneous birth: a randomized clinical trial. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 17(3).

Rogozinska E, Marlin N, Yang F et al. Variations in reporting of outcomes in randomized trials on diet and physical activity in pregnancy: A systematic review. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res*. 2017; 43(7): 1101-10.

Sahrakorpi N, Rono K, Koivusalo SB et al (2019) Effect of lifestyle counselling on health-related quality of life in women at high risk for gestational diabetes. *Eur J Public Health* 29(3): 408-12.

Sanda B, Vistad I, Sagedal LR et al. Effect of a prenatal lifestyle intervention on physical activity level in late pregnancy and the first year postpartum. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(11): e0188102.

Skow RJ, Davenport MH, Mottola MF et al. Effects of prenatal exercise on fetal heart rate, umbilical and uterine blood flow: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 124-33.

Stutzman SS, Brown CA, Hains SM et al. The effects of exercise conditioning in normal and overweight pregnant women on blood pressure and heart rate variability. *Biol Res Nurs*. 2010; 12(2): 137-48.

Vargas-Terrones M, Nagpal TS, Perales M et al (2020) Physical activity and prenatal depression: going beyond statistical significance by assessing the impact of reliable and clinical significant change. *Psychol Med*: 1-6.

#### Wrong population

Akmese ZB, Oran NT. Effects of progressive muscle relaxation exercises accompanied by music on low back pain and quality of life during pregnancy. J Midwifery Womens Health. 2014; 59(5): 503-9.

Almousa S, Lamprianidou E, Kitsoulis G. The effectiveness of stabilising exercises in pelvic girdle pain during pregnancy and after delivery: A systematic review. Physiother Res Int. 2018; 23(1).

Bo K, Artal R, Barakat R et al. Exercise and pregnancy in recreational and elite athletes: 2016 evidence summary from the IOC expert group meeting, Lausanne. Part 1-exercise in women planning pregnancy and those who are pregnant. Br J Sports Med. 2016; 50(10): 571-89.

Brown J, Alwan NA, West J et al. Lifestyle interventions for the treatment of women with gestational diabetes. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2017; 5: CD011970.

Clapp JF, 3rd. Long-term outcome after exercising throughout pregnancy: fitness and cardiovascular risk. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2008; 199(5): 489 e1-6.

Depledge J, McNair PJ, Keal-Smith C et al. Management of symphysis pubis dysfunction during pregnancy using exercise and pelvic support belts. Phys Ther. 2005; 85(12): 1290-300.

Dinc A, Kizilkaya Beji N, Yalcin O. Effect of pelvic floor muscle exercises in the treatment of urinary incontinence during pregnancy and the postpartum period. Int Urogynecol J Pelvic Floor Dysfunct. 2009; 20(10): 1223-31.

Egeland GM, Tell GS, Naess O et al. Association between pregravid physical activity and family history of stroke and risk of stillbirth: population-based cohort study. BMJ Open. 2017; 7(8): e017034.

Elden H, Ladfors L, Olsen MF et al. Effects of acupuncture and stabilising exercises as adjunct to standard treatment in pregnant women with pelvic girdle pain: randomised single blind controlled trial. BMJ. 2005; 330(7494): 761.

Elden H, Ostgaard HC, Fagevik-Olsen M et al. Treatments of pelvic girdle pain in pregnant women: adverse effects of standard treatment, acupuncture and stabilising exercises on the pregnancy, mother, delivery and the fetus/neonate. BMC Complement Altern Med. 2008; 8: 34.

George JW, Skaggs CD, Thompson PA et al. A randomized controlled trial comparing a multimodal intervention and standard obstetrics care for low back and pelvic pain in pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2013; 208(4): 295 e1-7.

Gong H, Ni C, Shen X et al. Yoga for prenatal depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis. BMC Psychiatry. 2015; 15: 14.

Gutke A, Betten C, Degerskar K et al. Treatments for pregnancy-related lumbopelvic pain: a systematic review of physiotherapy modalities. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand. 2015; 94(11): 1156-67.

Gutke A, Sjodahl J, Oberg B. Specific muscle stabilizing as home exercises for persistent pelvic girdle pain after pregnancy: a randomized, controlled clinical trial. J Rehabil Med. 2010; 42(10): 929-35.

Haugland KS, Rasmussen S, Daltveit AK. Group intervention for women with pelvic girdle pain in pregnancy. A randomized controlled trial. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand. 2006; 85(11): 1320-6.

Kardel KR. Effects of intense training during and after pregnancy in top-level athletes. Scand J Med Sci Sports. 2005; 15(2): 79-86.

Kasawara KT, Burgos CS, do Nascimento SL et al. Maternal and perinatal outcomes of exercise in pregnant women with chronic hypertension and/or previous preeclampsia: A randomized controlled trial. ISRN Obstet Gynecol. 2013; 2013: 857047.

Kihlstrand M, Stenman B, Nilsson S et al. Water-gymnastics reduced the intensity of back/low back pain in pregnant women. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand. 1999; 78(3): 180-5.

Kluge J, Hall D, Louw Q et al. Specific exercises to treat pregnancy-related low back pain in a South African population. Int J Gynaecol Obstet. 2011; 113(3): 187-91.

Kordi R, Abolhasani M, Rostami M et al. Comparison between the effect of lumbopelvic belt and home based pelvic stabilizing exercise on pregnant women with pelvic girdle pain; a randomized controlled trial. J Back Musculoskelet Rehabil. 2013; 26(2): 133-9.

Liddle SD, Pennick V. Interventions for preventing and treating low-back and pelvic pain during pregnancy. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2015; (9): CD001139.

Mahishale A, Patted S. Effectiveness of tailor made exercise intervention for low back pain and pelvic pain during pregnancy - a randomized controlled trial. Indian Journal of Physiotherapy and Occupational Therapy - An International Journal. 2014; 8(4).

Martins RF, Pinto e Silva JL. Treatment of pregnancy-related lumbar and pelvic girdle pain by the yoga method: a randomized controlled study. J Altern Complement Med. 2014; 20(1): 24-31.

Meher S, Duley L. Exercise or other physical activity for preventing pre-eclampsia and its complications. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2006; (2): CD005942.

Mirmolaei ST, Nakhostin Ansari N, Mahmoudi M et al. Efficacy of a physical training program on pregnancy related lumbopelvic pain. Int J Women's Health Reprod Sci. 2017; 6(2): 161-5.

Nilsson-Wikmar L, Holm K, Oijerstedt R et al. Effect of three different physical therapy treatments on pain and activity in pregnant women with pelvic girdle pain: a randomized clinical trial with 3, 6, and 12 months follow-up postpartum. Spine (Phila Pa 1976). 2005; 30(8): 850-6.

OʼConnor PJ, Poudevigne MS, Johnson KE et al (2018) Effects of resistance training on fatigue-related domains of quality of life and mood during pregnancy. *Psychosomatic Medicine* 80(3): 327-32.

Owe KM, Bjelland EK, Stuge B et al. Exercise level before pregnancy and engaging in high-impact sports reduce the risk of pelvic girdle pain: a population-based cohort study of 39 184 women. Br J Sports Med. 2016; 50(13): 817-22.

Ozdemir S, Bebis H, Ortabag T et al. Evaluation of the efficacy of an exercise program for pregnant women with low back and pelvic pain: a prospective randomized controlled trial. J Adv Nurs. 2015; 71(8): 1926-39.

Peterson CD, Haas M, Gregory WT. A pilot randomized controlled trial comparing the efficacy of exercise, spinal manipulation, and neuro emotional technique for the treatment of pregnancy-related low back pain. Chiropr Man Therap. 2012; 20(1): 18.

Poyatos-Leon R, Garcia-Hermoso A, Sanabria-Martinez G et al. Effects of exercise-based interventions on postpartum depression: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Birth. 2017; 44(3): 200-8.

Prapavessis H, De Jesus S, Harper T et al. The effects of acute exercise on tobacco cravings and withdrawal symptoms in temporary abstinent pregnant smokers. Addict Behav. 2014; 39(3): 703-8.

Reilly ET, Freeman RM, Waterfield MR et al. Prevention of postpartum stress incontinence in primigravidae with increased bladder neck mobility: a randomised controlled trial of antenatal pelvic floor exercises. BJOG. 2002; 109(1): 68-76.

Richards E, van Kessel G, Virgara R et al. Does antenatal physical therapy for pregnant women with low back pain or pelvic pain improve functional outcomes? A systematic review. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand. 2012; 91(9): 1038-45.

Scott KL & Hellawell M. Effects of water-and land-based exercise programmes on women experiencing pregnancy-related pelvic girdle pain: a randomized controlled feasibility study. J Pelvic Obstet Gynaecol Physiother. 2018; 122: 21-29.

Shivakumar G. Exercise improves depressive symptoms during pregnancy. BJOG. 2015; 122(1): 63.

Sklempe Kokic I, Ivanisevic M, Biolo G et al. Combination of a structured aerobic and resistance exercise improves glycaemic control in pregnant women diagnosed with gestational diabetes mellitus. A randomised controlled trial. Women Birth. 2018; 31(4): e232-e8.

Suputtitada A, Wacharapreechanont T, Chaisayan P. Effect of the ‘sitting pelvic tilt exercise’ during third trimester in primigravidas on back pain. J Med Assoc Thai. 2002; 85(Suppl 1): S170-79.

Yeo S, Steele NM, Chang MC et al. Effect of exercise on blood pressure in pregnant women with a high risk of gestational hypertensive disorders. J Reprod Med. 2000; 45(4): 293-8.

Youngwanichsetha S, Phumdoung S, Ingkathawornwong T. The effects of mindfulness eating and yoga exercise on blood sugar levels of pregnant women with gestational diabetes mellitus. Appl Nurs Res. 2014; 27(4): 227-30.

#### Wrong comparator

Bell R, Palma S. Antenatal exercise and birthweight. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2000; 40(1): 70-3.

Daley A, Riaz M, Lewis S et al. Physical activity for antenatal and postnatal depression in women attempting to quit smoking: randomised controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1).

Dias NT, Ferreira LR, Fernandes MG et al. A Pilates exercise program with pelvic floor muscle contraction: Is it effective for pregnant women? A randomized controlled trial. *Neurourol Urodyn*. 2018; 37(1): 379-84.

Fritel X, de Tayrac R, Bader G et al. Preventing Urinary Incontinence With Supervised Prenatal Pelvic Floor Exercises: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2015; 126(2): 370-7.

Granath AB, Hellgren MS, Gunnarsson RK. Water aerobics reduces sick leave due to low back pain during pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2006; 35(4): 465-71.

McDonald SM, Yeo S, Liu J et al. Associations between maternal physical activity and fitness during pregnancy and infant birthweight. *Prev Med Rep*. 2018; 11: 1-6.

Nagpal TS, Prapavessis H, Campbell CG et al (2020) Sequential introduction of exercise first followed by nutrition improves program adherence during pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Med* 27(1): 108-18.

Nobles C, Marcus BH, Stanek EJ, 3rd et al. The effect of an exercise intervention on gestational weight gain: The Behaviors Affecting Baby and You (B.A.B.Y.) study: A randomized controlled trial. *Am J Health Promot*. 2018; 32(3): 736-44.

Nobles C, Marcus BH, Stanek EJ, 3rd et al. Effect of an exercise intervention on gestational diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2015; 125(5): 1195-204.

Rakhshani A, Nagarathna R, Mhaskar R et al. The effects of yoga in prevention of pregnancy complications in high-risk pregnancies: a randomized controlled trial. *Prev Med*. 2012; 55(4): 333-40.

Satyapriya M, Nagarathna R, Padmalatha V et al. Effect of integrated yoga on anxiety, depression & well being in normal pregnancy. *Complement Ther Clin Pract*. 2013; 19(4): 230-6.

Yeo S. Adherence to walking or stretching, and risk of preeclampsia in sedentary pregnant women. *Res Nurs Health*. 2009; 32(4): 379-90.

Yeo S. Prenatal stretching exercise and autonomic responses: preliminary data and a model for reducing preeclampsia. *J Nurs Scholarsh*. 2010; 42(2): 113-21.

Yeo S, Davidge S, Ronis DL et al. A comparison of walking versus stretching exercises to reduce the incidence of preeclampsia: a randomized clinical trial. *Hypertens Pregnancy*. 2008; 27(2): 113-30.

#### SLR with all studies included in another SLR

Sanabria-Martinez G, Garcia-Hermoso A, Poyatos-Leon R et al. Effects of Exercise-Based Interventions on Neonatal Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Am J Health Promot*. 2016; 30(4): 214-23.

Yu Y, Xie R, Shen C et al. Effect of exercise during pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2018; 31(12): 1632-7.

#### Systematic review with studies included individually

Dalrymple KV, Flynn AC, Relph SA et al (2018) Lifestyle interventions in overweight and obese pregnant or postpartum women for postpartum weight management: a systematic review of the literature. *Nutrients* 10(11).

Du MC, Ouyang YQ, Nie XF et al (2019) Effects of physical exercise during pregnancy on maternal and infant outcomes in overweight and obese pregnant women: A meta-analysis. *Birth* 46(2): 211-21.

Grobler L, Visser M, Siegfried N (2019) Healthy Life Trajectories Initiative: Summary of the evidence base for pregnancy-related interventions to prevent overweight and obesity in children. *Obes Rev* 20 Suppl 1: 18-30.

#### Included in systematic review (questions 5 and 6)

Bo K, Haakstad LA. Is pelvic floor muscle training effective when taught in a general fitness class in pregnancy? A randomised controlled trial. *Physiotherapy*. 2011; 97(3): 190-5.

Domingues MR, Matijasevich A, Barros AJ et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment and IQ in the first 4 years of life. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(10): e110050.

Eggen MH, Stuge B, Mowinckel P et al. Can supervised group exercises including ergonomic advice reduce the prevalence and severity of low back pain and pelvic girdle pain in pregnancy? A randomized controlled trial. *Phys Ther*. 2012; 92(6): 781-90.

Haakstad LA, Bo K. Effect of a regular exercise programme on pelvic girdle and low back pain in previously inactive pregnant women: A randomized controlled trial. *J Rehabil Med*. 2015; 47(3): 229-34.

Harvey M-A. Pelvic floor exercises during and after pregnancy: A systematic review of their role in preventing pelvic floor dysfunction. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Canada*. 2003; 25(6): 487-98.

Ko PC, Liang CC, Chang SD et al. A randomized controlled trial of antenatal pelvic floor exercises to prevent and treat urinary incontinence. *Int Urogynecol J*. 2011; 22(1): 17-22.

Mason L, Roe B, Wong H et al. The role of antenatal pelvic floor muscle exercises in prevention of postpartum stress incontinence: a randomised controlled trial. *J Clin Nurs*. 2010; 19(19-20): 2777-86.

Morkved S, Salvesen KA, Schei B et al. Does group training during pregnancy prevent lumbopelvic pain? A randomized clinical trial. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2007; 86(3): 276-82.

Stafne SN, Salvesen KA, Romundstad PR et al. Does regular exercise during pregnancy influence lumbopelvic pain? A randomized controlled trial. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2012; 91(5): 552-9.

Stafne SN, Salvesen KA, Romundstad PR et al. Does regular exercise including pelvic floor muscle training prevent urinary and anal incontinence during pregnancy? A randomised controlled trial. *BJOG*. 2012; 119(10): 1270-80.

Zhang Q, Backhausen MG, Tabor A et al. The effects of an unsupervised water exercise program on low back pain and sick leave among healthy pregnant women – A randomised controlled trial. *Plos One*. 2017; 12(9).

#### Does not answer research question

Alhusen JL, Ayres L, DePriest K. Effects of maternal mental health on engagement in favorable health practices during pregnancy. J Midwifery & Women's Health. 2016; 61(2): 210-6.

Bacchi E, Bonin C, Zanolin ME et al. Physical activity patterns in normal-weight and overweight/obese pregnant women. PLoS One. 2016; 11(11): e0166254.

Baena-Garcia L, Coll-Risco I, Ocon-Hernandez O et al (2020) Association of objectively measured physical fitness during pregnancy with maternal and neonatal outcomes. The GESTAFIT Project. *PLoS One* 15(2): e0229079.

Bo K, Artal R, Barakat R et al. Exercise and pregnancy in recreational and elite athletes: 2016/17 evidence summary from the IOC expert group meeting, Lausanne. Part 4-Recommendations for future research. Br J Sports Med. 2017; 51(24): 1724-6.

Bonura KB, Spadaro NIM, Thornton RW. Mindful fitness: Guidelines for prenatal practice. Int J Childbirth Education. 2016; 31(1): 14-17.

Borodulin KM, Evenson KR, Wen F et al. Physical activity patterns during pregnancy. Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise. 2008; 40(11): 1901-8.

Broberg L, Ersboll AS, Backhausen MG et al. Compliance with national recommendations for exercise during early pregnancy in a Danish cohort. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2015; 15: 317.

Catov JM, Parker CB, Gibbs BB et al (2018) Patterns of leisure-time physical activity across pregnancy and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 15(1): 68.

Craike M, Hill B, Gaskin CJ et al. Interventions to improve physical activity during pregnancy: a systematic review on issues of internal and external validity using the RE-AIM framework. BJOG. 2017; 124(4): 573-83.

Currie S, Gray C, Shepherd A et al. Antenatal physical activity: a qualitative study exploring women's experiences and the acceptability of antenatal walking groups. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2016; 16(1): 182.

Currie S, Sinclair M, Murphy MH et al. Reducing the decline in physical activity during pregnancy: a systematic review of behaviour change interventions. PLoS One. 2013; 8(6): e66385.

Davies GAL, Maxwell C, McLeod L et al. Obesity in pregnancy. Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Canada. 2010; 32(2): 165-73.

Dlugonski D, Motl RW. Marital status and motherhood: implications for physical activity. Women Health. 2013; 53(2): 203-15.

Doran F, O'Brien AP. A brief report of attitudes towards physical activity during pregnancy. Health Promot J Austr. 2007; 18(2): 155-8.

Duncombe D, Skouteris H, Wertheim EH et al. Vigorous exercise and birth outcomes in a sample of recreational exercisers: a prospective study across pregnancy. Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol. 2006; 46(4): 288-92.

Ebner F, Wockel A, Janni W et al. Parachuting and pregnancy: what do we know about pregnant skydivers and the risks they are taking? Clin J Sport Med. 2014; 24(6): 468-73.

Forczek W, Curylo M, Forczek B. Physical activity assessment during gestation and its outcomes: A review. Obstet Gynecol Surv. 2017; 72(7): 425-44.

Garland M, Wilbur J, Semanik P et al (2019) Correlates of physical activity during pregnancy: a systematic review with implications for evidence-based practice. *Worldviews Evid Based Nurs* 16(4): 310-18.

Gaston A, Prapavessis H. Maternal-fetal disease information as a source of exercise motivation during pregnancy. Health Psychol. 2009; 28(6): 726-33.

Gau ML, Chang CY, Tian SH et al. Effects of birth ball exercise on pain and self-efficacy during childbirth: a randomised controlled trial in Taiwan. Midwifery. 2011; 27(6): e293-300.

Grobman WA, Gilbert SA, Iams JD et al. Activity restriction among women with a short cervix. Obstet Gynecol. 2013; 121(6): 1181-6.

Hanghoj S. When it hurts I think: Now the baby dies. Risk perceptions of physical activity during pregnancy. Women Birth. 2013; 26(3): 190-4.

Hayes L, Bell R, Robson S et al. Association between physical activity in obese pregnant women and pregnancy outcomes: the UPBEAT pilot study. Ann Nutr Metab. 2014; 64(3-4): 239-46.

Hjollund NH, Jensen TK, Bonde JP et al. Spontaneous abortion and physical strain around implantation: a follow-up study of first-pregnancy planners. Epidemiology. 2000; 11(1): 18-23.

Hopkinson Y, Hill DM, Fellows L et al. Midwives understanding of physical activity guidelines during pregnancy. Midwifery. 2018; 59: 23-6.

Horan MK, McGowan CA, Doyle O et al. Well-being in pregnancy: an examination of the effect of socioeconomic, dietary and lifestyle factors including impact of a low glycaemic index dietary intervention. Eur J Clin Nutr. 2014; 68(1): 19-24.

Larsen AD, Hannerz H, Juhl M et al. Psychosocial job strain and risk of adverse birth outcomes: a study within the Danish national birth cohort. Occup Environ Med. 2013; 70(12): 845-51.

Lawson CC, Whelan EA, Hibert EN et al. Occupational factors and risk of preterm birth in nurses. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2009; 200(1): 51 e1-8.

McCrory JL, Chambers AJ, Daftary A et al. Dynamic postural stability in pregnant fallers and non-fallers. BJOG. 2010; 117(8): 954-62.

McDonald SM, Liu J, Wilcox S et al. Does dose matter in reducing gestational weight gain in exercise interventions? A systematic review of literature. J Sci Med Sport. 2016; 19(4): 323-35.

McParlin C, Bell R, Robson SC et al. What helps or hinders midwives to implement physical activity guidelines for obese pregnant women? A questionnaire survey using the Theoretical Domains Framework. Midwifery. 2017; 49: 110-6.

Owe KM, Nystad W, Bo K. Correlates of regular exercise during pregnancy: the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. Scand J Med Sci Sports. 2009; 19(5): 637-45.

Rose NC, Haddow JE, Palomaki GE et al. Self-rated physical activity level during the second trimester and pregnancy outcome. Obstet Gynecol. 1991; 78(6): 1078-80.

Sosa CG, Althabe F, Belizan JM et al. Bed rest in singleton pregnancies for preventing preterm birth. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2015; (3): CD003581.

Stuge B. Pelvic girdle pain: examination, treatment, and the development and implementation of European guidelines. J Assoc Chartered Physiother Women’s Health. 2012; 111: 5-12.

Tuntiseranee P, Geater A, Chongsuvivatwong V et al. The effect of heavy maternal workload on fetal growth retardation and preterm delivery. A study among southern Thai women. J Occup Environ Med. 1998; 40(11): 1013-21.

Ussher M, Lewis S, Aveyard P et al. Physical activity for smoking cessation in pregnancy: randomised controlled trial. BMJ. 2015; 350: h2145.

Vincze L, Rollo ME, Hutchesson MJ et al. A cross sectional study investigating weight management motivations, methods and perceived healthy eating and physical activity influences in women up to five years following childbirth. Midwifery. 2017; 49: 124-33.

Watson SJ, Lewis AJ, Boyce P et al (2018) Exercise frequency and maternal mental health: Parallel process modelling across the perinatal period in an Australian pregnancy cohort. *J Psychosom Res* 111: 91-99.

Xu H, Wen LM, Hardy LL et al. A 5-year longitudinal analysis of modifiable predictors for outdoor play and screen-time of 2- to 5-year-olds. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2016; 13(1): 96.

### Weight gain and monitoring (question 7)

#### Gestational weight change

##### Duplicate

Adane AA, Shepherd CCJ, Lim FJ et al (2019) The impact of pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain on placental abruption risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 300(5): 1201-10.

Altazan AD, Redman LM, Burton JH et al (2019) Mood and quality of life changes in pregnancy and postpartum and the effect of a behavioral intervention targeting excess gestational weight gain in women with overweight and obesity: a parallel-arm randomized controlled pilot trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 19(1): 50.

Asci O & Rathfisch G (2016) Effect of lifestyle interventions of pregnant women on their dietary habits, lifestyle behaviors, and weight gain: a randomized controlled trial. *J Health Popul Nutr* 35: 7.

Barakat R, Cordero Y, Coteron J et al (2012) Exercise during pregnancy improves maternal glucose screen at 24-28 weeks: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Sports Med* 46(9): 656-61.

Barakat R, Refoyo I, Coteron J et al (2019) Exercise during pregnancy has a preventative effect on excessive maternal weight gain and gestational diabetes. A randomized controlled trial. *Braz J Phys Ther* 23(2): 148-55.

Bennett CJ, Walker RE, Blumfield ML et al (2018) Interventions designed to reduce excessive gestational weight gain can reduce the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 141: 69-79.

