

# Early pregnancy vitamin D status is associated with blood pressure in children: an Odense Child Cohort study

Josefine N Pedersen,<sup>1,2</sup> Christine Dalgård,<sup>1,3</sup> Sören Möller,<sup>1,4</sup> Louise B Andersen,<sup>5,6</sup> Anna Birukov,<sup>7</sup> Marianne Skovsager Andersen,<sup>4,8</sup> and Henrik T Christesen<sup>1,2,9</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Clinical Research, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark; <sup>2</sup>Hans Christian Andersen Children's Hospital, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark; <sup>3</sup>Clinical Pharmacology, Pharmacy and Environmental Medicine, Dept of Public Health, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark; <sup>4</sup>Open Patient data Explorative Network, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark; <sup>5</sup>General Practice, Capital Region, Denmark; <sup>6</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark; <sup>7</sup>Department of Molecular Epidemiology, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbrücke, Nuthetal, Germany; <sup>8</sup>Department of Endocrinology, Odense University Hospital, University of Southern Denmark, Odense, Denmark; and <sup>9</sup>Odense Child Cohort, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** Blood pressure in childhood tracks into later life. Vitamin D status in adults is associated with blood pressure, but the impact of vitamin D status in pregnancy and childhood on blood pressure still needs investigation.

**Objective:** We investigated whether fetal rather than current vitamin D status is associated with blood pressure in children.

**Methods:** In a prospective observational study within the population-based Odense Child Cohort (OCC), we examined serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>2+3</sub> [s-25(OH)D] in early and late pregnancy, cord blood, and at 5 y age, and the associations with systolic and diastolic blood pressure (SBP/DBP) in the 5-y-old children ( $n = 1,677$ ). Multiple regression models were adjusted for maternal country of origin, parity, smoking during pregnancy, 5-y height, and weight. Two-stage mixed effect modeling was performed, integrating all s-25(OH)D data from pregnancy and cord blood.

**Results:** The median (IQR) s-25(OH)D in early pregnancy, late pregnancy, the umbilical cord, and at 5 y was 65.5 (50.7–78.5), 78.5 (60.3–95.8), 45.4 (31.1–60.7), and 71.9 (54.6–86.5) nmol/L, respectively. The mean  $\pm$ SD 5-y SBP/DBP was 101.0/63.8 (7.1/5.9) mmHg. In adjusted analyses, a 10 nmol/L increase of s-25(OH)D in early pregnancy associated with a 0.3/0.2 mmHg lower SBP/DBP at 5 y ( $P < 0.05$ ). Optimal s-25(OH)D ( $>75$  nmol/L) in early pregnancy was associated with lower 5-y SBP and DBP,  $\beta$  (95% CI)  $-1.45$  ( $-2.6, -0.3$ ), and  $-0.97$  ( $-1.9, -0.1$ ), compared with reference s-25(OH)D (50–74.9 nmol/L). Two-stage analysis combining early pregnancy, late pregnancy, and cord s-25(OH)D data showed an inverse association with 5-y SBP and DBP for boys ( $P < 0.025$ ) with significant sex-difference for DBP ( $P_{interaction} = 0.004$ ). No associations were found between s-25(OH)D and 5-y BP above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile.

**Conclusion:** Early pregnancy s-25(OH)D concentrations, especially  $>75$  nmol/L, were inversely associated with 5-y blood pressure in the offspring. A novel identified protective effect of optimal vitamin D levels in early pregnancy on offspring BP is suggested. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2022;116:470–481.

**Keywords:** vitamin D status, 25(OH)D, pregnancy, fetal programming, children, blood pressure, cardio-metabolic health, cohort

## Introduction

High blood pressure (BP) is the most important modifiable risk factor for cardiovascular events and overall disease burden in adults (1). Much interest has been given to vitamin D supplementation as a potential prevention measure against high BP or hypertension. Recent systematic reviews with meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) do not, however, support an effect of supplementation with vitamin D alone (2, 3) or calcium and vitamin D combined (4), on systolic BP (SBP) or diastolic BP (DBP). One exception was seen for individuals with pre-existing cardiovascular disease, who had a 1.31 mmHg reduced DBP after vitamin D supplementation (5).