Bogaerts AF, Devlieger R, Nuyts E et al (2013) Effects of lifestyle intervention in obese pregnant women on gestational weight gain and mental health: a randomized controlled trial. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 37(6): 814-21.

Bookari K, Yeatman H, Williamson M (2016) Australian pregnant women's awareness of gestational weight gain and dietary guidelines: opportunity for action. *J Pregnancy* 2016: 8162645.

Brik M, Fernandez-Buhigas I, Martin-Arias A et al (2019) Does exercise during pregnancy impact on maternal weight gain and fetal cardiac function? A randomized controlled trial. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 53(5): 583-89.

Broekhuizen K, Simmons D, Devlieger R et al (2018) Cost-effectiveness of healthy eating and/or physical activity promotion in pregnant women at increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: economic evaluation alongside the DALI study, a European multicenter randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 15(1): 23.

Craemer KA, Sampene E, Safdar N et al (2019) Nutrition and Exercise Strategies to Prevent Excessive Pregnancy Weight Gain: A Meta-analysis. *AJP Rep* 9(1): e92-e120.

da Silva SG, Ricardo LI, Evenson KR et al (2017) Leisure-time physical activity in pregnancy and maternal-child health: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials and cohort studies. *Sports Med* 47(2): 295-317.

Daley A, Jolly K, Jebb SA et al (2019) Effectiveness of a behavioural intervention involving regular weighing and feedback by community midwives within routine antenatal care to prevent excessive gestational weight gain: POPS2 randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open* 9(9): e030174.

Dodd JM, Deussen AR, Louise J (2019) A Randomised Trial to Optimise Gestational Weight Gain and Improve Maternal and Infant Health Outcomes through Antenatal Dietary, Lifestyle and Exercise Advice: The OPTIMISE Randomised Trial. *Nutrients* 11(12).

Flynn AC, Dalrymple K, Barr S et al (2016) Dietary interventions in overweight and obese pregnant women: a systematic review of the content, delivery, and outcomes of randomized controlled trials. *Nutr Rev* 74(5): 312-28.

Gallagher D, Rosenn B, Toro-Ramos T et al (2018) Greater neonatal fat-free mass and similar fat mass following a randomized trial to control excess gestational weight gain. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 26(3): 578-87.

Goldstein RF, Abell SK, Ranasinha S et al (2018) Gestational weight gain across continents and ethnicity: systematic review and meta-analysis of maternal and infant outcomes in more than one million women. *BMC Med* 16(1): 153.

Haby K, Berg M, Gyllensten H et al (2018) Mighty Mums - a lifestyle intervention at primary care level reduces gestational weight gain in women with obesity. *BMC Obes* 5: 16.

Harrison CL, Lombard CB, Strauss BJ et al (2013) Optimizing healthy gestational weight gain in women at high risk of gestational diabetes: a randomized controlled trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 21(5): 904-9.

Hawkins M, Hosker M, Marcus BH et al (2015) A pregnancy lifestyle intervention to prevent gestational diabetes risk factors in overweight Hispanic women: a feasibility randomized controlled trial. *Diabet Med* 32(1): 108-15.

Herring SJ (2017) Do mHealth interventions prevent excessive gestational weight gain? *BJOG* 124(11): 1728.

Herring SJ, Cruice JF, Bennett GG et al (2016) Preventing excessive gestational weight gain among African American women: A randomized clinical trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 24(1): 30-6.

Hill B, Hayden M, McPhie S et al (2019) Preconception and antenatal knowledge and beliefs about gestational weight gain. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 59(5): 634-40.

Horan MK, McGowan CA, Gibney ER et al (2014) Maternal diet and weight at 3 months postpartum following a pregnancy intervention with a low glycaemic index diet: results from the ROLO randomised control trial. *Nutrients* 6(7): 2946-55.

Hui A, Back L, Ludwig S et al (2012) Lifestyle intervention on diet and exercise reduced excessive gestational weight gain in pregnant women under a randomised controlled trial. *BJOG* 119(1): 70-7.

Hui AL, Back L, Ludwig S et al (2014) Effects of lifestyle intervention on dietary intake, physical activity level, and gestational weight gain in pregnant women with different pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index in a randomized control trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 331.

Huvinen E, Koivusalo SB, Meinila J et al (2018) Effects of a Lifestyle Intervention During Pregnancy and First Postpartum Year: Findings From the RADIEL Study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 103(4): 1669-77.

International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative G (2017) Effect of diet and physical activity based interventions in pregnancy on gestational weight gain and pregnancy outcomes: meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised trials. *BMJ* 358: j3119.

Jackson RA, Stotland NE, Caughey AB et al (2011) Improving diet and exercise in pregnancy with Video Doctor counseling: a randomized trial. *Patient Educ Couns* 83(2): 203-9.

Jorge C, Santos-Rocha R, Bento T (2015) Can group exercise programs improve health outcomes in pregnant women? A systematic review. *Curr Women’s Health Rev* 11: 75-85.

Kinnunen TI, Raitanen J, Aittasalo M et al (2012) Preventing excessive gestational weight gain--a secondary analysis of a cluster-randomised controlled trial. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 66(12): 1344-50.

Koivusalo SB, Rono K, Klemetti MM et al (2016) Gestational diabetes mellitus can be prevented by lifestyle intervention: the finnish gestational diabetes prevention study (RADIEL): A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Diabetes Care* 39(1): 24-30.

Kunath J, Gunther J, Rauh K et al (2019) Effects of a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy to prevent excessive gestational weight gain in routine care - the cluster-randomised GeliS trial. *BMC Med* 17(1): 5.

Luoto R, Kinnunen TI, Aittasalo M et al (2011) Primary prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus and large-for-gestational-age newborns by lifestyle counseling: a cluster-randomized controlled trial. *PLoS Med* 8(5): e1001036.

Muktabhant B, Lawrie TA, Lumbiganon P et al (2015) Diet or exercise, or both, for preventing excessive weight gain in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*(6): CD007145.

Nagpal TS, Prapavessis H, Campbell CG et al (2020) Sequential Introduction of Exercise First Followed by Nutrition Improves Program Adherence During Pregnancy: a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Int J Behav Med* 27(1): 108-18.

Nicodemus NA, Jr. (2018) Prevention of excessive gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention. *Curr Obes Rep* 7(2): 105-11.

Nobles C, Marcus BH, Stanek EJ, 3rd et al (2018) The effect of an exercise intervention on gestational weight gain: The Behaviors Affecting Baby and You (B.A.B.Y.) Study: A randomized controlled trial. *Am J Health Promot* 32(3): 736-44.

O'Brien CM, Grivell RM, Dodd JM (2016) Systematic review of antenatal dietary and lifestyle interventions in women with a normal body mass index. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 95(3): 259-69.

O'Brien OA, McCarthy M, Gibney ER et al (2014) Technology-supported dietary and lifestyle interventions in healthy pregnant women: a systematic review. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 68(7): 760-6.

Obinna EA, Martins NUN, Ugpchukwu N et al. Effects of aerobic exercise on the gestational weight gain of healthy pregnant women–a systematic review. Indian J Physiother Occupat Ther. 2019; 13(2): 29-32.

Okesene-Gafa KAM, Li M, McKinlay CJD et al (2019) Effect of antenatal dietary interventions in maternal obesity on pregnancy weight-gain and birthweight: Healthy Mums and Babies (HUMBA) randomized trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 221(2): 152 e1-52 e13.

Pelaez M, Gonzalez-Cerron S, Montejo R et al (2019) Protective Effect of Exercise in Pregnant Women Including Those Who Exceed Weight Gain Recommendations: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Mayo Clin Proc* 94(10): 1951-59.

Petrella E, Malavolti M, Bertarini V et al (2014) Gestational weight gain in overweight and obese women enrolled in a healthy lifestyle and eating habits program. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 27(13): 1348-52.

Poston L (2015) Do physical activity interventions prevent gestational diabetes? *BJOG* 122(9): 1175.

Poston L, Bell R, Croker H et al (2015) Effect of a behavioural intervention in obese pregnant women (the UPBEAT study): a multicentre, randomised controlled trial. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology* 3(10): 767-77.

Rauh K, Gabriel E, Kerschbaum E et al (2013) Safety and efficacy of a lifestyle intervention for pregnant women to prevent excessive maternal weight gain: a cluster-randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 13: 151.

Renault KM, Norgaard K, Nilas L et al (2014) The Treatment of Obese Pregnant Women (TOP) study: a randomized controlled trial of the effect of physical activity intervention assessed by pedometer with or without dietary intervention in obese pregnant women. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 210(2): 134 e1-9.

Rodriguez-Blanque R, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Sanchez-Lopez AM et al (2019) Randomized Clinical Trial of an Aquatic Physical Exercise Program During Pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs* 48(3): 321-31.

Rogozinska E, Marlin N, Jackson L et al (2017) Effects of antenatal diet and physical activity on maternal and fetal outcomes: individual patient data meta-analysis and health economic evaluation. *Health Technol Assess* 21(41): 1-158.

Ronnberg AK & Nilsson K (2010) Interventions during pregnancy to reduce excessive gestational weight gain: a systematic review assessing current clinical evidence using the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) system. *BJOG* 117(11): 1327-34.

Ronnberg AK, Ostlund I, Fadl H et al (2015) Intervention during pregnancy to reduce excessive gestational weight gain-a randomised controlled trial. *BJOG* 122(4): 537-44.

Sagedal LR, Sanda B, Overby NC et al (2017) The effect of prenatal lifestyle intervention on weight retention 12 months postpartum: results of the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomised controlled trial. *BJOG* 124(1): 111-21.

Schumacher TL, Weatherall L, Keogh L et al (2019) Reprint of characterizing gestational weight gain in a cohort of indigenous Australian women. *Midwifery* 74: 148-56.

Shepherd E, Gomersall JC, Tieu J et al (2017) Combined diet and exercise interventions for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 11: CD010443.

Simmons D, Devlieger R, van Assche A et al (2017) Effect of physical activity and/or healthy eating on GDM risk: The DALI Lifestyle study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 102(3): 903-13.

Simmons D, Jelsma JG, Galjaard S et al (2015) Results From a European multicenter randomized trial of physical activity and/or healthy eating to reduce the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: The DALI Lifestyle pilot. *Diabetes Care* 38(9): 1650-6.

Thangaratinam S, Rogozinska E, Jolly K et al (2012) Effects of interventions in pregnancy on maternal weight and obstetric outcomes: meta-analysis of randomised evidence. *BMJ* 344: e2088.

Tieu J, Shepherd E, Middleton P et al (2017) Dietary advice interventions in pregnancy for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 1: CD006674.

Torres R, Soltero S, Trak MA et al (2016) Lifestyle modification intervention for overweight and obese Hispanic pregnant women: development, implementation, lessons learned and future applications. *Contemp Clin Trials Commun* 3: 111-16.

Trak-Fellermeier MA, Campos M, Melendez M et al (2019) PEARLS randomized lifestyle trial in pregnant Hispanic women with overweight/obesity: gestational weight gain and offspring birthweight. *Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes* 12: 225-38.

Vesco KK, Karanja N, King JC et al (2014) Efficacy of a group-based dietary intervention for limiting gestational weight gain among obese women: a randomized trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 22(9): 1989-96.

Vincze L, Rollo M, Hutchesson M et al (2019) Interventions including a nutrition component aimed at managing gestational weight gain or postpartum weight retention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JBI Database System Rev Implement Rep* 17(3): 297-364.

Voerman E, Santos S, Patro Golab B et al (2019) Maternal body mass index, gestational weight gain, and the risk of overweight and obesity across childhood: An individual participant data meta-analysis. *PLoS Med* 16(2): e1002744.

Walker R, Bennett C, Blumfield M et al (2018) Attenuating pregnancy weight gain-what works and why: A Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 10(7).

Wang C, Wei Y, Zhang X et al (2017) A randomized clinical trial of exercise during pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes mellitus and improve pregnancy outcome in overweight and obese pregnant women. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 216(4): 340-51.

Wang S, Ma JM, Yang HX (2015) Lifestyle intervention for gestational diabetes mellitus prevention: A cluster-randomized controlled study. *Chronic Dis Transl Med* 1(3): 169-74.

Yeo S, Walker JS, Caughey MC et al (2017) What characteristics of nutrition and physical activity interventions are key to effectively reducing weight gain in obese or overweight pregnant women? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obes Rev* 18(4): 385-99.

##### Wrong study design

Dorise B, Byth K, McGee T et al (2020) A low intensity dietary intervention for reducing excessive gestational weight gain in an overweight and obese pregnant cohort. *Eat Weight Disord* 25(2): 257-63.

Haby K, Glantz A, Hanas R et al (2015) Mighty Mums - An antenatal health care intervention can reduce gestational weight gain in women with obesity. *Midwifery* 31(7): 685-92.

Liu J, Wilcox S, Whitaker K et al (2015) Preventing excessive weight gain during pregnancy and promoting postpartum weight loss: a pilot lifestyle intervention for overweight and obese African American women. *Matern Child Health J* 19(4): 840-9.

Zheng Z, Bennett WL, Mueller NT et al (2019) Gestational weight gain and pregnancy complications in a high-risk, racially and ethnically diverse population. *J Womens Health (Larchmt)* 28(3): 375-83.

##### Wrong intervention

D'Ambrosio V, Brunelli R, Vena F et al (2019) Metformin reduces maternal weight gain in obese pregnant women: A systematic review and meta-analysis of two randomized controlled trials. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 35(6): e3164.

Dodd JM, Louise J, Deussen AR et al (2019) Effect of metformin in addition to dietary and lifestyle advice for pregnant women who are overweight or obese: the GRoW randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology* 7(1): 15-24.

Phillips JK, Skelly JM, Roberts LM et al (2019) Combined financial incentives and behavioral weight management to enhance adherence with gestational weight gain guidelines: a randomized controlled trial. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology MFM* 1(1): 42-49.

##### Wrong outcomes

Hoffmann J, Gunther J, Geyer K et al (2019) Effects of a lifestyle intervention in routine care on prenatal physical activity - findings from the cluster-randomised GeliS trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 19(1): 414.

##### Wrong comparator

Adam LM, Jarman M, Barker M et al (2020) Use of healthy conversation skills to promote healthy diets, physical activity and gestational weight gain: Results from a pilot randomised controlled trial. *Patient Educ Couns*.

Cahill AG, Haire-Joshu D, Cade WT et al (2018) Weight control program and gestational weight gain in disadvantaged women with overweight or obesity: a randomized clinical trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 26(3): 485-91.

Kominiarek MA, Lewkowitz AK, Carter E et al (2019) Gestational weight gain and group prenatal care: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 19(1): 18.

Nagpal TS, Prapavessis H, Campbell CG et al (2020) Sequential Introduction of Exercise First Followed by Nutrition Improves Program Adherence During Pregnancy: a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Int J Behav Med* 27(1): 108-18.

Tubay AT, Mansalis KA, Simpson MJ et al (2019) The Effects of Group Prenatal Care on Infant Birthweight and Maternal Well-Being: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Mil Med* 184(5-6): e440-e46.

##### Wrong setting

Atkinson L, Olander EK, French DP (2016) Acceptability of a weight management intervention for pregnant and postpartum women with BMI >/=30 kg/m2: A qualitative evaluation of an individualized, home-based service. *Matern Child Health J* 20(1): 88-96.

Dodd JM, Louise J, Cramp C et al (2018) Evaluation of a smartphone nutrition and physical activity application to provide lifestyle advice to pregnant women: The SNAPP randomised trial. *Matern Child Nutr* 14(1).

Farzandipour M, Nabovati E, Anvari S et al (2020) Phone-based interventions to control gestational weight gain: a systematic review on features and effects. *Inform Health Soc Care* 45(1): 15-30.

Herring SJ, Albert JJ, Darden N et al (2019) Targeting pregnancy-related weight gain to reduce disparities in obesity: Baseline results from the Healthy Babies trial. *Contemp Clin Trials* 87: 105822.

Mertens L, Braeken M, Bogaerts A (2019) Effect of Lifestyle Coaching Including Telemonitoring and Telecoaching on Gestational Weight Gain and Postnatal Weight Loss: A Systematic Review. *Telemed J E Health* 25(10): 889-901.

Olson CM, Strawderman MS, Graham ML (2017) Association between consistent weight gain tracking and gestational weight gain: Secondary analysis of a randomized trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 25(7): 1217-27.

Pollak KI, Alexander SC, Bennett G et al (2014) Weight-related SMS texts promoting appropriate pregnancy weight gain: a pilot study. *Patient Educ Couns* 97(2): 256-60.

Soltani H, Duxbury AM, Arden MA et al (2015) Maternal obesity management using mobile technology: a feasibility study to evaluate a text messaging based complex intervention during pregnancy. *J Obes* 2015: 814830.

##### Wrong population

Han S, Middleton P, Shepherd E et al (2017) Different types of dietary advice for women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2: CD009275.

Hutchesson MJ, de Jonge Mulock Houwer M, Brown HM et al (2020) Supporting women of childbearing age in the prevention and treatment of overweight and obesity: a scoping review of randomized control trials of behavioral interventions. *BMC Womens Health* 20(1): 14.

Pecheux O, Garabedian C, Drumez E et al (2019) Maternal and neonatal outcomes according to gestational weight gain in twin pregnancies: Are the Institute of Medicine guidelines associated with better outcomes? *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 234: 190-94.

##### Narrative review

Boyle J, Thangaratinam S, Goldstein R et al (2016) Excess gestational weight gain in pregnancy and the role of lifestyle intervention. *Seminars in Reproductive Medicine* 34(02): e14-e21.

Lamminpaa R, Vehvilainen-Julkunen K, Schwab U (2018) A systematic review of dietary interventions for gestational weight gain and gestational diabetes in overweight and obese pregnant women. *Eur J Nutr* 57(5): 1721-36.

Mitanchez D, Ciangura C, Jacqueminet S (2020) How Can maternal lifestyle interventions modify the effects of gestational diabetes in the neonate and the offspring? a systematic review of meta-analyses. *Nutrients* 12(2).

Okesene-Gafa K, Li M, Taylor RS et al (2018) Correction to: A randomised controlled demonstration trial of multifaceted nutritional intervention and or probiotics: the healthy mums and babies (HUMBA) trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 18(1): 130.

##### Does not answer research question

Czajkowski SM (2019) Using the ORBIT model to design an intervention promoting healthy weight gain during pregnancy: the value of an iterative and incremental approach to intervention development. *Int J Behav Med* 26(5): 457-60.

Darroch FE & Giles AR (2016) A postcolonial feminist discourse analysis of urban Aboriginal women's description of pregnancy-related weight gain and physical activity. *Women Birth* 29(1): e23-32.

de Jersey S, Guthrie T, Tyler J et al (2019) A mixed method study evaluating the integration of pregnancy weight gain charts into antenatal care. *Matern Child Nutr* 15(3): e12750.

Demment MM, Graham ML, Olson CM (2014) How an online intervention to prevent excessive gestational weight gain is used and by whom: a randomized controlled process evaluation. *J Med Internet Res* 16(8): e194.

Dodd JM, Louise J, Deussen AR et al (2019) Effect of metformin in addition to dietary and lifestyle advice for pregnant women who are overweight or obese: the GRoW randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology* 7(1): 15-24.

Graham ML, Strawderman MS, Demment M et al (2017) Does Usage of an eHealth Intervention Reduce the Risk of Excessive Gestational Weight Gain? Secondary Analysis From a Randomized Controlled Trial. *J Med Internet Res* 19(1): e6.

Hamilton EAA, Nowell AK, Harden A et al (2018) Conduct and reporting of acceptability, attitudes, beliefs and experiences of pregnant women in randomised trials on diet and lifestyle interventions: A systematic review. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 225: 243-54.

Koleilat M, Lim KP, Whaley SE (2017) Focusing on excessive gestational weight gain through weight tracking among participants of the special supplemental nutrition program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) in Southern California. *Calif J Health Promotion* 15(3): 15-24.

Kominiarek MA, Gray EL, Vyhmeister H et al (2018) Association of Gestational Weight Gain with Prenatal Care Model. *J Midwifery Womens Health* 63(3): 283-88.

Molyneaux E, Poston L, Khondoker M et al (2016) Obesity, antenatal depression, diet and gestational weight gain in a population cohort study. *Arch Womens Ment Health* 19(5): 899-907.

O'Brien EC, Alberdi G, McAuliffe FM (2018) The influence of socioeconomic status on gestational weight gain: a systematic review. *J Public Health (Oxf)* 40(1): 41-55.

Rosenfeld CS, Agha M, Agha RA et al (2014) Interventions to Reduce and Prevent Obesity in Pre-Conceptual and Pregnant Women: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *PLoS ONE* 9(5).

Scott C, Andersen CT, Valdez N et al (2014) No global consensus: a cross-sectional survey of maternal weight policies. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 167.

Whitaker KM, Wilcox S, Liu J et al (2016) African American and White womens perceptions of weight gain, physical activity, and nutrition during pregnancy. *Midwifery* 34: 211-20.

Wilkinson SA, Donaldson E, Beckmann M et al (2017) Service-wide management of healthy gestational weight gain following an implementation science approach. *Matern Child Nutr* 13(2).

#### Weight monitoring

##### Duplicate

Daley AJ, Jolly K, Jebb SA et al (2015) Effectiveness of regular weighing, weight target setting and feedback by community midwives within routine antenatal care in preventing excessive gestational weight gain: randomised controlled trial. *BMC Obes* 3: 7.

##### Opinion piece

Steer PJ & Oken E (2015) Routine weighing of women during pregnancy is of limited value and should be abandoned. BJOG 122(8): 1101.

Allen-Walker V, Woodside J, Holmes V et al (2016) Routine weighing of women during pregnancy-is it time to change current practice? *BJOG* 123(6): 871-4.

##### Wrong setting

Harrison CL, Teede HJ, Lombard CB (2014) How effective is self-weighing in the setting of a lifestyle intervention to reduce gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention? *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 54(4): 382-5.

### Risk assessments (question 8)

#### Wrong study design

Agbota G, Fievet N, Heude B et al (2020) Poor maternal anthropometric status before conception is associated with a deleterious infant growth during the first year of life: a longitudinal preconceptional cohort. *Pediatr Obes* 15(1): e12573.

Akahoshi E, Arima K, Miura K et al (2016) Association of maternal pre-pregnancy weight, weight gain during pregnancy, and smoking with small-for-gestational-age infants in Japan. *Early Hum Dev* 92: 33-6.

Alhaj AM, Radi EA, Adam I (2010) Epidemiology of preterm birth in Omdurman Maternity hospital, Sudan. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 23(2): 131-4.

Andersen CH, Thomsen PH, Nohr EA et al (2018) Maternal body mass index before pregnancy as a risk factor for ADHD and autism in children. *Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 27(2): 139-48.

Bliddal M, Pottegard A, Kirkegaard H et al (2015) Mental disorders in motherhood according to prepregnancy BMI and pregnancy-related weight changes--A Danish cohort study. *J Affect Disord* 183: 322-9.

Block SR, Watkins SM, Salemi JL et al (2013) Maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index and risk of selected birth defects: evidence of a dose-response relationship. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 27(6): 521-31.

Britto RP, Florencio TM, Benedito Silva AA et al (2013) Influence of maternal height and weight on low birth weight: a cross-sectional study in poor communities of northeastern Brazil. *PLoS One* 8(11): e80159.

Butwick AJ, Abreo A, Bateman BT et al (2018) Effect of Maternal Body Mass Index on Postpartum Hemorrhage. *Anesthesiology* 128(4): 774-83.

Cameron CM, Shibl R, McClure RJ et al (2014) Maternal pregravid body mass index and child hospital admissions in the first 5 years of life: results from an Australian birth cohort. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 38(10): 1268-74.

Campbell MK, Cartier S, Xie B et al (2012) Determinants of small for gestational age birth at term. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 26(6): 525-33.

Carmichael SL, Kan P, Gould JB et al (2017) Maternal prepregnancy body mass index and risk of bronchopulmonary dysplasia. *Pediatr Res* 82(1): 8-13.

Chung JH, Melsop KA, Gilbert WM et al (2012) Increasing pre-pregnancy body mass index is predictive of a progressive escalation in adverse pregnancy outcomes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 25(9): 1635-9.

Cristina Rossi A (2016) Underweight and pregnancy. *BJOG* 123(12): 2008.

Davies H, Visser J, Tomlinson M et al (2013) An investigation into utilising gestational body mass index as a screening tool for adverse birth outcomes and maternal morbidities in a group of pregnant women in Khayelitsha. *South Afr J Clin Nutr* 26(3): 116-22.

Deardorff J, Smith LH, Petito L et al (2017) Maternal Prepregnancy Weight and Children's Behavioral and Emotional Outcomes. *Am J Prev Med* 53(4): 432-40.

Đelmiš J, Pavić M, Ivanišević M et al (2015) Body mass index and pregnancy outcome. *Gynaecol Perinatol* 24(3): 99-105.

Denison FC, Norwood P, Bhattacharya S et al (2014) Association between maternal body mass index during pregnancy, short-term morbidity, and increased health service costs: a population-based study. *BJOG* 121(1): 72-81; discussion 82.

Deutsch AB, Lynch O, Alio AP et al (2010) Increased risk of placental abruption in underweight women. *Am J Perinatol* 27(3): 235-40.

Du MK, Ge LY, Zhou ML et al (2017) Effects of pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain on neonatal birth weight. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci B* 18(3): 263-71.

Ekstrom S, Magnusson J, Kull I et al (2015) Maternal body mass index in early pregnancy and offspring asthma, rhinitis and eczema up to 16 years of age. *Clin Exp Allergy* 45(1): 283-91.

Enomoto K, Aoki S, Toma R et al (2016) Pregnancy Outcomes Based on Pre-Pregnancy Body Mass Index in Japanese Women. *PLoS One* 11(6): e0157081.

Feodor Nilsson S, Andersen PK, Strandberg-Larsen K et al (2014) Risk factors for miscarriage from a prevention perspective: a nationwide follow-up study. *BJOG* 121(11): 1375-84.

Foo XY, Greer RM, Kumar S (2016) Impact of maternal body mass index on intrapartum and neonatal outcomes in Brisbane, Australia, 2007 to 2013. *Birth* 43(4): 358-65.

Fujiwara K, Aoki S, Kurasawa K et al (2014) Associations of maternal pre-pregnancy underweight with small-for-gestational-age and spontaneous preterm birth, and optimal gestational weight gain in Japanese women. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 40(4): 988-94.

Getz KD, Anderka MT, Werler MM et al (2016) Maternal Pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index and Autism Spectrum Disorder among Offspring: A Population-Based Case-Control Study. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 30(5): 479-87.

Girsen AI, Mayo JA, Wallenstein MB et al (2018) What factors are related to recurrent preterm birth among underweight women?(). *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 31(5): 560-66.

Goetzinger KR, Cahill AG, Macones GA et al (2012) The relationship between maternal body mass index and tobacco use on small-for-gestational-age infants. *Am J Perinatol* 29(3): 153-8.

Guelinckx I, Devlieger R, Bogaerts A et al (2012) The effect of pre-pregnancy BMI on intention, initiation and duration of breast-feeding. *Public Health Nutr* 15(5): 840-8.

Ha AVV, Zhao Y, Pham NM et al (2019) Postpartum weight retention in relation to gestational weight gain and pre-pregnancy body mass index: A prospective cohort study in Vietnam. *Obes Res Clin Pract* 13(2): 143-49.

Hale J, Derbyshire A, Taylor A et al (2017) Relationship between neonatal gastroschisis and maternal body mass index in a United Kingdom population. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 210: 292-94.

Hayward I, Malcoe LH, Cleathero LA et al (2012) Investigating maternal risk factors as potential targets of intervention to reduce socioeconomic inequality in small for gestational age: a population-based study. *BMC Public Health* 12: 333.

Heaman M, Kingston D, Chalmers B et al (2013) Risk factors for preterm birth and small-for-gestational-age births among Canadian women. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 27(1): 54-61.

Hendrix RA, Rohrer JE, Danawi H et al (2012) Autism spectrum disorders: a sibling case-control study of maternal prenatal body mass index. *Int J Childbirth Education* 27(4): 79-83.

Hinkle SN, Albert PS, Mendola P et al (2014) Differences in risk factors for incident and recurrent small-for-gestational-age birthweight: a hospital-based cohort study. *BJOG* 121(9): 1080-8; discussion 89.

Hinkle SN, Schieve LA, Stein AD et al (2012) Associations between maternal prepregnancy body mass index and child neurodevelopment at 2 years of age. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 36(10): 1312-9.

Hoellen F, Hornemann A, Haertel C et al (2014) Does maternal underweight prior to conception influence pregnancy risks and outcome? *In Vivo* 28(6): 1165-70.

Houde M, Dahdouh EM, Mongrain V et al (2015) The Effect of Adequate Gestational Weight Gain among Adolescents Relative to Adults of Equivalent Body Mass Index and the Risk of Preterm Birth, Cesarean Delivery, and Low Birth Weight. *J Pediatr Adolesc Gynecol* 28(6): 502-7.

Hu R, Chen Y, Zhang Y et al (2017) Association between vomiting in the first trimester and preterm birth: a retrospective birth cohort study in Wuhan, China. *BMJ Open* 7(9): e017309.

Huang TT, Wang HS, Dai FT (2010) Effect of pre-pregnancy body size on postpartum weight retention. *Midwifery* 26(2): 222-31.

Hung TH, Hsieh TT, Lo LM et al (2013) Risk factors and perinatal outcomes associated with idiopathic small for gestational age Taiwanese newborns. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 122(3): 212-5.

Jeric M, Roje D, Medic N et al (2013) Maternal pre-pregnancy underweight and fetal growth in relation to institute of medicine recommendations for gestational weight gain. *Early Hum Dev* 89(5): 277-81.

Jung SJ, Park SK, Shin A et al (2015) Body mass index at age 18-20 and later risk of spontaneous abortion in the Health Examinees Study (HEXA). *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 15: 228.

Kandil M, Sanad Z, Sayyed T et al (2017) Body mass index is linked to cervical length and duration of pregnancy: An observational study in low risk pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 37(1): 33-37.

Khanam R, Lee AC, Mitra DK et al (2019) Maternal short stature and under-weight status are independent risk factors for preterm birth and small for gestational age in rural Bangladesh. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 73(5): 733-42.

Kosa JL, Guendelman S, Pearl M et al (2011) The association between pre-pregnancy BMI and preterm delivery in a diverse southern California population of working women. *Matern Child Health J* 15(6): 772-81.

Kumpulainen SM, Girchenko P, Lahti-Pulkkinen M et al (2018) Maternal early pregnancy obesity and depressive symptoms during and after pregnancy. *Psychol Med* 48(14): 2353-63.

Kutbi H, Wehby GL, Moreno Uribe LM et al (2017) Maternal underweight and obesity and risk of orofacial clefts in a large international consortium of population-based studies. *Int J Epidemiol* 46(1): 190-99.

Lengyel CS, Ehrlich S, Iams JD et al (2017) Effect of Modifiable Risk Factors on Preterm Birth: A Population Based-Cohort. *Matern Child Health J* 21(4): 777-85.

Li C, Liu Y, Zhang W (2015) Joint and Independent Associations of Gestational Weight Gain and Pre-Pregnancy Body Mass Index with Outcomes of Pregnancy in Chinese Women: A Retrospective Cohort Study. *PLoS One* 10(8): e0136850.

Li C, Zhu N, Zeng L et al (2018) Effect of maternal pre-pregnancy underweight and average gestational weight gain on physical growth and intellectual development of early school-aged children. *Sci Rep* 8(1): 12014.

Li Z, Liu J, Ye R et al (2010) Maternal prepregnancy body mass index and risk of neural tube defects: A population-based case-control study in Shanxi province, China. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 88(7): 570-4.

Liabsuetrakul T (2011) Is international or Asian criteria-based body mass index associated with maternal anaemia, low birthweight, and preterm births among Thai population?—an observational study. *J Health Popul Nutr* 29(3): 218-28.

Lindholm ES, Altman D, Norman M et al (2015) Health Care Consumption during Pregnancy in relation to Maternal Body Mass Index: A Swedish Population Based Observational Study. *J Obes* 2015: 215683.

Lisonkova S, Muraca GM, Potts J et al (2017) Association Between Prepregnancy Body Mass Index and Severe Maternal Morbidity. *JAMA* 318(18): 1777-86.

Liu X, Du J, Wang G et al (2011) Effect of pre-pregnancy body mass index on adverse pregnancy outcome in north of China. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 283(1): 65-70.

Mackay E, Dalman C, Karlsson H et al (2017) Association of Gestational Weight Gain and Maternal Body Mass Index in Early Pregnancy With Risk for Nonaffective Psychosis in Offspring. *JAMA Psychiatry* 74(4): 339-49.

Marengo L, Farag NH, Canfield M (2013) Body mass index and birth defects: Texas, 2005-2008. *Matern Child Health J* 17(10): 1898-907.

Metwally M, Saravelos SH, Ledger WL et al (2010) Body mass index and risk of miscarriage in women with recurrent miscarriage. *Fertil Steril* 94(1): 290-5.

Micali N, Daniel RM, Ploubidis GB et al (2018) Maternal Prepregnancy Weight Status and Adolescent Eating Disorder Behaviors: A Longitudinal Study of Risk Pathways. *Epidemiology* 29(4): 579-89.

Mongraw-Chaffin ML, Anderson CA, Clark JM et al (2014) Prepregnancy body mass index and cardiovascular disease mortality: the Child Health and Development Studies. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 22(4): 1149-56.

Morino S & Ishihara M (2015) The Association between Pregnancy-Related Discomforts and Pre-Pregnancy Body Mass Index in Japanese Women. *Journal of Women's Health Care* 4(1).

Muhammad T, Khattak AA, Rehman S et al (2010) Maternal factors associated with intrauterine growth restriction. *J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad* 22(4): 64-69.

Murai U, Nomura K, Kido M et al (2017) Pre-pregnancy body mass index as a predictor of low birth weight infants in Japan. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr* 26(3): 434-37.

Pan Y, Zhang S, Wang Q et al (2016) Investigating the association between prepregnancy body mass index and adverse pregnancy outcomes: a large cohort study of 536 098 Chinese pregnant women in rural China. *BMJ Open* 6(6): e011227.

Panaretto K, Lee H, Mitchell M et al (2006) Risk factors for preterm, low birth weight and small for gestational age birth in urban Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women in Townsville. *Aust N Z J Public Health* 30(2): 163-70.

Parker MG, Ouyang F, Pearson C et al (2014) Prepregnancy body mass index and risk of preterm birth: association heterogeneity by preterm subgroups. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 153.

Rafei RE, Abbas HA, Alameddine H et al (2018) Assessing the Risk of Having Small for Gestational Age Newborns Among Lebanese Underweight and Normal Pre-pregnancy Weight Women. *Matern Child Health J* 22(1): 130-36.

Rai RK, Singh L, Singh PK (2017) Is maternal body mass index associated with neonatal mortality? A pooled analysis of nationally representative data from nine Asian countries. *Nutrition* 41: 68-72.

Rankin J, Tennant PW, Stothard KJ et al (2010) Maternal body mass index and congenital anomaly risk: a cohort study. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 34(9): 1371-80.

Ratnasiri AWG, Lee HC, Lakshminrusimha S et al (2019) Trends in maternal prepregnancy body mass index (BMI) and its association with birth and maternal outcomes in California, 2007-2016: A retrospective cohort study. *PLoS One* 14(9): e0222458.

Ricci E, Parazzini F, Chiaffarino F et al (2010) Pre-pregnancy body mass index, maternal weight gain during pregnancy and risk of small-for-gestational age birth: results from a case-control study in Italy. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 23(6): 501-5.

Richardson BS, Ruttinger S, Brown HK et al (2017) Maternal body mass index impacts fetal-placental size at birth and umbilical cord oxygen values with implications for regulatory mechanisms. *Early Hum Dev* 112: 42-47.

Scott-Pillai R, Spence D, Cardwell CR et al (2013) The impact of body mass index on maternal and neonatal outcomes: a retrospective study in a UK obstetric population, 2004-2011. *BJOG* 120(8): 932-9.

Sebastian Manzanares G, Angel Santalla H, Irene Vico Z et al (2012) Abnormal maternal body mass index and obstetric and neonatal outcome. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 25(3): 308-12.

Sharashova EE, Anda EE, Grjibovski AM (2014) Early pregnancy body mass index and spontaneous preterm birth in Northwest Russia: a registry-based study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 303.

Sharifzadeh F, Kashanian M, Jouhari S et al (2015) Relationship between pre-pregnancy maternal BMI with spontaneous preterm delivery and birth weight. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 35(4): 354-7.

Shaw GM, Wise PH, Mayo J et al (2014) Maternal prepregnancy body mass index and risk of spontaneous preterm birth. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 28(4): 302-11.

Shin D & Song WO (2015) Prepregnancy body mass index is an independent risk factor for gestational hypertension, gestational diabetes, preterm labor, and small- and large-for-gestational-age infants. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 28(14): 1679-86.

Shin D, Lee KW, Song WO (2016) Pre-Pregnancy Weight Status Is Associated with Diet Quality and Nutritional Biomarkers during Pregnancy. *Nutrients* 8(3): 162.

Silverman ME, Smith L, Lichtenstein P et al (2018) The association between body mass index and postpartum depression: A population-based study. *J Affect Disord* 240: 193-98.

Simonsen SE, Lyon JL, Stanford JB et al (2013) Risk factors for recurrent preterm birth in multiparous Utah women: a historical cohort study. *BJOG* 120(7): 863-72.

Sjoholm P, Pahkala K, Davison B et al (2018) Early life determinants of cardiovascular health in adulthood. The Australian Aboriginal Birth Cohort study. *Int J Cardiol* 269: 304-09.

Suzuki K, Nomura K, Takenoshita S et al (2016) Combination of parity and pre-pregnancy BMI and low birth weight infants among Japanese women of reproductive age. *Ind Health* 54(6): 515-20.

Tabet M, Flick LH, Tuuli MG et al (2015) Prepregnancy body mass index in a first uncomplicated pregnancy and outcomes of a second pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 213(4): 548 e1-7.

Tamura N, Hanaoka T, Ito K et al (2018) Different Risk Factors for Very Low Birth Weight, Term-Small-for-Gestational-Age, or Preterm Birth in Japan. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 15(2).

Tan J, Qi YN, He GL et al (2018) Association between Maternal Weight Indicators and Iron Deficiency Anemia during Pregnancy: A Cohort Study. *Chin Med J (Engl)* 131(21): 2566-74.

Tang L, Zhu P, Hao JH et al (2013) Pre-pregnancy body mass index moderates the effect of maternal depressive symptoms on small-for-gestational-age infants. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 288(1): 15-21.

Taylor-Robinson D, Agarwal U, Diggle PJ et al (2011) Quantifying the impact of deprivation on preterm births: a retrospective cohort study. *PLoS One* 6(8): e23163.

Tennant PW, Rankin J, Bell R (2011) Maternal body mass index and the risk of fetal and infant death: a cohort study from the North of England. *Hum Reprod* 26(6): 1501-11.

Thompson LA, Zhang S, Black E et al (2013) The association of maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index with breastfeeding initiation. *Matern Child Health J* 17(10): 1842-51.

Thrift AP & Callaway LK (2014) The effect of obesity on pregnancy outcomes among Australian Indigenous and non-Indigenous women. *Med J Aust* 201(10): 592-5.

Trojner Bregar A, Blickstein I, Brzan Simenc G et al (2017) Perinatal Advantages and Disadvantages of Being Underweight before Pregnancy: A Population-Based Study. *Gynecol Obstet Invest* 82(3): 303-06.

Verma A & Shrimali L (2012) Maternal body mass index and pregnancy outcome. *J Clin Diagn Res* 6(9): 1531-3.

Vikanes A, Grjibovski AM, Vangen S et al (2010) Maternal body composition, smoking, and hyperemesis gravidarum. *Ann Epidemiol* 20(8): 592-8.

Vinturache A, McKeating A, Daly N et al (2017) Maternal body mass index and the prevalence of spontaneous and elective preterm deliveries in an Irish obstetric population: a retrospective cohort study. *BMJ Open* 7(10): e015258.

Voigt M, Zels K, Guthmann F et al (2011) Somatic classification of neonates based on birth weight, length, and head circumference: quantification of the effects of maternal BMI and smoking. *J Perinat Med* 39(3): 291-7.

Wallace JM, Horgan GW, Bhattacharya S (2012) Placental weight and efficiency in relation to maternal body mass index and the risk of pregnancy complications in women delivering singleton babies. *Placenta* 33(8): 611-8.

Wang T, Zhang J, Lu X et al (2011) Maternal early pregnancy body mass index and risk of preterm birth. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 284(4): 813-9.

Wang X, Zhang X, Zhou M et al (2019) Association of prepregnancy body mass index, rate of gestational weight gain with pregnancy outcomes in Chinese urban women. *Nutr Metab (Lond)* 16: 54.

Watanabe H, Inoue K, Doi M et al (2010) Risk factors for term small for gestational age infants in women with low prepregnancy body mass index. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 36(3): 506-12.

Watson M, Howell S, Johnston T et al (2013) Pre-pregnancy BMI: costs associated with maternal underweight and obesity in Queensland. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 53(3): 243-9.

Wehby GL, Uribe LM, Wilcox AJ et al (2017) Interaction between smoking and body mass index and risk of oral clefts. *Ann Epidemiol* 27(2): 103-07 e2.

Wei YM, Yang HX, Zhu WW et al (2016) Risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes stratified for pre-pregnancy body mass index. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 29(13): 2205-9.

Windham GC, Anderson M, Lyall K et al (2019) Maternal Pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index and Gestational Weight Gain in Relation to Autism Spectrum Disorder and other Developmental Disorders in Offspring. *Autism Res* 12(2): 316-27.

Wise LA, Palmer JR, Heffner LJ et al (2010) Prepregnancy body size, gestational weight gain, and risk of preterm birth in African-American women. *Epidemiology* 21(2): 243-52.

Zanardo V, Mazza A, Parotto M et al (2016) Gestational weight gain and fetal growth in underweight women. *Ital J Pediatr* 42(1): 74.

Zhang B, Yang S, Yang R et al (2016) Maternal Prepregnancy Body Mass Index and Small for Gestational Age Births in Chinese Women. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 30(6): 550-54.

Zhang L, Zhang Y, Li Z et al (2019) Maternal periconceptional body mass index and risk for neural tube defects: results from a large cohort study in China. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*: 1-7.

Zhong Y, Cahill AG, Macones GA et al (2010) The association between prepregnancy maternal body mass index and preterm delivery. *Am J Perinatol* 27(4): 293-8.

#### Wrong population

Kosinska-Kaczynska K & Wielgos M (2016) Do normal-weight women pregnant with twins are at the lowest risk of developing preeclampsia? *The Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine* 30(2): 191-93.

Liu LY, Zafman KB, Fox NS (2018) Weight gain and pregnancy outcomes in underweight women with twin gestations. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*: 1-141.

Ram M, Berger H, Lipworth H et al (2020) The relationship between maternal body mass index and pregnancy outcomes in twin compared with singleton pregnancies. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 44(1): 33-44.

#### Duplicate

Goetzinger KR, Cahill AG, Macones GA et al (2012) The relationship between maternal body mass index and tobacco use on small-for-gestational-age infants. *Am J Perinatol* 29(3): 153-8.

Lisonkova S, Muraca GM, Potts J et al (2017) Association Between Prepregnancy Body Mass Index and Severe Maternal Morbidity. *JAMA* 318(18): 1777-86.

Micali N, Daniel RM, Ploubidis GB et al (2018) Maternal Prepregnancy Weight Status and Adolescent Eating Disorder Behaviors: A Longitudinal Study of Risk Pathways. *Epidemiology* 29(4): 579-89.

Silverman ME, Smith L, Lichtenstein P et al (2018) The association between body mass index and postpartum depression: A population-based study. *J Affect Disord* 240: 193-98.

Vinturache A, McKeating A, Daly N et al (2017) Maternal body mass index and the prevalence of spontaneous and elective preterm deliveries in an Irish obstetric population: a retrospective cohort study. *BMJ Open* 7(10): e015258.

#### Narrative review

Neggers YH (2015) The relationship between preterm birth and underweight in Asian women. *Reprod Toxicol* 56: 170-4.

#### Does not answer research question

Voigt M, Jorch G, Briese V et al (2011) The combined effect of maternal body mass index and smoking status on perinatal outcomes - an analysis of the german perinatal survey. *Z Geburtshilfe Neonatol* 215(1): 23-8.

Whiteman VE, Rao K, Duan J et al (2011) Changes in prepregnancy body mass index between pregnancies and risk of preterm phenotypes. *Am J Perinatol* 28(1): 67-74.

Yan J (2015) Maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational weight gain, and infant birth weight: A within-family analysis in the United States. *Econ Hum Biol* 18: 1-12.

### Lifestyle counselling (question 9)

#### Duplicate

Aittasalo M, Raitanen J, Kinnunen TI et al (2012) Is intensive counseling in maternity care feasible and effective in promoting physical activity among women at risk for gestational diabetes? Secondary analysis of a cluster randomized NELLI study in Finland. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 9: 104.

Dodd JM, McPhee AJ, Turnbull D et al (2014) The effects of antenatal dietary and lifestyle advice for women who are overweight or obese on neonatal health outcomes: the LIMIT randomised trial. *BMC Med* 12: 163.

Harrison CL, Lombard CB, Strauss BJ et al (2013) Optimizing healthy gestational weight gain in women at high risk of gestational diabetes: a randomized controlled trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 21(5): 904-9.

Olson CM, Groth SW, Graham ML et al (2018) The effectiveness of an online intervention in preventing excessive gestational weight gain: the e-moms roc randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 18(1): 148.

Ruchat S-M, Davenport MH, Giroux I et al (2012) Nutrition and exercise reduce excessive weight gain in normal-weight pregnant women. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise* 44(8): 1419-26.

Sagedal LR, Vistad I, Overby NC et al (2017) The effect of a prenatal lifestyle intervention on glucose metabolism: results of the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 17(1): 167.

Skouteris H, Morris H, Nagle C et al (2014) Behavior modification techniques used to prevent gestational diabetes: a systematic review of the literature. *Curr Diab Rep* 14(4): 480.

#### Wrong study design

Hui A, Back L, Ludwig S et al (2012) Lifestyle intervention on diet and exercise reduced excessive gestational weight gain in pregnant women under a randomised controlled trial. *BJOG* 119(1): 70-7.

Chasan-Taber L (2012) Physical activity and dietary behaviors associated with weight gain and impaired glucose tolerance among pregnant Latinas. *Adv Nutr* 3(1): 108-18.

Ferrara A, Hedderson MM, Albright CL et al (2011) A Pregnancy and postpartum lifestyle intervention in women with gestational diabetes mellitus reduces diabetes risk factors: A feasibility randomized control trial. *Diabetes Care* 34(7): 1519-25.

Haby K, Berg M, Gyllensten H et al (2018) Mighty Mums – a lifestyle intervention at primary care level reduces gestational weight gain in women with obesity. *BMC Obesity* 5(1).

Kinnunen TI, Pasanen M, Aittasalo M et al (2007) Preventing excessive weight gain during pregnancy – a controlled trial in primary health care. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 61(7): 884-91.

Mustila T, Raitanen J, Keskinen P et al (2012) Lifestyle counseling during pregnancy and offspring weight development until four years of age: follow-up study of a controlled trial. *J Negat Results Biomed* 11: 11.