On the other hand, baseline s-25-hydroxyvitamin D [s-25(OH)D] was inversely associated with risk of hypertension in recent meta-analyses of observational studies (3, 6), and

Supported by the AP Møller foundation of medical research (jr.nr. L0294) and Beckett-Fonden (jr.nr. 18-2-1818). Both applications done by JNP. These funds had no influence on the design, implementation, analysis, or interpretation of the study.

Supplementary Figures 1 and 2 and Supplementary Tables 1–8 are available from the “Supplementary data” link in the online posting of the article and from the same link in the online table of contents at <https://academic.oup.com/jn/>.

Address correspondence to HTC (email: [Henrik.christesen@rsyd.dk](mailto:Henrik.christesen@rsyd.dk)).

Abbreviations used: BP, blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; lowess, locally weighted scatterplot smoothing; OCC, Odense Child Cohort; RCT, randomized controlled trials; SBP, systolic blood pressure; s-25(OH)D, S-25-hydroxyvitamin D.

Received December 2, 2021. Accepted for publication April 27, 2022.

First published online May 3, 2022; doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqac118>.

a Mendelian randomization study provided evidence for a protective effect of higher vitamin D status on SBP, DBP, and hypertension (7). Several biological mechanisms have been proposed for a protective effect of vitamin D on hypertension, which has been supported by animal studies (8).

Elevated BP in children is a strong predictor of hypertension later in life (9, 10). Although no effect of vitamin D supplementation on BP was seen in a meta-analysis of RCTs in children and adolescents (11), higher vitamin D status is associated with lower BP in children in several observational studies (12–16). Furthermore, an association between vitamin D status [s-25(OH)D] in pregnancy or cord blood and offspring BP has been suggested in some (17–21), but not all studies (22, 23).

Increased BP and hypertension in adulthood may already be determined during the fetal period (24, 25). In humans, nephrogenesis begins in week 5 of pregnancy and impaired nephrogenesis results in reduced nephron numbers, which together with altered renin-angiotensin-aldosterone activity, glucocorticoid excess, altered tubular handling of sodium ions, and inappropriate activation of the endothelin system may lead to subsequent higher BP.

Vitamin D deficiency in pregnancy affects nephrons, glomeruli, renin, and endothelial relaxation, and increases SBP and DBP in animal studies (26–29). A specific vulnerable time window for hypovitaminosis D in the human fetus is not known, but early pregnancy may be the most vulnerable period for the impact of malnutrition on nephrogenesis in this period (30).

Hypovitaminosis D, defined as s-25(OH)D <50 nmol/L, is still very common in pregnant women especially at northern latitudes (31, 32), as also seen in our previous studies from the Odense Child Cohort (OCC) in Denmark, despite recommendations of vitamin D supplementation of 10 µg/d during pregnancy (33, 34). Previous association studies have not had the chance to investigate s-25(OH)D associations from several time points in early life in relation to BP.

In the present study, we aimed to investigate whether s-25(OH)D concentrations in early and late pregnancy, in cord blood, and at 5 y of age were associated with BP in 5-y-old children, hypothesizing early pregnancy to be the most vulnerable exposure time.

## Subjects and methods

### Design and study population

The study was a part of the OCC, an ongoing population-based prospective, observational mother–child cohort from early pregnancy onward. Newly pregnant women with residence in Odense, Denmark, were invited to participate between 1 January 2010 and 31 December 2012. The cohort included 2,875 pregnant women. A detailed description of the OCC has been given elsewhere (35).

In the present study, exclusion criteria were miscarriage, stillbirth, migration from the study region, and chronic diseases with risk of hypo- or hypertension (e.g., major congenital heart disease or chronic renal insufficiency). Furthermore, only singletons with information on BP at the age of 5 y and s-25(OH)D determined at either one, some, or all the time points:

early and late pregnancy, in cord blood, and at 5 y, were included (Figure 1).