Mustila T, Raitanen J, Keskinen P et al (2018) A pragmatic controlled trial to prevent childhood obesity within a risk group at maternity and child health-care clinics: results up to six years of age (the VACOPP study). *BMC Pediatr* 18(1): 89.

Simmons D, Jelsma JG, Galjaard S et al (2015) Results From a European multicenter randomized trial of physical activity and/or healthy eating to reduce the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: The DALI lifestyle pilot. *Diabetes Care* 38(9): 1650-6.

Szmeja MA, Cramp C, Grivell RM et al (2014) Use of a DVD to provide dietary and lifestyle information to pregnant women who are overweight or obese: a nested randomised trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 14: 409.

Thomson JL, Tussing-Humphreys LM, Goodman MH (2014) Delta Healthy Sprouts: a randomized comparative effectiveness trial to promote maternal weight control and reduce childhood obesity in the Mississippi Delta. *Contemp Clin Trials* 38(1): 82-91.

#### Wrong setting

Herring SJ, Cruice JF, Bennett GG et al (2016) Preventing excessive gestational weight gain among African American women: A randomized clinical trial. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 24(1): 30-6.

Olson CM, Groth SW, Graham ML et al (2018) The effectiveness of an online intervention in preventing excessive gestational weight gain: the e-moms roc randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 18(1): 148.

#### Wrong population

Bo S, Rosato R, Ciccone G et al (2014) Simple lifestyle recommendations and the outcomes of gestational diabetes. A 2×2 factorial randomized trial. *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism* 16(10): 1032-35.

Huang TT, Yeh CY, Tsai YC (2011) A diet and physical activity intervention for preventing weight retention among Taiwanese childbearing women: a randomised controlled trial. *Midwifery* 27(2): 257-64.

McEachan RRC, Santorelli G, Bryant M et al (2016) The HAPPY (Healthy and Active Parenting Programmme for early Years) feasibility randomised control trial: acceptability and feasibility of an intervention to reduce infant obesity. *BMC Public Health* 16: 211.

Sayakhot P, Carolan-Olah M, Steele C (2016) Use of a web-based educational intervention to improve knowledge of healthy diet and lifestyle in women with Gestational Diabetes Mellitus compared to standard clinic-based education. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 16(1): 208.

Youngwanichsetha S, Phumdoung S, Ingkathawornwong T (2014) The effects of mindfulness eating and yoga exercise on blood sugar levels of pregnant women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *Appl Nurs Res* 27(4): 227-30.

#### Wrong intervention

Gardner B, Wardle J, Poston L et al (2011) Changing diet and physical activity to reduce gestational weight gain: a meta-analysis. *Obes Rev* 12(7): e602-20.

#### Wrong comparator

Thomson JL, Tussing-Humphreys LM, Goodman MH et al (2016) Gestational Weight Gain: Results from the Delta Healthy Sprouts Comparative Impact Trial. *Journal of Pregnancy* 2016: 1-12.

#### Wrong outcomes

Chang M-W, Brown R, Nitzke S (2017) Results and lessons learned from a prevention of weight gain program for low-income overweight and obese young mothers: Mothers In Motion. *BMC Public Health* 17(1).

Dodd JM, Deussen AR, Mohamad I et al (2016) The effect of antenatal lifestyle advice for women who are overweight or obese on secondary measures of neonatal body composition: the LIMIT randomised trial. *BJOG* 123(2): 244-53.

Dodd JM, Louise J, Cramp C et al (2018) Evaluation of a smartphone nutrition and physical activity application to provide lifestyle advice to pregnant women: The SNAPP randomised trial. *Matern Child Nutr* 14(1).

Grivell RM, Yelland LN, Deussen A et al (2016) Antenatal dietary and lifestyle advice for women who are overweight or obese and the effect on fetal growth and adiposity: the LIMIT randomised trial. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 123(2): 233-43.

Huvinen E, Koivusalo SB, Meinilä J et al (2018) Effects of a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy and first postpartum year: findings from the RADIEL study. *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 103(4): 1669-77.

Jackson RA, Stotland NE, Caughey AB et al (2011) Improving diet and exercise in pregnancy with Video Doctor counseling: a randomized trial. *Patient Educ Couns* 83(2): 203-9.

Pereira RI, Brown MJ, Sinclair M et al (2012) A systematic review investigating healthy lifestyle interventions incorporating goal setting strategies for preventing excess gestational weight gain. *PLoS ONE* 7(7).

Tanvig M, Vinter CA, Jørgensen JS et al (2015) Effects of lifestyle intervention in pregnancy and anthropometrics at birth on offspring metabolic profile at 2.8 years: results from the Lifestyle in Pregnancy and Offspring (LiPO) Study. *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 100(1): 175-83.

Torres R, Soltero S, Trak MA et al (2016) Lifestyle modification intervention for overweight and obese Hispanic pregnant women: development, implementation, lessons learned and future applications. *Contemp Clin Trials Commun* 3: 111-16.

Wilkinson SA & McIntyre HD (2012) Evaluation of the 'healthy start to pregnancy' early antenatal health promotion workshop: a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 12: 131.

#### Narrative review

O'Brien OA, McCarthy M, Gibney ER et al (2014) Technology-supported dietary and lifestyle interventions in healthy pregnant women: a systematic review. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 68(7): 760-66.

#### Does not answer research question

Ronnberg AK & Nilsson K (2010) Interventions during pregnancy to reduce excessive gestational weight gain: a systematic review assessing current clinical evidence using the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) system. *BJOG* 117(11): 1327-34.

Skouteris H, Morris H, Nagle C et al (2014) Behavior modification techniques used to prevent gestational diabetes: a systematic review of the literature. *Curr Diab Rep* 14(4): 480.

# References

1. NHMRC. *How to Review the Evidence: Systematic Identification and Review of the Scientific Literature*. Canberra: National Health and Medical Research Council; 2000.

2. NHMRC. *How to use the Evidence: Assessment and Application of Scientific Evidence*. Canberra: National Health and Medical Research Council; 2000.

3. SIGN. *Methodology Checklist 1: Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses*. Edinburgh: Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network; 2004.

4. Schünemann H, Brożek J, Guyatt G et al. *GRADE Handbook for Grading Quality of Evidence and Strength of Recommendations*. Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group 2013.

5. Lee A, Belski R, Radcliffe J et al. What do pregnant women know about the healthy eating guidelines for pregnancy? A web-based questionnaire. *Matern Child Health J*. 2016; 20(10): 2179-88.

6. Malek L, Umberger W, Makrides M et al. Adherence to the Australian dietary guidelines during pregnancy: evidence from a national study. *Public Health Nutr*. 2016; 19(7): 1155-63.

7. Mishra GD, Schoenaker DA, Mihrshahi S et al. How do women's diets compare with the new Australian dietary guidelines? *Public Health Nutr*. 2015; 18(2): 218-25.

8. Lee A, Muggli E, Halliday J et al. What do pregnant women eat, and are they meeting the recommended dietary requirements for pregnancy? *Midwifery*. 2018; 67: 70-6.

9. Lee A, Newton M, Radcliffe J et al. Pregnancy nutrition knowledge and experiences of pregnant women and antenatal care clinicians: A mixed methods approach. *Women Birth*. 2018; 31(4): 269-77.

10. Bookari K, Yeatman H, Williamson M. Australian pregnant women's awareness of gestational weight gain and dietary guidelines: opportunity for action. *J Pregnancy*. 2016; 2016: 8162645.

11. Bookari K, Yeatman H, Williamson M. Falling short of dietary guidelines - What do Australian pregnant women really know? A cross sectional study. *Women Birth*. 2017; 30(1): 9-17.

12. McGowan CA, McAuliffe FM. Maternal dietary patterns and associated nutrient intakes during each trimester of pregnancy. *Public Health Nutr*. 2013; 16(1): 97-107.

13. Wall CR, Gammon CS, Bandara DK et al. Dietary Patterns in Pregnancy in New Zealand-Influence of Maternal Socio-Demographic, Health and Lifestyle Factors. *Nutrients*. 2016; 8(5).

14. Ashman AM, Brown LJ, Collins CE et al. Factors associated with effective nutrition interventions for pregnant indigenous women: a systematic review. *J Acad Nutr Diet*. 2017; 117(8): 1222-53 e2.

15. Schoenaker DA, Mishra GD, Callaway LK et al. The role of energy, nutrients, foods, and dietary patterns in the development of gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review of observational studies. *Diabetes Care*. 2016; 39(1): 16-23.

16. Flynn AC, Seed PT, Patel N et al. Dietary patterns in obese pregnant women; influence of a behavioral intervention of diet and physical activity in the UPBEAT randomized controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act*. 2016; 13(1): 124.

17. Zhou X, Chen R, Zhong C et al. Maternal dietary pattern characterised by high protein and low carbohydrate intake in pregnancy is associated with a higher risk of gestational diabetes mellitus in Chinese women: a prospective cohort study. *Br J Nutr*. 2018; 120(9): 1045-55.

18. Shin D, Lee KW, Song WO. Dietary patterns during pregnancy are associated with risk of gestational diabetes mellitus. *Nutrients*. 2015; 7(11): 9369-82.

19. Martin CL, Siega-Riz AM, Sotres-Alvarez D et al. Maternal dietary patterns are associated with lower levels of cardiometabolic markers during pregnancy. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2016; 30(3): 246-55.

20. Sedaghat F, Akhoondan M, Ehteshami M et al. Maternal dietary patterns and gestational diabetes risk: A case-control study. *J Diabetes Res*. 2017; 2017: 5173926.

21. Zareei S, Homayounfar R, Naghizadeh MM et al. Dietary pattern in pregnancy and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM). *Diabetes Metab Syndr*. 2018; 12(3): 399-404.

22. Schoenaker DA, Soedamah-Muthu SS, Mishra GD. The association between dietary factors and gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *BMC Med*. 2014; 12: 157.

23. Ikem E, Halldorsson TI, Birgisdóttir BE et al. Dietary patterns and the risk of pregnancy-associated hypertension in the Danish National Birth Cohort: a prospective longitudinal study. *BJOG*. 2019; 126(5): 663-73.

24. Gresham E, Collins CE, Mishra GD et al. Diet quality before or during pregnancy and the relationship with pregnancy and birth outcomes: the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health. *Public Health Nutr*. 2016; 19(16): 2975-83.

25. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H et al. Dietary patterns and depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan: Baseline data from the Kyushu Okinawa Maternal and Child Health Study. *Journal of Affective Disorders*. 2018; 225: 552-8.

26. Baskin R, Hill B, Jacka FN et al. Antenatal dietary patterns and depressive symptoms during pregnancy and early post-partum. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2017; 13(1).

27. Nathanson R, Hill B, Skouteris H et al. Antenatal diet and postpartum depressive symptoms: A prospective study. *Midwifery*. 2018; 62: 69-76.

28. Raghavan R, Dreibelbis C, Kingshipp BL et al. Dietary patterns before and during pregnancy and birth outcomes: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 109(Supplement\_7): 729S-56S.

29. Chia AR, Chen LW, Lai JS et al. Maternal dietary patterns and birth outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Adv Nutr*. 2019; 10(4): 685-95.

30. Rasmussen MA, Maslova E, Halldorsson TI et al. Characterization of dietary patterns in the Danish national birth cohort in relation to preterm birth. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(4): e93644.

31. Englund-Ogge L, Brantsaeter AL, Sengpiel V et al. Maternal dietary patterns and preterm delivery: results from large prospective cohort study. *BMJ*. 2014; 348: g1446.

32. Englund-Ogge L, Brantsaeter AL, Juodakis J et al. Associations between maternal dietary patterns and infant birth weight, small and large for gestational age in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 73(9): 1270-82.

33. Englund-Ogge L, Birgisdottir BE, Sengpiel V et al. Meal frequency patterns and glycemic properties of maternal diet in relation to preterm delivery: Results from a large prospective cohort study. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(3): e0172896.

34. Chia AR, Tint MT, Han CY et al. Adherence to a healthy eating index for pregnant women is associated with lower neonatal adiposity in a multiethnic Asian cohort: the Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2018; 107(1): 71-9.

35. Emond JA, Karagas MR, Baker ER et al. Better diet quality during pregnancy is associated with a reduced likelihood of an infant born small for gestational age: an analysis of the prospective New Hampshire Birth Cohort Study. *J Nutr*. 2018; 148(1): 22-30.

36. Borge TC, Aase H, Brantsaeter AL et al. The importance of maternal diet quality during pregnancy on cognitive and behavioural outcomes in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ Open*. 2017; 7(9): e016777.

37. Martin CL, Sotres-Alvarez D, Siega-Riz AM. Maternal dietary patterns during the second trimester are associated with preterm birth. *J Nutr*. 2015; 145(8): 1857-64.

38. Loo EXL, Ong L, Goh A et al. Effect of maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy on self-reported allergic diseases in the first 3 years of life: Results from the GUSTO study. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*. 2017; 173(2): 105-13.

39. van den Broek M, Leermakers ETM, Jaddoe VWV et al. Maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and body composition of the child at age 6 y: the Generation R Study. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2015; 102(4): 873-80.

40. Leermakers ETM, Tielemans MJ, van den Broek M et al. Maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and offspring cardiometabolic health at age 6 years: The generation R study. *Clin Nutr*. 2017; 36(2): 477-84.

41. Pham NM, Do VV, Lee AH. Polyphenol-rich foods and risk of gestational diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 73(5): 647-56.

42. Zhang Y, Lin J, Fu W et al. Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and childhood for asthma in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 2019; 54(7): 949-61.

43. Assaf-Balut C, Garcia de la Torre N, Duran A et al. A Mediterranean diet with additional extra virgin olive oil and pistachios reduces the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM): A randomized controlled trial: The St. Carlos GDM prevention study. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(10): e0185873.

44. Assaf-Balut C, Garcia de la Torre N, Fuentes M et al. A high adherence to six food targets of the Mediterranean diet in the late first trimester is associated with a reduction in the risk of materno-foetal outcomes: The St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study. *Nutrients*. 2018; 11(1).

45. Assaf-Balut C, Garcia de la Torre N, Duran A et al. A Mediterranean diet with an enhanced consumption of extra virgin olive oil and pistachios improves pregnancy outcomes in women without gestational diabetes mellitus: a sub-analysis of the St. Carlos Gestational Diabetes Mellitus Prevention Study. *Ann Nutr Metab*. 2019; 74(1): 69-79.

46. Martínez-Galiano J, Olmedo-Requena R, Barrios-Rodríguez R et al. Effect of adherence to a Mediterranean diet and olive oil intake during pregnancy on risk of small for gestational age infants. *Nutrients*. 2018; 10(9).

47. Smith LK, Draper ES, Evans TA et al. Associations between late and moderately preterm birth and smoking, alcohol, drug use and diet: a population-based case-cohort study. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2015; 100(6): F486-91.

48. Saunders L, Guldner L, Costet N et al. Effect of a Mediterranean diet during pregnancy on fetal growth and preterm delivery: results from a French Caribbean Mother-Child Cohort Study (TIMOUN). *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2014; 28(3): 235-44.

49. Chatzi L, Rifas-Shiman SL, Georgiou V et al. Adherence to the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and offspring adiposity and cardiometabolic traits in childhood. *Pediatr Obes*. 2017; 12 Suppl 1: 47-56.

50. Fernandez-Barres S, Romaguera D, Valvi D et al. Mediterranean dietary pattern in pregnant women and offspring risk of overweight and abdominal obesity in early childhood: the INMA birth cohort study. *Pediatr Obes*. 2016; 11(6): 491-9.

51. Fernandez-Barres S, Vrijheid M, Manzano-Salgado CB et al. The association of mediterranean diet during pregnancy with longitudinal body mass index trajectories and cardiometabolic risk in early childhood. *J Pediatr*. 2019; 206: 119-27 e6.

52. Alvarez Zallo N, Aguinaga-Ontoso I, Alvarez-Alvarez I et al. Influence of the Mediterranean diet during pregnancy in the development of wheezing and eczema in infants in Pamplona, Spain. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr)*. 2018; 46(1): 9-14.

53. Castro-Rodriguez JA, Ramirez-Hernandez M, Padilla O et al. Effect of foods and Mediterranean diet during pregnancy and first years of life on wheezing, rhinitis and dermatitis in preschoolers. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr)*. 2016; 44(5): 400-9.

54. Ha V, Bonner AJ, Jadoo JK et al. The effects of various diets on glycemic outcomes during pregnancy: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(8): e0182095.

55. Piccoli GB, Clari R, Vigotti FN et al. Vegan-vegetarian diets in pregnancy: danger or panacea? A systematic narrative review. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology*. 2015; 122(5): 623-33.

56. Foster M, Herulah UN, Prasad A et al. Zinc Status of Vegetarians during Pregnancy: A Systematic Review of Observational Studies and Meta-Analysis of Zinc Intake. *Nutrients*. 2015; 7(6): 4512-25.

57. Zulyniak MA, de Souza RJ, Shaikh M et al. Does the impact of a plant-based diet during pregnancy on birth weight differ by ethnicity? A dietary pattern analysis from a prospective Canadian birth cohort alliance. *BMJ Open*. 2017; 7(11): e017753.

58. Glazier JD, Hayes DJL, Hussain S et al. The effect of Ramadan fasting during pregnancy on perinatal outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1): 421.

59. Steenweg-de Graaff J, Tiemeier H, Steegers-Theunissen RP et al. Maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and child internalising and externalising problems. The Generation R Study. *Clin Nutr*. 2014; 33(1): 115-21.

60. Fulay AP, Rifas-Shiman SL, Oken E et al. Associations of the dietary approaches to stop hypertension (DASH) diet with pregnancy complications in Project Viva. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2018; 72(10): 1385-95.

61. Shalit N, Shalit R, Sheiner E. The effect of a 25-hour fast during the Day of Atonement on preterm delivery. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2015; 28(12): 1410-3.

62. Bryant J, Waller A, Cameron E et al. Diet during pregnancy: Women's knowledge of and adherence to food safety guidelines. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2017; 57(3): 315-22.

63. Nunnery DL, Labban JD, Dharod JM. Interrelationship between food security status, home availability of variety of fruits and vegetables and their dietary intake among low-income pregnant women. *Public Health Nutr*. 2018; 21(4): 807-15.

64. Soto R, Guilloty N, Anzalota L et al. Association between maternal diet factors and hemoglobin levels, glucose tolerance, blood pressure and gestational age in a Hispanic population. *Arch Latinoam Nutr*. 2015; 65(2): 86-96.

65. Mi B, Wen X, Li S et al. Vegetable dietary pattern associated with low risk of preeclampsia possibly through reducing proteinuria. *Pregnancy Hypertens*. 2019; 16: 131-8.

66. Torjusen H, Brantsaeter AL, Haugen M et al. Reduced risk of pre-eclampsia with organic vegetable consumption: results from the prospective Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *BMJ Open*. 2014; 4(9): e006143.

67. Martinez-Galiano JM, Amezcua-Prieto C, Salcedo-Bellido I et al. Maternal dietary consumption of legumes, vegetables and fruit during pregnancy, does it protect against small for gestational age? *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1): 486.

68. Chia A-R, de Seymour JV, Colega M et al. A vegetable, fruit, and white rice dietary pattern during pregnancy is associated with a lower risk of preterm birth and larger birth size in a multiethnic Asian cohort: the Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) cohort study. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2016; 104(5): 1416-23.

69. Paskulin JTA, Drehmer M, Olinto MT et al. Association between dietary patterns and mental disorders in pregnant women in Southern Brazil. *Braz J Psychiatry*. 2017; 39(3): 208-15.

70. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H et al. Seaweed consumption and prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan: Baseline data from the Kyushu Okinawa Maternal and Child Health Study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2014; 14: 301.

71. Duke CH, Williamson JA, Snook KR et al. Association between fruit and vegetable consumption and sleep quantity in pregnant women. *Matern Child Health J*. 2017; 21(5): 966-73.

72. Wang M, Wang ZP, Gao LJ et al. Maternal consumption of non-staple food in the first trimester and risk of neural tube defects in offspring. *Nutrients*. 2015; 7(5): 3067-77.

73. Ogawa K, Morisaki N, Kobayashi M et al. Maternal vegetable intake in early pregnancy and wheeze in offspring at the age of 2 years. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2018; 72(5): 761-71.

74. Viljoen K, Segurado R, O'Brien J et al. Pregnancy diet and offspring asthma risk over a 10-year period: the Lifeways Cross Generation Cohort Study, Ireland. *BMJ Open*. 2018; 8(2): e017013.

75. Dessypris N, Karalexi MA, Ntouvelis E et al. Association of maternal and index child's diet with subsequent leukemia risk: A systematic review and meta analysis. *Cancer Epidemiol*. 2017; 47: 64-75.

76. Lombardi C, Ganguly A, Bunin GR et al. Maternal diet during pregnancy and unilateral retinoblastoma. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2015; 26(3): 387-97.

77. Emmett PM, Jones LR, Golding J. Pregnancy diet and associated outcomes in the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children. *Nutr Rev*. 2015; 73 Suppl 3: 154-74.

78. Mohanty AF, Siscovick DS, Williams MA et al. Periconceptional seafood intake and pregnancy complications. *Public Health Nutr*. 2016; 19(10): 1795-803.

79. Vejrup K, Brantsaeter AL, Knutsen HK et al. Prenatal mercury exposure and infant birth weight in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Public Health Nutr*. 2014; 17(9): 2071-80.

80. Stratakis N, Roumeliotaki T, Oken E et al. Fish Intake in Pregnancy and Child Growth: A Pooled Analysis of 15 European and US Birth Cohorts. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2016; 170(4): 381-90.

81. van den Berg SW, Wijga AH, van Rossem L et al. Maternal fish consumption during pregnancy and BMI in children from birth up to age 14 years: the PIAMA cohort study. *Eur J Nutr*. 2016; 55(2): 799-808.

82. Zhang GQ, Liu B, Li J et al. Fish intake during pregnancy or infancy and allergic outcomes in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2017; 28(2): 152-61.

83. Ozawa N, Shimojo N, Suzuki Y et al. Maternal intake of Natto, a Japan's traditional fermented soybean food, during pregnancy and the risk of eczema in Japanese babies. *Allergol Int*. 2014; 63(2): 261-6.

84. Maslova E, Strom M, Oken E et al. Fish intake during pregnancy and the risk of child asthma and allergic rhinitis - longitudinal evidence from the Danish National Birth Cohort. *Br J Nutr*. 2013; 110(7): 1313-25.

85. Starling P, Charlton K, McMahon AT et al. Fish intake during pregnancy and foetal neurodevelopment--a systematic review of the evidence. *Nutrients*. 2015; 7(3): 2001-14.

86. Vejrup K, Brandlistuen RE, Brantsaeter AL et al. Prenatal mercury exposure, maternal seafood consumption and associations with child language at five years. *Environ Int*. 2018; 110: 71-9.

87. Vejrup K, Schjolberg S, Knutsen HK et al. Prenatal methylmercury exposure and language delay at three years of age in the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Environ Int*. 2016; 92-93: 63-9.

88. Mesirow MS, Cecil C, Maughan B et al. Associations between prenatal and early childhood fish and processed food intake, conduct problems, and co-occurring difficulties. *J Abnorm Child Psychol*. 2017; 45(5): 1039-49.

89. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H et al. Intake of dairy products and calcium and prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan: a cross-sectional study. *BJOG*. 2015; 122(3): 336-43.

90. Bunyavanich S, Rifas-Shiman SL, Platts-Mills TA et al. Peanut, milk, and wheat intake during pregnancy is associated with reduced allergy and asthma in children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2014; 133(5): 1373-82.

91. Tuokkola J, Luukkainen P, Tapanainen H et al. Maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation and cow's milk allergy in offspring. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2016; 70(5): 554-9.

92. Renault KM, Carlsen EM, Norgaard K et al. Intake of carbohydrates during pregnancy in obese women is associated with fat mass in the newborn offspring. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2015; 102(6): 1475-81.

93. Sharma SS, Greenwood DC, Simpson NAB et al. Is dietary macronutrient composition during pregnancy associated with offspring birth weight? An observational study. *Br J Nutr*. 2018; 119(3): 330-9.

94. Pang WW, Colega M, Cai S et al. Higher maternal dietary protein intake is associated with a higher risk of gestational diabetes mellitus in a multiethnic asian cohort. *J Nutr*. 2017; 147(4): 653-60.

95. Switkowski KM, Jacques PF, Must A et al. Maternal protein intake during pregnancy and linear growth in the offspring. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016; 104(4): 1128-36.

96. Tielemans MJ, Steegers EAP, Voortman T et al. Protein intake during pregnancy and offspring body composition at 6 years: the Generation R Study. *Eur J Nutr*. 2017; 56(6): 2151-60.

97. Chen LW, Tint MT, Fortier MV et al. Maternal macronutrient intake during pregnancy is associated with neonatal abdominal adiposity: The Growing Up in Singapore Towards healthy Outcomes (GUSTO) study. *J Nutr*. 2016; 146(8): 1571-9.

98. Mizgier M, Jarzabek-Bielecka G, Mruczyk K. Maternal diet and gestational diabetes mellitus development. *J Maternal-Fetal Neonat Med*. 2019: 1-10.

99. Watson PE, McDonald BW. Water and nutrient intake in pregnant New Zealand women: association with wheeze in their infants at 18 months. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2014; 23(4): 660-70.

100. Renault KM, Carlsen EM, Nørgaard K et al. Intake of sweets, snacks and soft drinks predicts weight gain in obese pregnant women: detailed analysis of the results of a randomised controlled trial. *Plos One*. 2015; 10(7).

101. Donazar-Ezcurra M, Lopez-Del Burgo C, Martinez-Gonzalez MA et al. Soft drink consumption and gestational diabetes risk in the SUN project. *Clin Nutr*. 2018; 37(2): 638-45.

102. Azad MB, Sharma AK, de Souza RJ et al. Association between artificially sweetened beverage consumption during pregnancy and infant body mass index. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2016; 170(7): 662-70.

103. Zhu Y, Olsen SF, Mendola P et al. Maternal consumption of artificially sweetened beverages during pregnancy, and offspring growth through 7 years of age: a prospective cohort study. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2017; 46(5): 1499-508.

104. Bedard A, Northstone K, Henderson AJ et al. Maternal intake of sugar during pregnancy and childhood respiratory and atopic outcomes. *Eur Respir J*. 2017; 50(1).

105. Dominguez LJ, Martinez-Gonzalez MA, Basterra-Gortari FJ et al. Fast food consumption and gestational diabetes incidence in the SUN project. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(9): e106627.

106. von Ehrenstein OS, Aralis H, Flores ME et al. Fast food consumption in pregnancy and subsequent asthma symptoms in young children. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2015; 26(6): 571-7.

107. Colapinto CK, Arbuckle TE, Dubois L et al. Tea consumption in pregnancy as a predictor of pesticide exposure and adverse birth outcomes: The MIREC Study. *Environmental Research*. 2015; 142: 77-83.

108. Okubo H, Miyake Y, Tanaka K et al. Maternal total caffeine intake, mainly from Japanese and Chinese tea, during pregnancy was associated with risk of preterm birth: the Osaka Maternal and Child Health Study. *Nutr Res*. 2015; 35(4): 309-16.

109. Greenop KR, Miller M, Attia J et al. Maternal consumption of coffee and tea during pregnancy and risk of childhood brain tumors: results from an Australian case-control study. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2014; 25(10): 1321-7.

110. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H et al. Maternal caffeine intake in pregnancy is inversely related to childhood peer problems in Japan: The Kyushu Okinawa Maternal and Child Health Study. *Nutr Neurosci*. 2019; 22(11): 817-24.

111. Frazier AL, Camargo CA, Jr., Malspeis S et al. Prospective study of peripregnancy consumption of peanuts or tree nuts by mothers and the risk of peanut or tree nut allergy in their offspring. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2014; 168(2): 156-62.

112. Miyake Y, Tanaka K, Okubo H et al. Soy isoflavone intake and prevalence of depressive symptoms during pregnancy in Japan: baseline data from the Kyushu Okinawa Maternal and Child Health Study. *Eur J Nutr*. 2018; 57(2): 441-50.

113. AIHW. *Monitoring the health impacts of mandatory folic acid and iodine fortification*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare; 2016.

114. Austin M-P, Highet N, Expert Working Group. *Mental Health Care in the Perinatal Period: Australian Clinical Practice Guideline*. Melbourne: Centre of Perinatal Excellence; 2017.

115. Shand AW, Walls M, Chatterjee R et al. Dietary vitamin, mineral and herbal supplement use: a cross-sectional survey of before and during pregnancy use in Sydney, Australia. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2016; 56(2): 154-61.

116. Malek L, Umberger W, Makrides M et al. Poor adherence to folic acid and iodine supplement recommendations in preconception and pregnancy: a cross-sectional analysis. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*. 2016; 40(5): 424-9.

117. Livock M, Anderson PJ, Lewis S et al. Maternal micronutrient consumption periconceptionally and during pregnancy: a prospective cohort study. *Public Health Nutr*. 2017; 20(2): 294-304.

118. Wang M, Li K, Zhao D et al. The association between maternal use of folic acid supplements during pregnancy and risk of autism spectrum disorders in children: a meta-analysis. *Mol Autism*. 2017; 8: 51.

119. Jahanbin A, Shadkam E, Miri HH et al. Maternal folic acid supplementation and the risk of oral clefts in offspring. *J Craniofacial Surg*. 2018; 29(6): e534-e41.

120. Metayer C, Milne E, Dockerty JD et al. Maternal supplementation with folic acid and other vitamins and risk of leukemia in offspring: a Childhood Leukemia International Consortium study. *Epidemiology*. 2014; 25(6): 811-22.

121. Saccone G, Berghella V. Folic acid supplementation in pregnancy to prevent preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2016; 199: 76-81.

122. Wang T, Zhang H-P, Zhang X et al. Is folate status a risk factor for asthma or other allergic diseases? *Allergy, Asthma & Immunology Research*. 2015; 7(6).

123. Xu A, Cao X, Lu Y et al. A meta-analysis of the relationship between maternal folic acid supplementation and the risk of congenital heart defects. *Int Heart J*. 2016; 57(6): 725-8.

124. Zhang Q, Wang Y, Xin X et al. Effect of folic acid supplementation on preterm delivery and small for gestational age births: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Reprod Toxicol*. 2017; 67: 35-41.

125. Balogun OO, da Silva Lopes K, Ota E et al. Vitamin supplementation for preventing miscarriage. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2016; (5): CD004073.

126. Bulloch RE, Lovell AL, Jordan VMB et al. Maternal folic acid supplementation for the prevention of preeclampsia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology*. 2018; 32(4): 346-57.

127. Chiavarini M, Naldini G, Fabiani R. Maternal Folate Intake and Risk of Childhood Brain and Spinal Cord Tumors: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Neuroepidemiology*. 2018; 51(1-2): 82-95.

128. Crider KS, Cordero AM, Qi YP et al. Prenatal folic acid and risk of asthma in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2013; 98(5): 1272-81.

129. De-Regil LM, Pena-Rosas JP, Fernandez-Gaxiola AC et al. Effects and safety of periconceptional oral folate supplementation for preventing birth defects. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (12): CD007950.

130. Feng Y, Wang S, Chen R et al. Maternal folic acid supplementation and the risk of congenital heart defects in offspring: a meta-analysis of epidemiological observational studies. *Sci Rep*. 2015; 5: 8506.

131. Hodgetts VA, Morris RK, Francis A et al. Effectiveness of folic acid supplementation in pregnancy on reducing the risk of small-for-gestational age neonates: a population study, systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG*. 2015; 122(4): 478-90.

132. Hua X, Zhang J, Guo Y et al. Effect of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy on gestational hypertension/preeclampsia: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Hypertens Pregnancy*. 2016; 35(4): 447-60.

133. Lassi ZS, Salam RA, Haider BA et al. Folic acid supplementation during pregnancy for maternal health and pregnancy outcomes. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2013.

134. Liu C, Liu C, Wang Q et al. Supplementation of folic acid in pregnancy and the risk of preeclampsia and gestational hypertension: a meta-analysis. *Archives of Gynecology and Obstetrics*. 2018; 298(4): 697-704.

135. Catena A, Munoz-Machicao JA, Torres-Espinola FJ et al. Folate and long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation during pregnancy has long-term effects on the attention system of 8.5-y-old offspring: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016; 103(1): 115-27.

136. McNulty B, McNulty H, Marshall B et al. Impact of continuing folic acid after the first trimester of pregnancy: findings of a randomized trial of folic acid supplementation in the second and third trimesters. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2013; 98(1): 92-8.

137. Sayyah-Melli M, Ghorbanihaghjo A, Alizadeh M et al. The effect of high dose folic acid throughout pregnancy on homocysteine (hcy) concentration and pre-eclampsia: a randomized clinical trial. *Plos One*. 2016; 11(5).

138. Wen SW, White RR, Rybak N et al. Effect of high dose folic acid supplementation in pregnancy on pre-eclampsia (FACT): double blind, phase III, randomised controlled, international, multicentre trial. *Bmj*. 2018.

139. Yusuf KK, Salihu HM, Wilson R et al. Comparing folic acid dosage strengths to prevent reduction in fetal size among pregnant women who smoked cigarettes: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Pediatrics*. 2019; 173(5): 493-94.

140. Salam RA, Zuberi NF, Bhutta ZA. Pyridoxine (vitamin B6) supplementation during pregnancy or labour for maternal and neonatal outcomes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (6): CD000179.

141. Sridharan K, Sivaramakrishnan G. Interventions for treating nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a network meta-analysis and trial sequential analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Expert Review of Clinical Pharmacology*. 2018; 11(11): 1143-50.

142. Finkelstein JL, Layden AJ, Stover PJ. Vitamin B-12 and Perinatal Health. *Adv Nutr*. 2015; 6(5): 552-63.

143. Sukumar N, Rafnsson SB, Kandala NB et al. Prevalence of vitamin B-12 insufficiency during pregnancy and its effect on offspring birth weight: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016; 103(5): 1232-51.

144. Srinivasan K, Thomas T, Kapanee AR et al. Effects of maternal vitamin B12 supplementation on early infant neurocognitive outcomes: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2017; 13(2).

145. Thomas S, Thomas T, Bosch RJ et al. Effect of maternal vitamin B12 Supplementation on cognitive outcomes in South Indian children: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Matern Child Health J*. 2019; 23(2): 155-63.

146. Siddiqua TJ, Ahmad SM, Ahsan KB et al. Vitamin B12 supplementation during pregnancy and postpartum improves B12 status of both mothers and infants but vaccine response in mothers only: a randomized clinical trial in Bangladesh. *Eur J Nutr*. 2016; 55(1): 281-93.

147. Fu ZM, Ma ZZ, Liu GJ et al. Vitamins supplementation affects the onset of preeclampsia. *J Formos Med Assoc*. 2018; 117(1): 6-13.

148. Rumbold A, Ota E, Nagata C et al. Vitamin C supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (9): CD004072.

149. McEvoy CT, Shorey-Kendrick LE, Milner K et al. Oral Vitamin C (500 mg/d) to Pregnant Smokers Improves Infant Airway Function at 3 Months (VCSIP). A Randomized Trial. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2019; 199(9): 1139-47.

150. Wu H, Zhang C, Wang Y et al. Does vitamin E prevent asthma or wheeze in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Paediatr Respir Rev*. 2018; 27: 60-8.

151. Rumbold A, Ota E, Hori H et al. Vitamin E supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (9): CD004069.

152. Tenorio MB, Ferreira RC, Moura FA et al. Oral antioxidant therapy for prevention and treatment of preeclampsia: Meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*. 2018; 28(9): 865-76.

153. Vahdaninia M., Mackenzie H., Helps S. et al. Prenatal intake of vitamins and allergic outcomes in the offspring: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. 2017; 5(3): 771-78.

154. Bastos Maia S, Rolland Souza A, Costa Caminha M et al. Vitamin A and Pregnancy: A Narrative Review. *Nutrients*. 2019; 11(3).

155. McCauley ME, van den Broek N, Dou L et al. Vitamin A supplementation during pregnancy for maternal and newborn outcomes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (10): CD008666.

156. Ali H, Hamadani J, Mehra S et al. Effect of maternal antenatal and newborn supplementation with vitamin A on cognitive development of school-aged children in rural Bangladesh: a follow-up of a placebo-controlled, randomized trial. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2017; 106(1): 77-87.

157. McAlpine JM, Vanderlelie JJ, Vincze LJ et al. Use of micronutrient supplements in pregnant women of south-east Queensland. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2020.

158. McAlpine JM, Scott R, Scuffham PA et al. The association between third trimester multivitamin/mineral supplements and gestational length in uncomplicated pregnancies. *Women Birth*. 2016; 29(1): 41-6.

159. Vanderlelie J, Scott R, Shibl R et al. First trimester multivitamin/mineral use is associated with reduced risk of pre-eclampsia among overweight and obese women. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2016; 12(2): 339-48.

160. Malek L, Umberger WJ, Makrides M et al. Understanding motivations for dietary supplementation during pregnancy: A focus group study. *Midwifery*. 2018; 57: 59-68.

161. Virk J, Liew Z, Olsen J et al. Pre-conceptual and prenatal supplementary folic acid and multivitamin intake, behavioral problems, and hyperkinetic disorders: A study based on the Danish National Birth Cohort (DNBC). *Nutr Neurosci*. 2018; 21(5): 352-60.

162. Li C, Zeng L, Wang D et al. Prenatal micronutrient supplementation is not associated with intellectual development of young school-aged children. *J Nutr*. 2015; 145(8): 1844-9.

163. Alwan NA, Greenwood DC, Simpson NA et al. The relationship between dietary supplement use in late pregnancy and birth outcomes: a cohort study in British women. *BJOG : an international journal of obstetrics and gynaecology*. 2010; 117(7): 821–29.

164. Keats EC, Haider BA, Tam E et al. Multiple-micronutrient supplementation for women during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2019; 3: CD004905.

165. Wolf HT, Hegaard HK, Huusom LD et al. Multivitamin use and adverse birth outcomes in high-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2017; 217(4): 404 e1- e30.

166. Guo BQ, Li HB, Zhai DS et al. Maternal multivitamin supplementation is associated with a reduced risk of autism spectrum disorder in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutr Res*. 2019; 65: 4-16.

167. Chen S, Li N, Mei Z et al. Micronutrient supplementation during pregnancy and the risk of pregnancy-induced hypertension: A randomized clinical trial. *Clin Nutr*. 2019; 38(1): 146-51.

168. Devakumar D, Stocks J, Ayres JG et al. Effects of antenatal multiple micronutrient supplementation on lung function in mid-childhood: follow-up of a double-blind randomised controlled trial in Nepal. *Eur Respir J*. 2015; 45(6): 1566-75.

169. Schulze KJ, Mehra S, Shaikh S et al. Antenatal multiple micronutrient supplementation compared to iron-folic acid affects micronutrient status but does not eliminate deficiencies in a randomized controlled trial among pregnant women of rural Bangladesh. *J Nutr*. 2019; 149(7): 1260-70.

170. Taghizadeh M, Samimi M, Kolahdooz F et al. Effect of multivitamin versus multivitamin-mineral supplementation on metabolic profiles and biomarkers of oxidative stress in pregnant women: a double-blind randomized clinical trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2015; 28(11): 1336-42.

171. Chatterjee R, Shand A, Nassar N et al. Iron supplement use in pregnancy - Are the right women taking the right amount? *Clin Nutr*. 2016; 35(3): 741-7.

172. Lee YQ, Collins CE, Schumacher TL et al. Disparities exist between the dietary intake of Indigenous Australian women during pregnancy and the Australian dietary guidelines: the Gomeroi gaaynggal study. *J Hum Nutr Diet*. 2018; 31(4): 473-85.

173. Abraha I, Bonacini MI, Montedori A et al. Oral iron-based interventions for prevention of critical outcomes in pregnancy and postnatal care: An overview and update of systematic reviews. *J Evid Based Med*. 2019; 12(2): 155-66.

174. Peña-Rosas JP, De-Regil LM, Garcia-Casal MN et al. Daily oral iron supplementation during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2015.

175. Pena-Rosas JP, De-Regil LM, Gomez Malave H et al. Intermittent oral iron supplementation during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (10): CD009997.

176. Jayasinghe C, Polson R, van Woerden HC et al. The effect of universal maternal antenatal iron supplementation on neurodevelopment in offspring: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pediatr*. 2018; 18(1): 150.

177. Alizadeh L, Salehi L. Is routine iron supplementation necessary in pregnant women with high hemoglobin? *Iran Red Crescent Med J*. 2016; 18(1): e22761.

178. Etheredge AJ, Premji Z, Gunaratna NS et al. Iron supplementation in iron-replete and nonanemic pregnant women in tanzania: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2015; 169(10): 947-55.

179. Goonewardene IMR, Senadheera DI. Randomized control trial comparing effectiveness of weekly versus daily antenatal oral iron supplementation in preventing anemia during pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res*. 2018; 44(3): 417-24.

180. Jafarbegloo E, Ahmari Tehran H, Dadkhah Tehrani T. Gastrointestinal complications of ferrous sulfate in pregnant women: a randomized double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *Iran Red Crescent Med J*. 2015; 17(8): e15001.

181. Kinnunen TI, Luoto R, Helin A et al. Supplemental iron intake and the risk of glucose intolerance in pregnancy: re-analysis of a randomised controlled trial in Finland. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2016; 12(1): 74-84.

182. Parisi F, Berti C, Mando C et al. Effects of different regimens of iron prophylaxis on maternal iron status and pregnancy outcome: a randomized control trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2017; 30(15): 1787-92.

183. Wang L, Mei Z, Li H et al. Modifying effects of maternal Hb concentration on infant birth weight in women receiving prenatal iron-containing supplements: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Nutr*. 2016; 115(4): 644-9.

184. Serdula MK, Zhou Y, Li H et al. Prenatal iron containing supplements provided to Chinese women with no or mild anemia had no effect on hemoglobin concentration in post-partum women or their infants at 6 and 12 months of age. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 73(11): 1473-9.

185. Buppasiri P, Lumbiganon P, Thinkhamrop J et al. Calcium supplementation (other than for preventing or treating hypertension) for improving pregnancy and infant outcomes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015; (2): CD007079.

186. Hofmeyr GJ, Lawrie TA, Atallah ÁN et al. Calcium supplementation during pregnancy for preventing hypertensive disorders and related problems. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2018.

187. Hofmeyr GJ, Belizan JM, von Dadelszen P et al. Low-dose calcium supplementation for preventing pre-eclampsia: a systematic review and commentary. *BJOG*. 2014; 121(8): 951-7.

188. Khaing W, Vallibhakara SA, Tantrakul V et al. Calcium and Vitamin D Supplementation for Prevention of Preeclampsia: A Systematic Review and Network Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*. 2017; 9(10).

189. Sun X, Li H, He X et al. The association between calcium supplement and preeclampsia and gestational hypertension: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Hypertens Pregnancy*. 2019; 38(2): 129-39.

190. Cullers A, King JC, Van Loan M et al. Effect of prenatal calcium supplementation on bone during pregnancy and 1 y postpartum. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 109(1): 197-206.

191. Ettinger AS, Lamadrid-Figueroa H, Mercado-Garcia A et al. Effect of calcium supplementation on bone resorption in pregnancy and the early postpartum: a randomized controlled trial in Mexican women. *Nutr J*. 2014; 13(1): 116.

192. Meertens LJE, Scheepers HCJ, Willemse J et al. Should women be advised to use calcium supplements during pregnancy? A decision analysis. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2018; 14(1).

193. Hurley S, Eastman CJ, Gallego G. The impact of mandatory iodine fortification and supplementation on pregnant and lactating women in Australia. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2019; 28(1): 15-22.

194. Singh GR, Davison B, Ma GY et al. Iodine status of Indigenous and non-Indigenous young adults in the Top End, before and after mandatory fortification. *Med J Aust*. 2019; 210(3): 121-5.

195. Sherriff J, Hine T, Begley A et al. Iodine-containing food practices of Western Australian pregnant women and ethnicity: An observational study. *Nutr Diet*. 2019.

196. Hynes KL, Seal JA, Otahal P et al. Women remain at risk of iodine deficiency during pregnancy: The importance of iodine supplementation before conception and throughout gestation. *Nutrients*. 2019; 11(1).

197. Mitchell EKL, Martin JC, D'Amore A et al. Maternal iodine dietary supplements and neonatal thyroid stimulating hormone in Gippsland, Australia. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr*. 2018; 27(4): 848-52.

198. Condo D, Huyhn D, Anderson AJ et al. Iodine status of pregnant women in South Australia after mandatory iodine fortification of bread and the recommendation for iodine supplementation. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2017; 13(4).

199. Hine T, Zhao Y, Begley A et al. Iodine-containing supplement use by pregnant women attending antenatal clinics in Western Australia. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2018; 58(6): 636-42.

200. Guess K, Malek L, Anderson A et al. Knowledge and practices regarding iodine supplementation: A national survey of healthcare providers. *Women Birth*. 2017; 30(1): e56-e60.

201. Harding KB, Pena-Rosas JP, Webster AC et al. Iodine supplementation for women during the preconception, pregnancy and postpartum period. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2017; 3: CD011761.

202. Farebrother J, Naude CE, Nicol L et al. Effects of Iodized Salt and Iodine Supplements on Prenatal and Postnatal Growth: A Systematic Review. *Adv Nutr*. 2018; 9(3): 219-37.

203. Gowachirapant S, Jaiswal N, Melse-Boonstra A et al. Effect of iodine supplementation in pregnant women on child neurodevelopment: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology*. 2017; 5(11): 853-63.

204. Censi S, Watutantrige-Fernando S, Groccia G et al. The effects of iodine supplementation in pregnancy on iodine status, thyroglobulin levels and thyroid function parameters: results from a randomized controlled clinical trial in a mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency area. *Nutrients*. 2019; 11(11).

205. Chawanpaiboon S. A randomized controlled trial of the correlation between iodine supplementation in pregnancy and maternal urine iodine and neonatal thyroid stimulating hormone levels. *Siriraj Medical Journal*. 2019; 71(1).

206. Ota E, Mori R, Middleton P et al. Zinc supplementation for improving pregnancy and infant outcome. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2015.

207. Liu E, Pimpin L, Shulkin M et al. Effect of Zinc Supplementation on Growth Outcomes in Children under 5 Years of Age. *Nutrients*. 2018; 10(3).

208. Oh C, Keats EC, Bhutta ZA. Vitamin and mineral supplementation during pregnancy on maternal, birth, child health and development outcomes in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients*. 2020; 12(2).

209. Nossier SA, Naeim NE, El-Sayed NA et al. The effect of zinc supplementation on pregnancy outcomes: a double-blind, randomised controlled trial, Egypt. *Br J Nutr*. 2015; 114(2): 274-85.

210. Zahiri Sorouri Z, Sadeghi H, Pourmarzi D. The effect of zinc supplementation on pregnancy outcome: a randomized controlled trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2016; 29(13): 2194-8.

211. Noor RA, Abioye AI, Darling AM et al. Prenatal zinc and vitamin A reduce the benefit of iron on maternal hematologic and micronutrient status at delivery in Tanzania. *J Nutr*. 2020; 150(2): 240-8.

212. Makrides M, Crosby DD, Shepherd E et al. Magnesium supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2014.

213. Bullarbo M, Mattson H, Broman AK et al. Magnesium Supplementation and Blood Pressure in Pregnancy: A Double-Blind Randomized Multicenter Study. *J Pregnancy*. 2018; 2018: 4843159.