To best reflect a general population, mothers with preeclampsia ( $n = 114$ ) or gestational hypertension ( $n = 67$ ) were not excluded. Likewise, we included 64 preterm infants (GA median: 35 wk 5 d; range: 27 wk 1 d to 36 wk 6 d) and 14 term neonates with low birth weight (mean: 2,334 g; range: 1,800–2,495 g).

### Vitamin D status

The vitamin D status was based on s-25(OH)D concentrations, considered to be the best marker of vitamin D status (36), and analyzed using gold standard HPLC-MS, calibrated against National Institute of Standards and Technology standard 972 as previously described in detail (33). S-25(OH)D was given as the sum of s-25(OH)D<sub>2</sub> and s-25(OH)D<sub>3</sub>.

Blood samples were drawn during early pregnancy, median (IQR) gestational age 12.1 (10–15) wk; late pregnancy, 29 (28–30) wk, from the umbilical cord; and at child age 5.0 (5.0–5.1) y.

### Blood pressure measurements

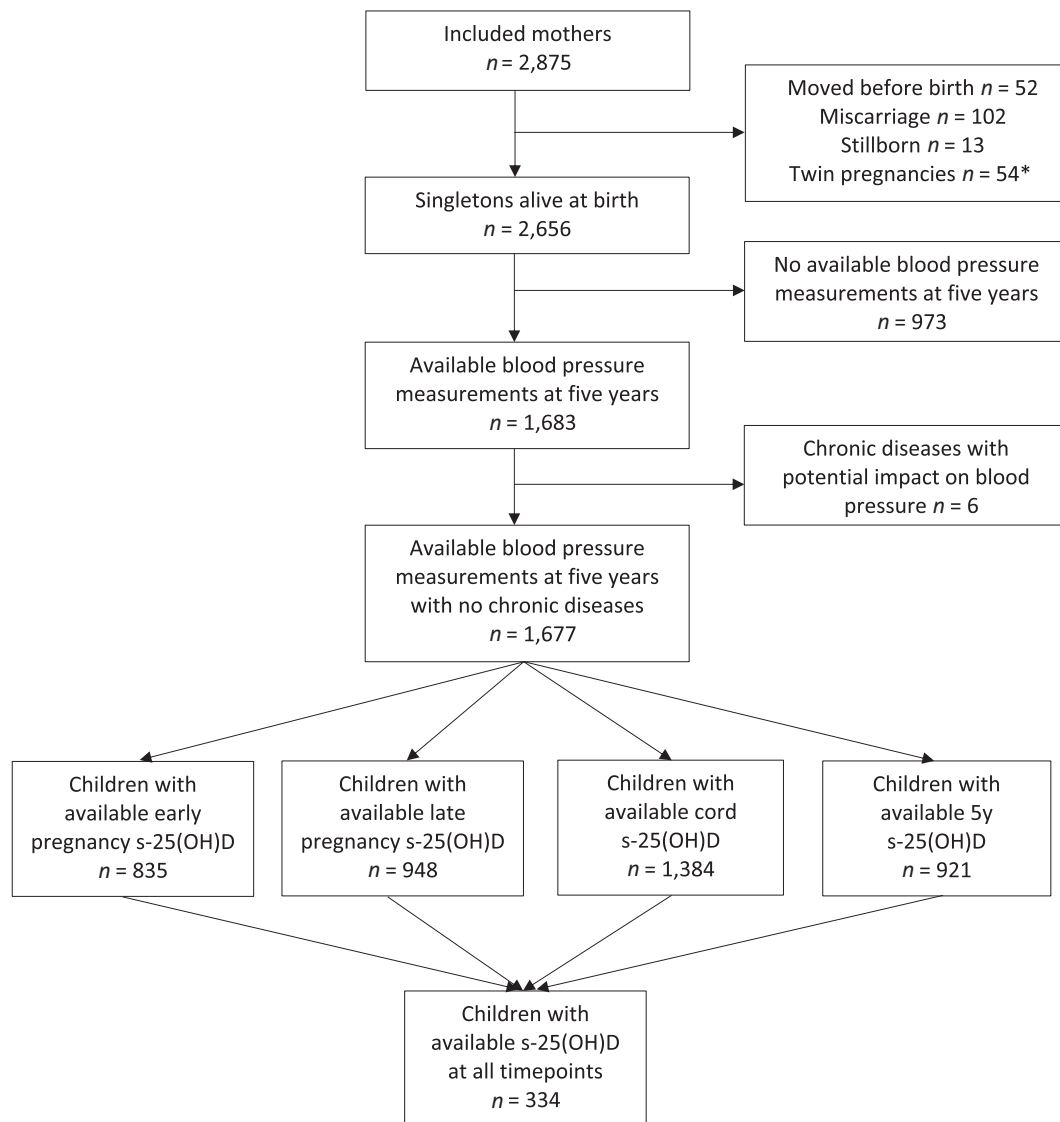
At the child's 5-y visit, SBP and DBP were measured with Welch Allyn vital signs on the left arm twice with cuffs of appropriate sizes and with the child in a sitting position and the arm resting down the side, with a 1-min rest before the measurement (37). All measures were performed by trained professionals.

### Covariates

Information about covariates was obtained through medical records, self-reported data, questionnaires, and physical examination of the children performed by OCC staff, blinded for s-25(OH)D, at 3 and 18 mo, and 3 and 5 y. The Municipality of Odense provided information about the mothers' birth country and parental ethnicity (Danish/other Western or non-Western country of origin). Data on parity, maternal prepregnancy BMI, and smoking during pregnancy were retrieved from the journal report at the first antenatal visit. Maternal BP in the first, second, and third trimester of pregnancy was obtained as previously reported (38). Through questionnaires answered during pregnancy and 3 mo after birth, information was obtained about gestational weight gain, use of vitamin D supplement during pregnancy (<10 mg/daily or ≥10 mg/daily), maternal skin type on modified Fitzpatrick's Scale (I to VI) (39), sun exposure during pregnancy (never/rarely, sometimes, often, or most of the time), and parental education level (high school or less, high school 1–3 or ≥4 y). Parental-reported information about child vitamin D supplementation (µg/d) and duration of exclusive breastfeeding (wk) were collected in a later questionnaire, ~18 mo after birth. Information about child skin type on the Fitzpatrick's scale was drawn from questionnaires completed by parents when their child was 3 y old.

The children's skin types were merged into 3 groups: I/II, III, and IV/V/VI, due to few participants in group I, V, and VI.

Information about the children, including sex and gestational age at birth (in days), was collected from medical files. Maternal



**FIGURE 1** Participant inclusion flowchart. \*Some participants were excluded due to >1 criterion. s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>2</sub>+D<sub>3</sub>.

age was calculated at the time of birth. The time of blood sampling was categorized as high or low vitamin D season (May–October or November–April). At the 5-y examination, child height (to the nearest centimeter) was measured with a stadiometer and child weight (to the nearest 0.1 kg) without or with minimal clothing was measured by trained staff professionals at OCC on a digital weight scale.

### Statistical analysis

Numerical data were presented as mean  $\pm$  SD or median and IQR, where appropriate. BP was used as a continuous variable and was also dichotomized at the  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  compared with the  $< 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile of our own data set. S-25(OH)D was used as a continuous variable and categorized according to quartiles and the routine cutoffs  $< 25$ , 25–49.9, 50–74.9, and  $\geq 75$  nmol/L using the 1<sup>st</sup> quartile and 50–74.9 nmol/L as references. Differences between participant characteristics in quartiles of early pregnancy

s-25(OH)D were examined using an ANOVA or Kruskal–Wallis test for continuous variables and chi-square test for categorical variables. A Kruskal–Wallis test was also used to evaluate sex differences in s-25(OH)D.