214. Bullarbo M, Odman N, Nestler A et al. Magnesium supplementation to prevent high blood pressure in pregnancy: a randomised placebo control trial. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2013; 288(6): 1269-74.

215. Parente E, Colannino G, Ferrara P. Efficacy of Magnesium and Alpha Lipoic Acid Supplementation in Reducing Premature Uterine Contractions. *Open Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2014; 04(09): 578-83.

216. Supakatisant C, Phupong V. Oral magnesium for relief in pregnancy-induced leg cramps: a randomised controlled trial. *Matern Child Nutr*. 2015; 11(2): 139-45.

217. Tara F, Maamouri G, Rayman MP et al. Selenium supplementation and the incidence of preeclampsia in pregnant Iranian women: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled pilot trial. *Taiwan J Obstet Gynecol*. 2010; 49(2): 181-7.

218. Tara F, Rayman MP, Boskabadi H et al. Selenium supplementation and premature (pre-labour) rupture of membranes: a randomised double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2010; 30(1): 30-4.

219. Bosakabadi H, Rezagholizade Omran F, Tara F et al. The effect of maternal selenium supplementation on pregnancy outcome and the level of oxidative stress in neonates. *Iranian Red Crescent Med J*. 2010; 12(3): 254-59.

220. Mokhber N, Namjoo M, Tara F et al. Effect of supplementation with selenium on postpartum depression: a randomized double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2011; 24(1): 104-8.

221. Rayman MP, Searle E, Kelly L et al. Effect of selenium on markers of risk of pre-eclampsia in UK pregnant women: a randomised, controlled pilot trial. *Br J Nutr*. 2014; 112(1): 99-111.

222. Mao J, Bath SC, Vanderlelie JJ et al. No effect of modest selenium supplementation on insulin resistance in UK pregnant women, as assessed by plasma adiponectin concentration. *Br J Nutr*. 2016; 115(1): 32-8.

223. Mao J, Pop VJ, Bath SC et al. Effect of low-dose selenium on thyroid autoimmunity and thyroid function in UK pregnant women with mild-to-moderate iodine deficiency. *Eur J Nutr*. 2016; 55(1): 55-61.

224. Abramovici A, Gandley RE, Clifton RG et al. Prenatal vitamin C and E supplementation in smokers is associated with reduced placental abruption and preterm birth: a secondary analysis. *BJOG*. 2015; 122(13): 1740-7.

225. Jarde A, Lewis-Mikhael AM, Moayyedi P et al. Pregnancy outcomes in women taking probiotics or prebiotics: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1): 14.

226. Grev J, Berg M, Soll R. Maternal probiotic supplementation for prevention of morbidity and mortality in preterm infants. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2018; 12: CD012519.

227. Han MM, Sun JF, Su XH et al. Probiotics improve glucose and lipid metabolism in pregnant women: a meta-analysis. *Ann Transl Med*. 2019; 7(5): 99.

228. Callaway LK, McIntyre HD, Barrett HL et al. Probiotics for the prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus in overweight and obese women: Findings from the SPRING double-blind randomized controlled trial. *Diabetes Care*. 2019; 42(3): 364-71.

229. Gille C, Boer B, Marschal M et al. Effect of probiotics on vaginal health in pregnancy. EFFPRO, a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 215(5): 608 e1- e7.

230. Ho M, Chang YY, Chang WC et al. Oral Lactobacillus rhamnosus GR-1 and Lactobacillus reuteri RC-14 to reduce Group B Streptococcus colonization in pregnant women: A randomized controlled trial. *Taiwan J Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 55(4): 515-8.

231. Husain S, Allotey J, Drymoussi Z et al. Effects of oral probiotic supplements on vaginal microbiota during pregnancy: a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial with microbiome analysis. *BJOG*. 2020; 127(2): 275-84.

232. Okesene-Gafa KAM, Li M, McKinlay CJD et al. Effect of antenatal dietary interventions in maternal obesity on pregnancy weight-gain and birthweight: Healthy Mums and Babies (HUMBA) randomized trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2019; 221(2): 152 e1- e13.

233. Pellonpera O, Mokkala K, Houttu N et al. Efficacy of fish oil and/or probiotic intervention on the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus in an at-risk group of overweight and obese women: a randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind clinical trial. *Diabetes Care*. 2019; 42(6): 1009-17.

234. Sharpe M, Shah V, Freire-Lizama T et al. Effectiveness of oral intake of Lactobacillus rhamnosus GR-1 and Lactobacillus reuteri RC-14 on Group B Streptococcus colonization during pregnancy: a midwifery-led double-blind randomized controlled pilot trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2019: 1-8.

235. Olsen P, Williamson M, Traynor V et al. The impact of oral probiotics on vaginal Group B Streptococcal colonisation rates in pregnant women: A pilot randomised control study. *Women and Birth*. 2018; 31(1): 31-7.

236. Lindsay KL, Kennelly M, Culliton M et al. Probiotics in obese pregnancy do not reduce maternal fasting glucose: a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized trial (Probiotics in Pregnancy Study). *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2014; 99(6): 1432-9.

237. Wickens KL, Barthow CA, Murphy R et al. Early pregnancy probiotic supplementation with Lactobacillus rhamnosus HN001 may reduce the prevalence of gestational diabetes mellitus: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Nutr*. 2017; 117(6): 804-13.

238. Mastromarino P, Capobianco D, Miccheli A et al. Administration of a multistrain probiotic product (VSL#3) to women in the perinatal period differentially affects breast milk beneficial microbiota in relation to mode of delivery. *Pharmacol Res*. 2015; 95-96: 63-70.

239. Krauss-Silva L, Moreira ME, Alves MB et al. A randomised controlled trial of probiotics for the prevention of spontaneous preterm delivery associated with bacterial vaginosis: preliminary results. *Trials*. 2011; 12: 239.

240. Laitinen K, Poussa T, Isolauri E et al. Probiotics and dietary counselling contribute to glucose regulation during and after pregnancy: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Nutr*. 2009; 101(11): 1679-87.

241. Lindsay KL, Brennan L, Kennelly MA et al. Impact of probiotics in women with gestational diabetes mellitus on metabolic health: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2015; 212(4): 496 e1-11.

242. Karamali M, Dadkhah F, Sadrkhanlou M et al. Effects of probiotic supplementation on glycaemic control and lipid profiles in gestational diabetes: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Diabetes Metab*. 2016; 42(4): 234-41.

243. Badehnoosh B, Karamali M, Zarrati M et al. The effects of probiotic supplementation on biomarkers of inflammation, oxidative stress and pregnancy outcomes in gestational diabetes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2018; 31(9): 1128-36.

244. Dolatkhah N, Hajifaraji M, Abbasalizadeh F et al. Is there a value for probiotic supplements in gestational diabetes mellitus? A randomized clinical trial. *J Health Popul Nutr*. 2015; 33: 25.

245. Jafarnejad S, Saremi S, Jafarnejad F et al. Effects of a Multispecies Probiotic Mixture on Glycemic Control and Inflammatory Status in Women with Gestational Diabetes: A Randomized Controlled Clinical Trial. *J Nutr Metab*. 2016; 2016: 5190846.

246. Abrahamsson TR, Jakobsson T, Bottcher MF et al. Probiotics in prevention of IgE-associated eczema: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2007; 119(5): 1174-80.

247. Boyle RJ, Ismail IH, Kivivuori S et al. Lactobacillus GG treatment during pregnancy for the prevention of eczema: a randomized controlled trial. *Allergy*. 2011; 66(4): 509-16.

248. Kalliomaki M, Salminen S, Arvilommi H et al. Probiotics in primary prevention of atopic disease: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2001; 357(9262): 1076-9.

249. Kim JY, Kwon JH, Ahn SH et al. Effect of probiotic mix (Bifidobacterium bifidum, Bifidobacterium lactis, Lactobacillus acidophilus) in the primary prevention of eczema: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2010; 21(2 Pt 2): e386-93.

250. Niers L, Martin R, Rijkers G et al. The effects of selected probiotic strains on the development of eczema (the PandA study). *Allergy*. 2009; 64(9): 1349-58.

251. Rautava S, Kainonen E, Salminen S et al. Maternal probiotic supplementation during pregnancy and breast-feeding reduces the risk of eczema in the infant. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012; 130(6): 1355-60.

252. Dotterud CK, Storro O, Johnsen R et al. Probiotics in pregnant women to prevent allergic disease: a randomized, double-blind trial. *Br J Dermatol*. 2010; 163(3): 616-23.

253. Frawley J, Adams J, Steel A et al. Women's use and self-prescription of herbal medicine during pregnancy: An examination of 1,835 pregnant women. *Womens Health Issues*. 2015; 25(4): 396-402.

254. Frawley J, Sibbritt D, Broom A et al. Women's attitudes towards the use of complementary and alternative medicine products during pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2016; 36(4): 462-7.

255. Bowman RL, Davis DL, Ferguson S et al. Women's motivation, perception and experience of complementary and alternative medicine in pregnancy: A meta-synthesis. *Midwifery*. 2018; 59: 81-7.

256. Kennedy DA, Lupattelli A, Koren G et al. Safety classification of herbal medicines used in pregnancy in a multinational study. *BMC Complement Altern Med*. 2016; 16: 102.

257. Steel A, Adams J, Sibbritt D et al. Relationship between complementary and alternative medicine use and incidence of adverse birth outcomes: an examination of a nationally representative sample of 1835 Australian women. *Midwifery*. 2014; 30(12): 1157-65.

258. Meher S, Duley L. Garlic for preventing pre-eclampsia and its complications. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2006; (3): CD006065.

259. Aalami-Harandi R, Karamali M, Asemi Z. The favorable effects of garlic intake on metabolic profiles, hs-CRP, biomarkers of oxidative stress and pregnancy outcomes in pregnant women at risk for pre-eclampsia: randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2015; 28(17): 2020-7.

260. Holst L, Havnen GC, Nordeng H. Echinacea and elderberry-should they be used against upper respiratory tract infections during pregnancy? *Front Pharmacol*. 2014; 5: 31.

261. Heitmann K, Havnen GC, Holst L et al. Pregnancy outcomes after prenatal exposure to echinacea: the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 2016; 72(5): 623-30.

262. Pour ZS, Hosseinkhani A, Asadi N et al. Double-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial on efficacy and safety of Lactuca sativa L. seeds on pregnancy-related insomnia. *J Ethnopharmacol*. 2018; 227: 176-80.

263. Hayman M, Short C, Reaburn P. An investigation into the exercise behaviours of regionally based Australian pregnant women. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2016; 19(8): 664-8.

264. Hayman M, Reaburn P, Alley S et al. What exercise advice are women receiving from their healthcare practitioners during pregnancy? *Women Birth*. 2019.

265. Harrison AL, Taylor NF, Shields N et al. Attitudes, barriers and enablers to physical activity in pregnant women: a systematic review. *J Physiother*. 2018; 64(1): 24-32.

266. Coll CV, Domingues MR, Goncalves H et al. Perceived barriers to leisure-time physical activity during pregnancy: A literature review of quantitative and qualitative evidence. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2017; 20(1): 17-25.

267. Flannery C, McHugh S, Anaba AE et al. Enablers and barriers to physical activity in overweight and obese pregnant women: an analysis informed by the theoretical domains framework and COM-B model. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1): 178.

268. Halvorsen S, Haakstad LA, Edvardsen E et al. Effect of aerobic dance on cardiorespiratory fitness in pregnant women: a randomised controlled trial. *Physiotherapy*. 2013; 99(1): 42-8.

269. Bisson M, Almeras N, Dufresne SS et al. A 12-Week Exercise Program for Pregnant Women with Obesity to Improve Physical Activity Levels: An Open Randomised Preliminary Study. *PLoS One*. 2015; 10(9): e0137742.

270. de Oliveria Melo AS, Silva JL, Tavares JS et al. Effect of a physical exercise program during pregnancy on uteroplacental and fetal blood flow and fetal growth: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2012; 120(2 Pt 1): 302-10.

271. Guelfi KJ, Ong MJ, Crisp NA et al. Regular Exercise to Prevent the Recurrence of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2016; 128(4): 819-27.

272. Hopkins SA, Baldi JC, Cutfield WS et al. Exercise training in pregnancy reduces offspring size without changes in maternal insulin sensitivity. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2010; 95(5): 2080-8.

273. Seneviratne SN, Jiang Y, Derraik J et al. Effects of antenatal exercise in overweight and obese pregnant women on maternal and perinatal outcomes: a randomised controlled trial. *BJOG*. 2016; 123(4): 588-97.

274. Vladutiu CJ, Evenson KR, Marshall SW. Physical activity and injuries during pregnancy. *J Phys Act Health*. 2010; 7(6): 761-9.

275. Rodriguez-Blanque R, Aguilar-Cordero MJ, Marin-Jimenez AE et al. Water exercise and quality of life in pregnancy: a randomised clinical trial. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2020; 17(4).

276. Prabha BS, Vijayaraghavan J, Maiya AG et al. Effects of antenatal exercise programme and education on health related quality of life: a randomised controlled trial. *J Clin Diag Res*. 2019; 13(2): YF01-YF4.

277. Gustafsson MK, Stafne SN, Romundstad PR et al. The effects of an exercise programme during pregnancy on health-related quality of life in pregnant women: a Norwegian randomised controlled trial. *BJOG*. 2016; 123(7): 1152-60.

278. Haakstad LA, Torset B, Bo K. What is the effect of regular group exercise on maternal psychological outcomes and common pregnancy complaints? An assessor blinded RCT. *Midwifery*. 2016; 32: 81-6.

279. Montoya Arizabaleta AV, Orozco Buitrago L, Aguilar de Plata AC et al. Aerobic exercise during pregnancy improves health-related quality of life: a randomised trial. *Journal of Physiotherapy*. 2010; 56(4): 253-8.

280. Woodley SJ, Boyle R, Cody JD et al. Pelvic floor muscle training for prevention and treatment of urinary and faecal incontinence in antenatal and postnatal women. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2017.

281. Davenport MH, Nagpal TS, Mottola MF et al. Prenatal exercise (including but not limited to pelvic floor muscle training) and urinary incontinence during and following pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2018; 52(21): 1397-404.

282. Davenport MH, Marchand AA, Mottola MF et al. Exercise for the prevention and treatment of low back, pelvic girdle and lumbopelvic pain during pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 90-8.

283. Shiri R, Coggon D, Falah-Hassani K. Exercise for the prevention of low back and pelvic girdle pain in pregnancy: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Eur J Pain*. 2018; 22(1): 19-27.

284. Sklempe Kokic I, Ivanisevic M, Uremovic M et al. Effect of therapeutic exercises on pregnancy-related low back pain and pelvic girdle pain: Secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial. *J Rehabil Med*. 2017; 49(3): 251-7.

285. Gjestland K, Bo K, Owe KM et al. Do pregnant women follow exercise guidelines? Prevalence data among 3482 women, and prediction of low-back pain, pelvic girdle pain and depression. *Br J Sports Med*. 2013; 47(8): 515-20.

286. Barakat R, Ruiz JR, Lucia A. Exercise during pregnancy and risk of maternal anaemia: a randomised controlled trial. *Br J Sports Med*. 2009; 43(12): 954-6.

287. Yang SY, Lan SJ, Yen YY et al. Effects of exercise on sleep quality in pregnant women: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Asian Nurs Res (Korean Soc Nurs Sci)*. 2020; 14(1): 1-10.

288. Rodriguez-Blanque R, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Sanchez-Lopez AM et al. The influence of physical activity in water on sleep quality in pregnant women: A randomised trial. *Women Birth*. 2018; 31(1): e51-e8.

289. Kocsis I, Szilágyi T, Turos J et al. Effect of a gymnastics program on sleep characteristics in pregnant women. *Taiwanese Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2017; 56(2): 204-9.

290. Loprinzi PD, Loprinzi KL, Cardinal BJ. The relationship between physical activity and sleep among pregnant women. *Mental Health and Physical Activity*. 2012; 5(1): 22-7.

291. Kramer MS, McDonald SW. Aerobic exercise for women during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2006.

292. Baciuk EP, Pereira RI, Cecatti JG et al. Water aerobics in pregnancy: Cardiovascular response, labor and neonatal outcomes. *Reprod Health*. 2008; 5: 10.

293. Barakat R, Stirling JR, Lucia A. Does exercise training during pregnancy affect gestational age? A randomised controlled trial. *Br J Sports Med*. 2008; 42(8): 674-8.

294. Barakat R, Franco E, Perales M et al. Exercise during pregnancy is associated with a shorter duration of labor. A randomized clinical trial. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2018; 224: 33-40.

295. Perales M, Calabria I, Lopez C et al. Regular Exercise Throughout Pregnancy is Associated with a Shorter First Stage of Labor. *American Journal of Health Promotion*. 2016; 30(3): 149-57.

296. Perales M, Santos-Lozano A, Sanchis-Gomar F et al. Maternal Cardiac Adaptations to a Physical Exercise Program during Pregnancy. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2016; 48(5): 896-906.

297. Salvesen KA, Morkved S. Randomised controlled trial of pelvic floor muscle training during pregnancy. *BMJ*. 2004; 329(7462): 378-80.

298. Salvesen KA, Stafne SN, Eggebo TM et al. Does regular exercise in pregnancy influence duration of labor? A secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2014; 93(1): 73-9.

299. Taniguchi C, Sato C. Home-based walking during pregnancy affects mood and birth outcomes among sedentary women: A randomized controlled trial. *Int J Nurs Pract*. 2016; 22(5): 420-6.

300. Sanda B, Vistad I, Sagedal LR et al. What is the effect of physical activity on duration and mode of delivery? Secondary analysis from the Norwegian Fit for Delivery trial. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2018; 97(7): 861-71.

301. Rodriguez-Blanque R, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Sanchez-Lopez AM et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and its influence on delivery time: a randomized clinical trial. *PeerJ*. 2019; 7: e6370.

302. Perales M, Valenzuela PL, Barakat R et al. Gestational exercise and maternal and child health: effects until delivery and at post-natal follow-up. *J Clin Med*. 2020; 9(2).

303. Barakat R, Ruiz JR, Stirling JR et al. Type of delivery is not affected by light resistance and toning exercise training during pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2009; 201(6): 590 e1-6.

304. Garnaes KK, Morkved S, Salvesen O et al. Exercise Training and Weight Gain in Obese Pregnant Women: A Randomized Controlled Trial (ETIP Trial). *PLoS Med*. 2016; 13(7): e1002079.

305. Rodriguez-Blanque R, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Sanchez-Lopez AM et al. Randomized clinical trial of an aquatic physical exercise program during pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2019; 48(3): 321-31.

306. Davenport MH, Yoo C, Mottola MF et al. Effects of prenatal exercise on incidence of congenital anomalies and hyperthermia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 116-23.

307. Owe KM, Nystad W, Bø K. Association Between Regular Exercise and Excessive Newborn Birth Weight. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*. 2009; 114(4): 770-6.

308. Leiferman JA, Evenson KR. The effect of regular leisure physical activity on birth outcomes. *Matern Child Health J*. 2003; 7(1): 59-64.

309. Kong KL, Gillman MW, Rifas-Shiman SL et al. Leisure time physical activity before and during mid-pregnancy and offspring adiposity in mid-childhood. *Pediatr Obes*. 2016; 11(2): 81-7.

310. Nino Cruz GI, Ramirez Varela A, da Silva ICM et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and offspring neurodevelopment: A systematic review. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2018; 32(4): 369-79.

311. Cai C, Ruchat SM, Sivak A et al. Prenatal exercise and cardiorespiratory health and fitness: A meta-analysis. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2020.

312. Cavalcante SR, Cecatti JG, Pereira RI et al. Water aerobics II: maternal body composition and perinatal outcomes after a program for low risk pregnant women. *Reprod Health*. 2009; 6: 1.

313. Barakat R, Lucia A, Ruiz JR. Resistance exercise training during pregnancy and newborn's birth size: a randomised controlled trial. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2009; 33(9): 1048-57.

314. Garnaes KK, Nyrnes SA, Salvesen KA et al. Effect of supervised exercise training during pregnancy on neonatal and maternal outcomes among overweight and obese women. Secondary analyses of the ETIP trial: A randomised controlled trial. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(3): e0173937.

315. Garnæs KK, Mørkved S, Salvesen KÅ et al. Exercise training during pregnancy reduces circulating insulin levels in overweight/obese women postpartum: secondary analysis of a randomised controlled trial (the ETIP trial). *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*. 2018; 18(1).

316. Davenport MH, Kathol AJ, Mottola MF et al. Prenatal exercise is not associated with fetal mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 108-15.

317. Skow RJ, Davenport MH, Mottola MF et al. Effects of prenatal exercise on fetal heart rate, umbilical and uterine blood flow: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Sports Med*. 2019; 53(2): 124-33.

318. Beetham KS, Giles C, Noetel M et al. The effects of vigorous intensity exercise in the third trimester of pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth*. 2019; 19(1): 281.

319. Hoffmann J, Gunther J, Geyer K et al. Associations between prenatal physical activity and neonatal and obstetric outcomes-a secondary analysis of the cluster-randomized GeliS trial. *J Clin Med*. 2019; 8(10).

320. Madsen M, Jorgensen T, Jensen ML et al. Leisure time physical exercise during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage: a study within the Danish National Birth Cohort. *BJOG*. 2007; 114(11): 1419-26.

321. Evenson KR, Siega-Riz AM, Savitz DA et al. Vigorous leisure activity and pregnancy outcome. *Epidemiology*. 2002; 13(6): 653-9.

322. Jukic AM, Evenson KR, Daniels JL et al. A prospective study of the association between vigorous physical activity during pregnancy and length of gestation and birthweight. *Matern Child Health J*. 2012; 16(5): 1031-44.

323. Mottola MF, Nagpal TS, Bgeginski R et al. Is supine exercise associated with adverse maternal and fetal outcomes? A systematic review. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*. 2019; 53(2): 82-9.

324. Brearley AL, Sherburn M, Galea MP et al. Pregnant women maintain body temperatures within safe limits during moderate-intensity aqua-aerobic classes conducted in pools heated up to 33 degrees Celsius: an observational study. *Journal of Physiotherapy*. 2015; 61(4): 199-203.

325. Agopian AJ, Lupo PJ, Canfield MA et al. Swimming pool use and birth defect risk. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*. 2013; 209(3): 219.e1-.e9.

326. Bonde JP, Jørgensen KT, Bonzini M et al. Miscarriage and occupational activity: a systematic review and meta-analysis regarding shift work, working hours, lifting, standing, and physical workload. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health*. 2013; 39(4): 325-34.

327. Juhl M, Strandberg-Larsen K, Larsen PS et al. Occupational lifting during pregnancy and risk of fetal death in a large national cohort study. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2013; 39(4): 335-42.

328. Mocevic E, Svendsen SW, Jorgensen KT et al. Occupational lifting, fetal death and preterm birth: findings from the Danish National Birth Cohort using a job exposure matrix. *PLoS One*. 2014; 9(3): e90550.

329. El Metwalli AG, Badawy AM, El Baghdadi LA et al. Occupational physical activity and pregnancy outcome. E*ur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2001; 100: 41-5.

330. Newman RB, Goldenberg RL, Moawad AH et al. Occupational fatigue and preterm premature rupture of membranes. A*merican Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology.* 2001; 184(3): 438-46.

331. van Beukering MDM, van Melick MJGJ, Mol BW et al. Physically demanding work and preterm delivery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. I*nternational Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health.* 2014; 87(8): 809-34.

332. Salunkhe AH, Pratinidhi A, Kakade SV et al. Occupation, caloric intake and rest during day time of pregnant women and birth weight and gestational age of the baby. A*sian J Pharm Res Health care.* 2018; 10(1): 36-41.

333. Bonzini M, Coggon D, Godfrey K et al. Occupational physical activities, working hours and outcome of pregnancy: findings from the Southampton Women's Survey. O*ccup Environ Med.* 2009; 66(10): 685-90.

334. Pompeii LA, Savitz DA, Evenson KR et al. Physical exertion at work and the risk of preterm delivery and small-for-gestational-age birth. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2005; 106(6): 1279-88.

335. Snijder CA, Brand T, Jaddoe V et al. Physically demanding work, fetal growth and the risk of adverse birth outcomes. The Generation R Study. O*ccup Environ Med.* 2012; 69(8): 543-50.

336. Nelson K, Lohsoonthorna V, Williams MA. Preterm delivery risk in relation to maternal occupational and leisure time physical activity among Thai women. A*sian Biomed (Res Rev News).* 2009; 3(3): 267-77.

337. Ritsmitchai S, Geater AF, Chongsuviwatvong V. Prolonged standing and physical exertion at work during pregnancy increases the risk of preterm birth for Thai mothers. J *Occup Health.* 1997; 39: 217-22.

338. Eunhee H, Cho S-I, Park H et al. Does standing at work during pregnancy result in reduced infant birth weight? J*OEM.* 2002; 44(9): 815-21.

339. Juhl M, Larsen PS, Andersen PK et al. Occupational lifting during pregnancy and child’s birth size in a large cohort study. S*cand J Work Environ Health.* 2014; 40(4): 411-19.

340. Croteau A, Marcoux S, Brisson C. Work activity in pregnancy, preventive measures, and the risk of delivering a small-for-gestational-age infant. A*merican Journal of Public Health.* 2006; 96(5): 846-55.

341. Larsen PS, Strandberg-Larsen K, Juhl M et al. Occupational lifting and pelvic pain during pregnancy: a study within the Danish National Birth Cohort. S*cand J Work Environ Health.* 2013; 39(1): 88-95.

342. Juhl M. Psychosocial and physical work environment, and risk of pelvic pain in pregnancy. A study within the Danish national birth cohort. J *Epidemiol & Community Health.* 2005; 59(7): 580-5.

343. Agopian AJ, Kim J, Langlois PH et al. Maternal occupational physical activity and risk for orofacial clefts. A*m J Industrial Med.* 2017; 60(7): 627-34.

344. Davenport MH, Sobierajski F, Mottola MF et al. Glucose responses to acute and chronic exercise during pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1357-66.

345. LifeCycle Project-Maternal O, Childhood Outcomes Study G, Voerman E et al. Association of gestational weight gain with adverse maternal and infant outcomes. J*AMA.* 2019; 321(17): 1702-15.

346. Arora P, Tamber Aeri B. Gestational weight gain among healthy pregnant women from Asia in Comparison with Institute of Medicine (IOM) Guidelines-2009: A systematic review. J *Pregnancy.* 2019; 2019: 3849596.

347. Jiang X, Liu M, Song Y et al. The Institute of Medicine recommendation for gestational weight gain is probably not optimal among non-American pregnant women: a retrospective study from China. J *Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2019; 32(8): 1353-8.

348. Khanolkar AR, Hanley GE, Koupil I et al. 2009 IOM guidelines for gestational weight gain: how well do they predict outcomes across ethnic groups? E*thn Health.* 2020; 25(1): 110-25.

349. Thompson AM, Thompson JA. An evaluation of whether a gestational weight gain of 5 to 9 kg for obese women optimizes maternal and neonatal health risks. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2019; 19(1): 126.

350. O'Brien EC, Segurado R, Geraghty AA et al. Impact of maternal education on response to lifestyle interventions to reduce gestational weight gain: individual participant data meta-analysis. B*MJ Open.* 2019; 9(8): e025620.

351. Schumacher TL, Weatherall L, Keogh L et al. Characterizing gestational weight gain in a cohort of Indigenous Australian women. M*idwifery.* 2018; 60: 13-9.

352. Mendez DD, Doebler DA, Kim KH et al. Neighborhood socioeconomic disadvantage and gestational weight gain and loss. M*atern Child Health J.* 2014; 18(5): 1095-103.

353. Mendez DD, Thorpe RJ, Amutah N et al. Neighborhood racial composition and poverty in association with pre-pregnancy weight and gestational weight gain. S*SM Popul Health.* 2016; 2: 692-9.

354. Headen I, Mujahid MS, Cohen AK et al. Racial/ethnic disparities in inadequate gestational weight gain differ by pre-pregnancy weight. M*atern Child Health J.* 2015; 19(8): 1672-86.

355. Hartley E, McPhie S, Skouteris H et al. Psychosocial risk factors for excessive gestational weight gain: A systematic review. W*omen Birth.* 2015; 28(4): e99-e109.

356. Kapadia MZ, Gaston A, Van Blyderveen S et al. Psychological antecedents of excess gestational weight gain: a systematic review. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2015; 15: 107.

357. Ratan BM, Garbarino AH, Sellner AA et al. Social determinants of gestational weight gain in an obese, low-income population. A*m J Perinatol.* 2020; 37(3): 296-303.

358. Hill B, Bergmeier H, McPhie S et al. Is parity a risk factor for excessive weight gain during pregnancy and postpartum weight retention? A systematic review and meta-analysis. O*bes Rev.* 2017; 18(7): 755-64.

359. Morisset AS, Dubois L, Colapinto CK et al. Prepregnancy body mass index as a significant predictor of total gestational weight gain and birth weight. C*an J Diet Pract Res.* 2017; 78(2): 66-73.

360. Hulman A, Lutsiv O, Park CK et al. Are women who quit smoking at high risk of excess weight gain throughout pregnancy? B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2016; 16: 263.

361. Provenzano AM, Rifas-Shiman SL, Herring SJ et al. Associations of maternal material hardships during childhood and adulthood with prepregnancy weight, gestational weight gain, and postpartum weight retention. J *Womens Health (Larchmt).* 2015; 24(7): 563-71.

362. Santos S, Voerman E, Amiano P et al. Impact of maternal body mass index and gestational weight gain on pregnancy complications: an individual participant data meta-analysis of European, North American and Australian cohorts. B*JOG.* 2019; 126(8): 984-95.

363. Goldstein RF, Abell SK, Ranasinha S et al. Association of gestational weight gain with maternal and infant outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J*AMA.* 2017; 317(21): 2207-25.

364. Rogozinska E, Zamora J, Marlin N et al. Gestational weight gain outside the Institute of Medicine recommendations and adverse pregnancy outcomes: analysis using individual participant data from randomised trials. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2019; 19(1): 322.

365. Voerman E, Santos S, Patro Golab B et al. Maternal body mass index, gestational weight gain, and the risk of overweight and obesity across childhood: An individual participant data meta-analysis. P*LoS Med.* 2019; 16(2): e1002744.

366. Aune D, Mahamat-Saleh Y, Norat T et al. Body mass index, abdominal fatness, weight gain and the risk of urinary incontinence: a systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. B*JOG.* 2019; 126(12): 1424-33.

367. Tian ZX, Wan M, Gao YL et al. Gestational weight gain and risk of autism spectrum disorders in offspring: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J *Obstet Gynaecol.* 2019: 1-8.

368. Carreno CA, Clifton RG, Hauth JC et al. Excessive early gestational weight gain and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus in nulliparous women. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2012; 119(6): 1227-33.

369. Goldstein RF, Abell SK, Ranasinha S et al. Gestational weight gain across continents and ethnicity: systematic review and meta-analysis of maternal and infant outcomes in more than one million women. B*MC Med.* 2018; 16(1): 153.

370. Kapadia MZ, Park CK, Beyene J et al. Can we safely recommend gestational weight gain below the 2009 guidelines in obese women? A systematic review and meta-analysis. O*bes Rev.* 2015; 16(3): 189-206.

371. Kapadia MZ, Park CK, Beyene J et al. Weight loss instead of weight gain within the guidelines in obese women during pregnancy: A systematic review and meta-analyses of maternal and infant outcomes. P*LoS One.* 2015; 10(7): e0132650.

372. Vanstone M, Kandasamy S, Giacomini M et al. Pregnant women's perceptions of gestational weight gain: A systematic review and meta-synthesis of qualitative research. M*atern Child Nutr.* 2017; 13(4).

373. Hill B, Hayden M, McPhie S et al. Preconception and antenatal knowledge and beliefs about gestational weight gain. A*ust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2019; 59(5): 634-40.

374. Weeks A, Halili L, Liu RH et al. Gestational weight gain counselling gaps as perceived by pregnant women and new mothers: Findings from the electronic maternal health survey. W*omen Birth.* 2020; 33(1): e88-e94.

375. Lopez-Cepero A, Leung K, Moore Simas T et al. Association between obstetric provider's advice and gestational weight gain. M*atern Child Health J.* 2018; 22(8): 1127-34.

376. Allen-Walker V, Mullaney L, Turner MJ et al. How do women feel about being weighed during pregnancy? A qualitative exploration of the opinions and experiences of postnatal women. M*idwifery.* 2017; 49: 95-101.

377. Hasted T, Stapleton H, Beckmann MM et al. Clinician's attitudes to the introduction of routine weighing in pregnancy. J *Pregnancy.* 2016; 2016: 2049673.

378. de Jersey S, Guthrie T, Tyler J et al. A mixed method study evaluating the integration of pregnancy weight gain charts into antenatal care. M*atern Child Nutr.* 2019; 15(3): e12750.

379. Wilkinson S, Beckmann M, Donaldson E et al. Implementation of gestational weight gain guidelines - what's more effective for ensuring weight recording in pregnancy? B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2019; 19(1): 19.

380. Lindberg SM, Anderson CK. Improving gestational weight gain counseling through meaningful use of an electronic medical record. M*atern Child Health J.* 2014; 18(9): 2188-94.

381. Fealy S, Davis D, Foureur M et al. The return of weighing in pregnancy: A discussion of evidence and practice. W*omen Birth.* 2019.

382. Fealy SM, Taylor RM, Foureur M et al. Weighing as a stand-alone intervention does not reduce excessive gestational weight gain compared to routine antenatal care: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2017; 17(1): 36.

383. Brownfoot FC, Davey MA, Kornman L. Routine weighing to reduce excessive antenatal weight gain: a randomised controlled trial. B*JOG.* 2016; 123(2): 254-61.

384. Jeffries K, Walker SP, Hiscock R et al. Reducing excessive weight gain in pregnancy: a randomised controlled trial. M*JA.* 2009; 191(8): 429–33.

385. Brownfoot FC, Davey MA, Kornman L. Women's opinions on being weighed at routine antenatal visits. B*JOG.* 2016; 123(2): 263-70.

386. Daley AJ, Jolly K, Jebb SA et al. Feasibility and acceptability of regular weighing, setting weight gain limits and providing feedback by community midwives to prevent excess weight gain during pregnancy: randomised controlled trial and qualitative study. B*MC Obes.* 2015; 2: 35.

387. Daley A, Jolly K, Jebb SA et al. Effectiveness of a behavioural intervention involving regular weighing and feedback by community midwives within routine antenatal care to prevent excessive gestational weight gain: POPS2 randomised controlled trial. B*MJ Open.* 2019; 9(9): e030174.

388. Han Z, Mulla S, Beyene J et al. Maternal underweight and the risk of preterm birth and low birth weight: a systematic review and meta-analyses. I*nt J Epidemiol.* 2011; 40(1): 65-101.

389. Liu P, Xu L, Wang Y et al. Association between perinatal outcomes and maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index. O*bes Rev.* 2016; 17(11): 1091-102.

390. Liu L, Ma Y, Wang N et al. Maternal body mass index and risk of neonatal adverse outcomes in China: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2019; 19(1): 105.

391. Goto E. Dose-response association between maternal body mass index and small for gestational age: a meta-analysis. J *Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2017; 30(2): 213-8.

392. Yu Z, Han S, Zhu J et al. Pre-pregnancy body mass index in relation to infant birth weight and offspring overweight/obesity: a systematic review and meta-analysis. P*LoS One.* 2013; 8(4): e61627.

393. Balsells M, Garcia-Patterson A, Corcoy R. Systematic review and meta-analysis on the association of prepregnancy underweight and miscarriage. E*ur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2016; 207: 73-9.

394. Adane AA, Shepherd CCJ, Lim FJ et al. The impact of pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain on placental abruption risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis. A*rch Gynecol Obstet.* 2019; 300(5): 1201-10.

395. Torloni MR, Betran AP, Horta BL et al. Prepregnancy BMI and the risk of gestational diabetes: a systematic review of the literature with meta-analysis. O*bes Rev.* 2009; 10(2): 194-203.

396. Zhu Y, Chen Y, Feng Y et al. Association between maternal body mass index and congenital heart defects in infants: A meta-analysis. C*ongenit Heart Dis.* 2018; 13(2): 271-81.

397. Cai GJ, Sun XX, Zhang L et al. Association between maternal body mass index and congenital heart defects in offspring: a systematic review. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2014; 211(2): 91-117.

398. Huang Y, Ouyang YQ, Redding SR. Maternal prepregnancy body mass index, gestational weight gain, and cessation of breastfeeding: A systematic review and meta-analysis. B*reastfeed Med.* 2019; 14(6): 366-74.

399. Garcia AH, Voortman T, Baena CP et al. Maternal weight status, diet, and supplement use as determinants of breastfeeding and complementary feeding: a systematic review and meta-analysis. N*utr Rev.* 2016; 74(8): 490-516.

400. Abdel-Aziz SB, Hegazy IS, Mohamed DA et al. Effect of dietary counseling on preventing excessive weight gain during pregnancy. P*ublic Health.* 2018; 154: 172-81.

401. Di Carlo C, Iannotti G, Sparice S et al. The role of a personalized dietary intervention in managing gestational weight gain: a prospective, controlled study in a low-risk antenatal population. A*rch Gynecol Obstet.* 2014; 289(4): 765-70.

402. Simmons D, Devlieger R, van Assche A et al. Effect of Physical Activity and/or Healthy Eating on GDM Risk: The DALI Lifestyle Study. J *Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2017; 102(3): 903-13.

403. Thornton YS, Smarkola C, Kopacz SM et al. Perinatal outcomes in nutritionally monitored obese pregnant women: a randomized clinical trial. J *Natl Med Assoc.* 2009; 101(6): 569-77.

404. Wolff S, Legarth J, Vangsgaard K et al. A randomized trial of the effects of dietary counseling on gestational weight gain and glucose metabolism in obese pregnant women. I*nt J Obes (Lond).* 2008; 32(3): 495-501.

405. Walsh JM, McGowan CA, Mahony R et al. Low glycaemic index diet in pregnancy to prevent macrosomia (ROLO study): randomised control trial. B*MJ.* 2012; 345: e5605.

406. Horan MK, McGowan CA, Gibney ER et al. Maternal diet and weight at 3 months postpartum following a pregnancy intervention with a low glycaemic index diet: results from the ROLO randomised control trial. N*utrients.* 2014; 6(7): 2946-55.

407. O'Brien EC, Geraghty AA, O'Sullivan EJ et al. Five‐year follow up of a low glycaemic index dietary randomised controlled trial in pregnancy—no long‐term maternal effects of a dietary intervention. B*JOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology.* 2018; 126(4): 514-24.

408. Zhang R, Han S, Chen GC et al. Effects of low-glycemic-index diets in pregnancy on maternal and newborn outcomes in pregnant women: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. E*ur J Nutr.* 2018; 57(1): 167-77.

409. Rogozińska E, Marlin N, Jackson L et al. Effects of antenatal diet and physical activity on maternal and fetal outcomes: individual patient data meta-analysis and health economic evaluation. H*ealth Technology Assessment.* 2017; 21(41): 1-158.

410. Shieh C, Cullen DL, Pike C et al. Intervention strategies for preventing excessive gestational weight gain: systematic review and meta-analysis. O*besity Reviews.* 2018; 19(8): 1093-109.

411. Thangaratinam S, Rogozinska E, Jolly K et al. Interventions to reduce or prevent obesity in pregnant women: a systematic review. H*ealth Technol Assess.* 2012; 16(31): iii-iv, 1-191.

412. Thangaratinam S, Rogozinska E, Jolly K et al. Effects of interventions in pregnancy on maternal weight and obstetric outcomes: meta-analysis of randomised evidence. B*MJ.* 2012; 344: e2088.

413. Tieu J, Shepherd E, Middleton P et al. Dietary advice interventions in pregnancy for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. C*ochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2017; 1: CD006674.

414. Craemer KA, Sampene E, Safdar N et al. Nutrition and Exercise Strategies to Prevent Excessive Pregnancy Weight Gain: A Meta-analysis. A*JP Rep.* 2019; 9(1): e92-e120.

415. International Weight Management in Pregnancy Collaborative G. Effect of diet and physical activity based interventions in pregnancy on gestational weight gain and pregnancy outcomes: meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised trials. B*MJ.* 2017; 358: j3119.

416. Dodd JM, Grivell RM, Crowther CA et al. Antenatal interventions for overweight or obese pregnant women: a systematic review of randomised trials. B*JOG.* 2010; 117(11): 1316-26.

417. Muktabhant B, Lawrie TA, Lumbiganon P et al. Diet or exercise, or both, for preventing excessive weight gain in pregnancy. C*ochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2015; (6): CD007145.

418. Bennett CJ, Walker RE, Blumfield ML et al. Interventions designed to reduce excessive gestational weight gain can reduce the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. D*iabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2018; 141: 69-79.

419. Guo XY, Shu J, Fu XH et al. Improving the effectiveness of lifestyle interventions for gestational diabetes prevention: a meta-analysis and meta-regression. B*JOG.* 2019; 126(3): 311-20.

420. Madhuvrata P, Govinden G, Bustani R et al. Prevention of gestational diabetes in pregnant women with risk factors for gestational diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised trials. O*bstet Med.* 2015; 8(2): 68-85.

421. Song C, Li J, Leng J et al. Lifestyle intervention can reduce the risk of gestational diabetes: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. O*bes Rev.* 2016; 17(10): 960-9.

422. Allen R, Rogozinska E, Sivarajasingam P et al. Effect of diet- and lifestyle-based metabolic risk-modifying interventions on preeclampsia: a meta-analysis. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2014; 93(10): 973-85.

423. Syngelaki A, Sequeira Campos M, Roberge S et al. Diet and exercise for preeclampsia prevention in overweight and obese pregnant women: systematic review and meta-analysis. J *Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2019; 32(20): 3495-501.

424. Oostdam N, van Poppel MN, Wouters MG et al. Interventions for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J *Womens Health (Larchmt).* 2011; 20(10): 1551-63.

425. Bacchi M, Mottola MF, Perales M et al. Aquatic Activities During Pregnancy Prevent Excessive Maternal Weight Gain and Preserve Birth Weight: A Randomized Clinical Trial. A*m J Health Promot.* 2018; 32(3): 729-35.

426. Barakat R, Pelaez M, Montejo R et al. Exercise during pregnancy improves maternal health perception: a randomized controlled trial. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2011; 204(5): 402 e1-7.

427. Barakat R, Pelaez M, Lopez C et al. Exercise during pregnancy reduces the rate of cesarean and instrumental deliveries: results of a randomized controlled trial. J *Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2012; 25(11): 2372-6.

428. Barakat R, Pelaez M, Lopez C et al. Exercise during pregnancy and gestational diabetes-related adverse effects: a randomised controlled trial. B*r J Sports Med.* 2013; 47(10): 630-6.

429. Barakat R, Perales M, Bacchi M et al. A program of exercise throughout pregnancy. Is it safe to mother and newborn? A*m J Health Promot.* 2014; 29(1): 2-8.

430. Barakat R, Pelaez M, Cordero Y et al. Exercise during pregnancy protects against hypertension and macrosomia: randomized clinical trial. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2016; 214(5): 649 e1-8.

431. Cordero Y, Mottola MF, Vargas J et al. Exercise Is associated with a reduction in gestational diabetes mellitus. M*edicine & Science in Sports & Exercise.* 2015; 47(7): 1328-33.

432. da Silva SG, Hallal PC, Domingues MR et al. A randomized controlled trial of exercise during pregnancy on maternal and neonatal outcomes: results from the PAMELA study. I*nt J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2017; 14(1): 175.

433. Daly N, Farren M, McKeating A et al. A Medically Supervised Pregnancy Exercise Intervention in Obese Women: A Randomized Controlled Trial. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2017; 130(5): 1001-10.

434. Garshasbi A, Faghih Zadeh S. The effect of exercise on the intensity of low back pain in pregnant women. I*nt J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2005; 88(3): 271-5.

435. Haakstad LA, Bo K. Effect of regular exercise on prevention of excessive weight gain in pregnancy: a randomised controlled trial. E*ur J Contracept Reprod Health Care.* 2011; 16(2): 116-25.

436. Murtezani A, Pacarada M, Ibraimi Z et al. The impact of exercise during pregnancy on neonatal outcomes: a randomized controlled trial. J *Sports Med Phys Fitness.* 2014; 54(6): 802-8.

437. Nascimento SL, Surita FG, Parpinelli M et al. The effect of an antenatal physical exercise programme on maternal/perinatal outcomes and quality of life in overweight and obese pregnant women: a randomised clinical trial. B*JOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology.* 2011; 118(12): 1455-63.

438. Oostdam N, van Poppel MN, Wouters MG et al. No effect of the FitFor2 exercise programme on blood glucose, insulin sensitivity, and birthweight in pregnant women who were overweight and at risk for gestational diabetes: results of a randomised controlled trial. B*JOG.* 2012; 119(9): 1098-107.

439. Perales M, Cordero Y, Vargas M et al. Exercise and depression in overweight and obese pregnant women: A randomised controlled trial. A*rch Med Deporte.* 2015; 32: 156-63.

440. Perales M, Refoyo I, Coteron J et al. Exercise during pregnancy attenuates prenatal depression: a randomized controlled trial. E*val Health Prof.* 2015; 38(1): 59-72.

441. Pinzon DC, Zamora K, Martinez JH et al. Type of delivery and gestational age is not affected by pregnant Latin-American women engaging in vigorous exercise: a secondary analysis of data from a controlled randomized trial. R*ev Salud Publica (Bogota).* 2012; 14(5): 731-43.

442. Price BB, Amini SB, Kappeler K. Exercise in pregnancy: effect on fitness and obstetric outcomes-a randomized trial. M*ed Sci Sports Exerc.* 2012; 44(12): 2263-9.

443. Ruiz JR, Perales M, Pelaez M et al. Supervised exercise-based intervention to prevent excessive gestational weight gain: a randomized controlled trial. M*ayo Clin Proc.* 2013; 88(12): 1388-97.

444. SongØYgard KM, Stafne SN, Evensen KAI et al. Does exercise during pregnancy prevent postnatal depression? A*cta Obstetricia et Gynecologica Scandinavica.* 2012; 91(1): 62-7.

445. Stafne SN, Salvesen KÅ, Romundstad PR et al. Regular Exercise During Pregnancy to Prevent Gestational Diabetes. O*bstetrics & Gynecology.* 2012; 119(1): 29-36.

446. Vargas-Terrones M, Barakat R, Santacruz B et al. Physical exercise programme during pregnancy decreases perinatal depression risk: a randomised controlled trial. B*r J Sports Med.* 2019; 53(6): 348-53.

447. Aguilar-Cordero MJ, Sanchez-Garcia JC, Rodriguez-Blanque R et al. Moderate physical activity in an aquatic environment during pregnancy (SWEP Study) and its influence in preventing postpartum depression. J *Am Psychiatr Nurses Assoc.* 2019; 25(2): 112-21.

448. Dekker Nitert M, Barrett HL, Denny KJ et al. Exercise in pregnancy does not alter gestational weight gain, MCP-1 or leptin in obese women. A*ust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2015; 55(1): 27-33.

449. Kong KL, Campbell C, Wagner K et al. Impact of a walking intervention during pregnancy on post-partum weight retention and infant anthropometric outcomes. J*ournal of Developmental Origins of Health and Disease.* 2014; 5(03): 259-67.

450. Ong MJ, Guelfi KJ, Hunter T et al. Supervised home-based exercise may attenuate the decline of glucose tolerance in obese pregnant women. D*iabetes Metab.* 2009; 35(5): 418-21.

451. Renault KM, Norgaard K, Nilas L et al. The Treatment of Obese Pregnant Women (TOP) study: a randomized controlled trial of the effect of physical activity intervention assessed by pedometer with or without dietary intervention in obese pregnant women. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2014; 210(2): 134 e1-9.

452. Wang C, Wei Y, Zhang X et al. A randomized clinical trial of exercise during pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes mellitus and improve pregnancy outcome in overweight and obese pregnant women. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017; 216(4): 340-51.

453. Petrov Fieril K, Glantz A, Fagevik Olsen M. The efficacy of moderate-to-vigorous resistance exercise during pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2015; 94(1): 35-42.

454. Barakat R, Cordero Y, Coteron J et al. Exercise during pregnancy improves maternal glucose screen at 24-28 weeks: a randomised controlled trial. B*r J Sports Med.* 2012; 46(9): 656-61.

455. Bernabé R, Franco E, Pérez Medina T et al. Physical exercise during pregnancy and its influence on maternal weight gain. P*rog Obstet Ginecol.* 2018; 61(3): 285-98.

456. da Silva SG, Ricardo LI, Evenson KR et al. Leisure-Time Physical Activity in Pregnancy and Maternal-Child Health: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials and Cohort Studies. S*ports Med.* 2017; 47(2): 295-317.

457. Chatzakis C, Goulis DG, Mareti E et al. Prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus in overweight or obese pregnant women: A network meta-analysis. D*iabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2019; 158: 107924.

458. Sanabria-Martinez G, Garcia-Hermoso A, Poyatos-Leon R et al. Effectiveness of physical activity interventions on preventing gestational diabetes mellitus and excessive maternal weight gain: a meta-analysis. B*JOG.* 2015; 122(9): 1167-74.

459. Wiebe HW, Boule NG, Chari R et al. The effect of supervised prenatal exercise on fetal growth: a meta-analysis. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2015; 125(5): 1185-94.

460. Choi J, Fukuoka Y, Lee JH. The effects of physical activity and physical activity plus diet interventions on body weight in overweight or obese women who are pregnant or in postpartum: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. P*rev Med.* 2013; 56(6): 351-64.

461. Elliott-Sale KJ, Barnett CT, Sale C. Exercise interventions for weight management during pregnancy and up to 1 year postpartum among normal weight, overweight and obese women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2015; 49(20): 1336-42.

462. Streuling I, Beyerlein A, Rosenfeld E et al. Physical activity and gestational weight gain: a meta-analysis of intervention trials. B*JOG.* 2011; 118(3): 278-84.

463. Walker R, Bennett C, Blumfield M et al. Attenuating Pregnancy Weight Gain-What Works and Why: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. N*utrients.* 2018; 10(7).

464. Wang J, Wen D, Liu X et al. Impact of exercise on maternal gestational weight gain: An updated meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. M*edicine (Baltimore).* 2019; 98(27): e16199.

465. Ruchat SM, Mottola MF, Skow RJ et al. Effectiveness of exercise interventions in the prevention of excessive gestational weight gain and postpartum weight retention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1347-56.

466. Davenport MH, Ruchat SM, Poitras VJ et al. Prenatal exercise for the prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1367-75.

467. Han S, Middleton P, Crowther CA. Exercise for pregnant women for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. C*ochrane Database of Systematic Reviews.* 2012.

468. Russo LM, Nobles C, Ertel KA et al. Physical activity interventions in pregnancy and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2015; 125(3): 576-82.

469. Zheng J, Wang H, Ren M. Influence of exercise intervention on gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J*ournal of Endocrinological Investigation.* 2017; 40(10): 1027-33.

470. Ming WK, Ding W, Zhang CJP et al. The effect of exercise during pregnancy on gestational diabetes mellitus in normal-weight women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2018; 18(1): 440.

471. Nasiri-Amiri F, Sepidarkish M, Shirvani MA et al. The effect of exercise on the prevention of gestational diabetes in obese and overweight pregnant women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. D*iabetol Metab Syndr.* 2019; 11: 72.

472. Magro-Malosso ER, Saccone G, Di Tommaso M et al. Exercise during pregnancy and risk of gestational hypertensive disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. A*cta Obstetricia et Gynecologica Scandinavica.* 2017; 96(8): 921-31.

473. Davenport MH, Ruchat SM, Sobierajski F et al. Impact of prenatal exercise on maternal harms, labour and delivery outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2019; 53(2): 99-107.

474. Domenjoz I, Kayser B, Boulvain M. Effect of physical activity during pregnancy on mode of delivery. A*m J Obstet Gynecol.* 2014; 211(4): 401 e1-11.

475. Poyatos-Leon R, Garcia-Hermoso A, Sanabria-Martinez G et al. Effects of exercise during pregnancy on mode of delivery: a meta-analysis. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2015; 94(10): 1039-47.

476. Davenport MH, McCurdy AP, Mottola MF et al. Impact of prenatal exercise on both prenatal and postnatal anxiety and depressive symptoms: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1376-85.

477. Nakamura A, van der Waerden J, Melchior M et al. Physical activity during pregnancy and postpartum depression: Systematic review and meta-analysis. J *Affect Disord.* 2019; 246: 29-41.

478. Aune D, Schlesinger S, Henriksen T et al. Physical activity and the risk of preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. B*JOG.* 2017; 124(12): 1816-26.

479. Davenport MH, Meah VL, Ruchat SM et al. Impact of prenatal exercise on neonatal and childhood outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. B*r J Sports Med.* 2018; 52(21): 1386-96.

480. Magro-Malosso ER, Saccone G, Di Mascio D et al. Exercise during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth in overweight and obese women: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2017; 96(3): 263-73.

481. Guillemette L, Hay JL, Kehler DS et al. Exercise in pregnancy and children's cardiometabolic risk factors: A systematic review and meta-analysis. S*ports Med Open.* 2018; 4(1): 35.

482. Ruchat S-M, Davenport MH, Giroux I et al. Nutrition and exercise reduce excessive weight gain in normal-weight pregnant women. M*edicine & Science in Sports & Exercise.* 2012; 44(8): 1419-26.

483. Buckingham-Schutt LM, Ellingson LD, Vazou S et al. The Behavioral Wellness in Pregnancy study: a randomized controlled trial of a multi-component intervention to promote appropriate weight gain. A*m J Clin Nutr.* 2019; 109(4): 1071-9.

484. Dodd JM, Deussen AR, Louise J. A randomised trial to optimise gestational weight gain and improve maternal and infant health outcomes through antenatal dietary, lifestyle and exercise advice: The OPTIMISE randomised trial. N*utrients.* 2019; 11(12).

485. Althuizen E, van der Wijden CL, van Mechelen W et al. The effect of a counselling intervention on weight changes during and after pregnancy: a randomised trial. B*JOG.* 2013; 120(1): 92-9.

486. Ronnberg AK, Ostlund I, Fadl H et al. Intervention during pregnancy to reduce excessive gestational weight gain-a randomised controlled trial. B*JOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology.* 2015; 122(4): 537-44.

487. Sagedal LR, Vistad I, Overby NC et al. The effect of a prenatal lifestyle intervention on glucose metabolism: results of the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomized controlled trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2017; 17(1): 167.

488. Asbee SM, Jenkins TR, Butler JR et al. Preventing excessive weight gain during pregnancy through dietary and lifestyle counseling: a randomized controlled trial. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2009; 113(2 Pt 1): 305-12.

489. Asci O, Rathfisch G. Effect of lifestyle interventions of pregnant women on their dietary habits, lifestyle behaviors, and weight gain: a randomized controlled trial. J *Health Popul Nutr.* 2016; 35: 7.

490. Hui A, Back L, Ludwig S et al. Lifestyle intervention on diet and exercise reduced excessive gestational weight gain in pregnant women under a randomised controlled trial. B*JOG.* 2012; 119(1): 70-7.

491. Hui AL, Back L, Ludwig S et al. Effects of lifestyle intervention on dietary intake, physical activity level, and gestational weight gain in pregnant women with different pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index in a randomized control trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2014; 14: 331.

492. Jing W, Huang Y, Liu X et al. The effect of a personalized intervention on weight gain and physical activity among pregnant women in China. I*nt J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2015; 129(2): 138-41.

493. Pawalia A, Kulandaivelan S, Savant S et al. Exercise in Pregnancy: Effect on Obesity Parameters in Indian Women – A Randomized Controlled Trial. R*omanian Journal of Diabetes Nutrition and Metabolic Diseases.* 2017; 24(4).

494. Phelan S, Phipps MG, Abrams B et al. Randomized trial of a behavioral intervention to prevent excessive gestational weight gain: the Fit for Delivery Study. A*m J Clin Nutr.* 2011; 93(4): 772-9.

495. Polley BA, Wing RR, Sims CJ. Randomized controlled trial to prevent excessive weight gain in pregnant women. I*nt J Obes Relat Metab Disord.* 2002; 26(11): 1494-502.

496. Rauh K, Gabriel E, Kerschbaum E et al. Safety and efficacy of a lifestyle intervention for pregnant women to prevent excessive maternal weight gain: a cluster-randomized controlled trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2013; 13: 151.

497. Kunath J, Gunther J, Rauh K et al. Effects of a lifestyle intervention during pregnancy to prevent excessive gestational weight gain in routine care - the cluster-randomised GeliS trial. B*MC Med.* 2019; 17(1): 5.

498. Kiani Asiabar A, Amin Shokravi F, Hajifaraji M et al. The effect of an educational intervention in early pregnancy with spouse's participation on optimal gestational weight gain in pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. H*ealth Educ Res.* 2018; 33(6): 535-47.

499. Bruno R, Petrella E, Bertarini V et al. Adherence to a lifestyle programme in overweight/obese pregnant women and effect on gestational diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial. M*atern Child Nutr.* 2017; 13(3).

500. Willcox JC, Wilkinson SA, Lappas M et al. A mobile health intervention promoting healthy gestational weight gain for women entering pregnancy at a high body mass index: the txt4two pilot randomised controlled trial. B*JOG.* 2017; 124(11): 1718-28.

501. Dodd JM, Turnbull D, McPhee AJ et al. Antenatal lifestyle advice for women who are overweight or obese: LIMIT randomised trial. B*MJ.* 2014; 348: g1285.

502. Gallagher D, Rosenn B, Toro-Ramos T et al. Greater Neonatal Fat-Free Mass and Similar Fat Mass Following a Randomized Trial to Control Excess Gestational Weight Gain. O*besity.* 2018; 26(3): 578-87.

503. Hawkins M, Hosker M, Marcus BH et al. A pregnancy lifestyle intervention to prevent gestational diabetes risk factors in overweight Hispanic women: a feasibility randomized controlled trial. D*iabet Med.* 2015; 32(1): 108-15.

504. Petrella E, Malavolti M, Bertarini V et al. Gestational weight gain in overweight and obese women enrolled in a healthy lifestyle and eating habits program. J *Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Med.* 2013; 27(13): 1348-52.

505. Van Horn L, Peaceman A, Kwasny M et al. Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension Diet and Activity to Limit Gestational Weight: Maternal Offspring Metabolics Family Intervention Trial, a Technology Enhanced Randomized Trial. A*m J Prev Med.* 2018; 55(5): 603-14.

506. Kennelly MA, Ainscough K, Lindsay KL et al. Pregnancy Exercise and Nutrition With Smartphone Application Support: A Randomized Controlled Trial. O*bstet Gynecol.* 2018; 131(5): 818-26.

507. Altazan AD, Redman LM, Burton JH et al. Mood and quality of life changes in pregnancy and postpartum and the effect of a behavioral intervention targeting excess gestational weight gain in women with overweight and obesity: a parallel-arm randomized controlled pilot trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2019; 19(1): 50.

508. Phelan S, Wing RR, Brannen A et al. Randomized controlled clinical trial of behavioral lifestyle intervention with partial meal replacement to reduce excessive gestational weight gain. A*m J Clin Nutr.* 2018; 107(2): 183-94.

509. Trak-Fellermeier MA, Campos M, Melendez M et al. PEARLS randomized lifestyle trial in pregnant Hispanic women with overweight/obesity: gestational weight gain and offspring birthweight. D*iabetes Metab Syndr Obes.* 2019; 12: 225-38.

510. Bogaerts AF, Devlieger R, Nuyts E et al. Effects of lifestyle intervention in obese pregnant women on gestational weight gain and mental health: a randomized controlled trial. I*nt J Obes (Lond).* 2013; 37(6): 814-21.

511. Guelinckx I, Devlieger R, Mullie P et al. Effect of lifestyle intervention on dietary habits, physical activity, and gestational weight gain in obese pregnant women: a randomized controlled trial. A*m J Clin Nutr.* 2010; 91(2): 373-80.

512. Poston L, Briley AL, Barr S et al. Developing a complex intervention for diet and activity behaviour change in obese pregnant women (the UPBEAT trial); assessment of behavioural change and process evaluation in a pilot randomised controlled trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2013; 13: 148.

513. Poston L, Bell R, Croker H et al. Effect of a behavioural intervention in obese pregnant women (the UPBEAT study): a multicentre, randomised controlled trial. T*he Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology.* 2015; 3(10): 767-77.

514. Vesco KK, Karanja N, King JC et al. Healthy Moms, a randomized trial to promote and evaluate weight maintenance among obese pregnant women: study design and rationale. C*ontemp Clin Trials.* 2012; 33(4): 777-85.

515. Vinter CA, Jensen DM, Ovesen P et al. The LiP (Lifestyle in Pregnancy) study: a randomized controlled trial of lifestyle intervention in 360 obese pregnant women. D*iabetes Care.* 2011; 34(12): 2502-7.

516. Korpi-Hyovalti EA, Laaksonen DE, Schwab US et al. Feasibility of a lifestyle intervention in early pregnancy to prevent deterioration of glucose tolerance. B*MC Public Health.* 2011; 11: 179.

517. Wang S, Ma J-M, Yang H-X. Lifestyle intervention for gestational diabetes mellitus prevention: A cluster-randomized controlled study. C*hronic Diseases and Translational Medicine.* 2015; 1(3): 169-74.

518. Chan RS, Tam WH, Ho IC et al. Randomized trial examining effectiveness of lifestyle intervention in reducing gestational diabetes in high risk Chinese pregnant women in Hong Kong. S*ci Rep.* 2018; 8(1): 13849.

519. Koivusalo SB, Rönö K, Klemetti MM et al. Gestational diabetes mellitus can be prevented by lifestyle intervention: The Finnish Gestational Diabetes Prevention Study (RADIEL). D*iabetes Care.* 2016; 39(1): 24-30.

520. Harrison CL, Lombard CB, Strauss BJ et al. Optimizing healthy gestational weight gain in women at high risk of gestational diabetes: a randomized controlled trial. O*besity (Silver Spring).* 2013; 21(5): 904-9.

521. Dodd JM, Grivell RM, Owens JA. Antenatal Dietary and Lifestyle Interventions for Women Who are Overweight or Obese: Outcomes from the LIMIT Randomized Trial. C*urrent Nutrition Reports.* 2014; 3(4): 392-9.

522. Luoto R, Kinnunen TI, Aittasalo M et al. Primary prevention of gestational diabetes mellitus and large-for-gestational-age newborns by lifestyle counseling: a cluster-randomized controlled trial. P*LoS Med.* 2011; 8(5): e1001036.

523. O'Brien CM, Grivell RM, Dodd JM. Systematic review of antenatal dietary and lifestyle interventions in women with a normal body mass index. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2016; 95(3): 259-69.

524. Gardner B, Wardle J, Poston L et al. Changing diet and physical activity to reduce gestational weight gain: a meta-analysis. O*bes Rev.* 2011; 12(7): e602-20.

525. Morison PN, Bacardi-Gascon M, Lopez-Corrales M et al. Combined dietary-exercise intervention for gestational weight gain and birthweight: a meta-analysis. A*sia Pac J Clin Nutr.* 2018; 27(4): 860-8.

526. Shepherd E, Gomersall JC, Tieu J et al. Combined diet and exercise interventions for preventing gestational diabetes mellitus. C*ochrane Database of Systematic Reviews.* 2017.

527. Vincze L, Rollo M, Hutchesson M et al. Interventions including a nutrition component aimed at managing gestational weight gain or postpartum weight retention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J*BI Database System Rev Implement Rep.* 2019; 17(3): 297-364.

528. Oteng-Ntim E, Varma R, Croker H et al. Lifestyle interventions for overweight and obese pregnant women to improve pregnancy outcome: systematic review and meta-analysis. B*MC Med.* 2012; 10: 47.

529. Bailey C, Skouteris H, Teede H et al. Are lifestyle interventions to reduce excessive gestational weight gain cost effective? A systematic review. C*urrent Diabetes Reports.* 2020; 20(2).

530. Oostdam N, Bosmans J, Wouters MG et al. Cost-effectiveness of an exercise program during pregnancy to prevent gestational diabetes: results of an economic evaluation alongside a randomised controlled trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2012; 12: 64.

531. Broekhuizen K, Simmons D, Devlieger R et al. Cost-effectiveness of healthy eating and/or physical activity promotion in pregnant women at increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: economic evaluation alongside the DALI study, a European multicenter randomized controlled trial. I*nternational Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity.* 2018; 15(1).

532. O'Sullivan EJ, Rokicki S, Kennelly M et al. Cost-effectiveness of a mobile health-supported lifestyle intervention for pregnant women with an elevated body mass index. I*nt J Obes (Lond).* 2020; 44(5): 999-1010.

533. Barakat R, Pelaez M, Montejo R et al. Exercise throughout pregnancy does not cause preterm delivery: a randomized, controlled trial. J *Phys Act Health.* 2014; 11(5): 1012-7.

534. Pelaez M, Gonzalez-Cerron S, Montejo R et al. Protective effect of exercise in pregnant women including those who exceed weight gain recommendations: a randomized controlled trial. M*ayo Clin Proc.* 2019; 94(10): 1951-9.

535. Barakat R, Refoyo I, Coteron J et al. Exercise during pregnancy has a preventative effect on excessive maternal weight gain and gestational diabetes. A randomized controlled trial. B*raz J Phys Ther.* 2019; 23(2): 148-55.

536. Coll CVN, Domingues MR, Stein A et al. Efficacy of regular exercise during pregnancy on the prevention of postpartum depression: the PAMELA randomized clinical trial. J*AMA Netw Open.* 2019; 2(1): e186861.

537. Garnaes KK, Helvik AS, Stafne SN et al. Effects of supervised exercise training during pregnancy on psychological well-being among overweight and obese women: secondary analyses of the ETIP-trial, a randomised controlled trial. B*MJ Open.* 2019; 9(11): e028252.

538. Haakstad LA, Bo K. Exercise in pregnant women and birth weight: a randomized controlled trial. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2011; 11: 66.

539. Haakstad LAH, Kissel I, Bø K. Long-term effects of participation in a prenatal exercise intervention on body weight, body mass index, and physical activity level: a 6-year follow-up study of a randomized controlled trial. T*he Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine.* 2019: 1-9.

540. Hopkins SA, Baldi JC, Cutfield WS et al. Effects of exercise training on maternal hormonal changes in pregnancy. C*lin Endocrinol (Oxf).* 2011; 74(4): 495-500.

541. Kong KL, Campbell CG, Foster RC et al. A pilot walking program promotes moderate-intensity physical activity during pregnancy. M*ed Sci Sports Exerc.* 2014; 46(3): 462-71.

542. Wang C, Wei Y, Zhang X et al. Effect of Regular Exercise Commenced in Early Pregnancy on the Incidence of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus in Overweight and Obese Pregnant Women: A Randomized Controlled Trial. D*iabetes Care.* 2016; 39(10): e163-4.

543. Dodd JM, O’Brien CM, Grivell RM. Modifying diet and physical activity to support pregnant women who are overweight or obese. C*urrent Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care.* 2015; 18(3): 318-23.

544. Dodd JM, Deussen AR, Mohamad I et al. The effect of antenatal lifestyle advice for women who are overweight or obese on secondary measures of neonatal body composition: the LIMIT randomised trial. B*JOG.* 2016; 123(2): 244-53.

545. Harrison CL, Lombard CB, Teede HJ. Limiting postpartum weight retention through early antenatal intervention: the HeLP-her randomised controlled trial. I*nt J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2014; 11: 134.

546. Korpi-Hyovalti E, Schwab U, Laaksonen DE et al. Effect of intensive counselling on the quality of dietary fats in pregnant women at high risk of gestational diabetes mellitus. B*r J Nutr.* 2012; 108(5): 910-7.

547. Luoto RM, Kinnunen TI, Aittasalo M et al. Prevention of gestational diabetes: design of a cluster-randomized controlled trial and one-year follow-up. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2010; 10: 39.

548. Kinnunen TI, Raitanen J, Aittasalo M et al. Preventing excessive gestational weight gain--a secondary analysis of a cluster-randomised controlled trial. E*ur J Clin Nutr.* 2012; 66(12): 1344-50.

549. Kolu P, Raitanen J, Rissanen P et al. Cost-Effectiveness of Lifestyle Counselling as Primary Prevention of Gestational Diabetes Mellitus: Findings from a Cluster-Randomised Trial. P*LoS ONE.* 2013; 8(2).

550. Kolu P, Raitanen J, Puhkala J et al. Effectiveness and Cost-Effectiveness of a Cluster-Randomized Prenatal Lifestyle Counseling Trial: A Seven-Year Follow-Up. P*LoS One.* 2016; 11(12): e0167759.

551. Phelan S, Phipps MG, Abrams B et al. Does behavioral intervention in pregnancy reduce postpartum weight retention? Twelve-month outcomes of the Fit for Delivery randomized trial. A*m J Clin Nutr.* 2014; 99(2): 302-11.

552. Patel N, Godfrey KM, Pasupathy D et al. Infant adiposity following a randomised controlled trial of a behavioural intervention in obese pregnancy. I*nt J Obes (Lond).* 2017; 41(7): 1018-26.

553. Molyneaux E, Begum S, Briley AL et al. Do elevated symptoms of depression predict adherence and outcomes in the UPBEAT randomised controlled trial of a lifestyle intervention for obese pregnant women? B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2018; 18(1): 378.

554. Rauh K, Gunther J, Kunath J et al. Lifestyle intervention to prevent excessive maternal weight gain: mother and infant follow-up at 12 months postpartum. B*MC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2015; 15: 265.

555. Ronnberg A, Hanson U, Ostlund I et al. Effects on postpartum weight retention after antenatal lifestyle intervention - a secondary analysis of a randomized controlled trial. A*cta Obstetricia et Gynecologica Scandinavica.* 2016; 95(9): 999-1007.

556. Ronnberg A-K, Hanson U, Nilsson K. Effects of an antenatal lifestyle intervention on offspring obesity - a 5-year follow-up of a randomized controlled trial. A*cta Obstetricia et Gynecologica Scandinavica.* 2017; 96(9): 1093-9.

557. Sagedal LR, Sanda B, Øverby NC et al. The effect of prenatal lifestyle intervention on weight retention 12 months postpartum: results of the Norwegian Fit for Delivery randomised controlled trial. B*JOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology.* 2017; 124(1): 111-21.

558. Vesco KK, Karanja N, King JC et al. Efficacy of a group-based dietary intervention for limiting gestational weight gain among obese women: a randomized trial. O*besity (Silver Spring).* 2014; 22(9): 1989-96.

559. Vesco KK, Leo MC, Karanja N et al. One-year postpartum outcomes following a weight management intervention in pregnant women with obesity. O*besity (Silver Spring).* 2016; 24(10): 2042-9.

560. Vinter CA, Jørgensen JS, Ovesen P et al. Metabolic effects of lifestyle intervention in obese pregnant women. Results from the randomized controlled trial ‘Lifestyle in Pregnancy’ (LiP). D*iabetic Medicine.* 2014; 31(11): 1323-30.

561. Vinter CA, Jensen DM, Ovesen P et al. Postpartum weight retention and breastfeeding among obese women from the randomized controlled Lifestyle in Pregnancy (LiP) trial. A*cta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2014; 93(8): 794-801.