Density plots with kernel distribution for s-25(OH)D at each time point and locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (lowess) for SBP/DBP compared with s-25(OH)D split by sex were performed for visual inspection. Univariate and multiple linear regression analyses were applied to test the associations between the measures of s-25(OH)D at the 4 different time points and 5-y BP. Moreover, the association of the s-25(OH)D samples at the 4 time points with BP  $\geq 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for the cohort was examined using multiple logistic regression models. The association between early pregnancy s-25(OH)D and 5-y SBP was chosen as the primary association and did not change throughout the course of the research.

Missing covariate data were handled by exclusion of the participants with missing data from the adjusted analysis.

Analyses were performed in the whole group as well as stratified by sex. Potential effect modification of sex on the association between vitamin D status and BP was examined by including an interaction term in the final adjusted models.

A two-stage model was applied to utilize all available s-25(OH)D data from early pregnancy and late pregnancy and cord blood in the analysis of a combined association to 5-y BP. The first stage applied a mixed effects linear regression adjusting for time point and with residual variance stratified by time point to determine each child individual overall level of s-25(OH)D as a random intercept. In a second stage, this determined level was applied as exposure in a linear regression with BP at 5 y as outcome adjusted for covariates. To consider the combined uncertainty in both steps, CIs and *P* values were determined by bootstrapping with 1,000 repetitions.

Analyses were conducted using Stata 15.0 software (Stata-Corp).

Model assumptions were checked by visual inspection of the distribution of the studentized residuals in a normal quantile-quantile plot. Furthermore, logistic regression models were tested by Pearson's goodness-of-fit test.

Two-sided *P* values <0.05 were considered statistically significant. No corrections for multiple testing were applied in the main analyses, as significant associations in the primary analysis (early pregnancy s-25(OH)D and 5-y BP) were supported by several similar findings. As a sensitivity analysis, however, we applied the Bonferroni adjusted *P* value <0.025 to correct for two outcomes (SBP and DBP).

Our study was a priori powered to detect a difference in SBP of 0.33 mmHg and DBP 0.27 mmHg for every 10 nmol/L difference in s-25(OH)D given  $n = 800$ ,  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.20$ , early pregnancy s-25(OH)D  $\pm$ SD 21.53 nmol/L, SBP  $\pm$ SD = 7.10 mmHg, and DBP  $\pm$ SD 5.81 mmHg.

Differences between participants and nonparticipants were assessed using Student's *t*-test or Mann-Whitney for continuous Gaussian or non-Gaussian data, respectively, and chi-square tests were applied for categorical variables. Nonparticipants were defined as included in OCC, but not participating in this study due to the exclusion criteria.

Analysis not prespecified were considered exploratory.

## Ethics

The study was approved by the Regional Scientific Ethical Committee of Southern Denmark (no. S-20090130) and the Danish Data protection Board (application no. 13/14088). All women willing to participate gave informed written consent at enrollment. The study was carried out in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration II and reported according to STROBE guidelines for observational studies (40).

## Results

### Study population, exposure, and outcome

The present study included 1,677 mother-child pairs with data on 5-y BP and s-25(OH)D at any of the 4 time points. In early pregnancy, late pregnancy, cord blood, and at 5-y, hypovitaminosis D [s-25(OH)D <50 nmol/L] was found in 24.0%, 15.6%, 58.5%, and 19.7%, respectively. The medians

[IQR] of s-25(OH)D at these time periods were 65.5 (50.7; 78.5), 78.5 (60.3; 95.8), 45.4 (31.1; 60.7) and 71.9 (54.6; 86.5) nmol/L, respectively. No sex difference in s-25(OH)D concentrations was found in pregnancy or cord samples, **Supplementary Figure 1**. At 5 y, boys had higher s-25(OH)D than girls, 74.2 (56.0; 88.1) nmol/L compared with 70.0 (53.4; 84.6) nmol/L,  $P = 0.04$ .

Compared with participants in this study, nonparticipant mothers within OCC were younger, darker skinned, and more likely to smoke during pregnancy and be of non-Western ethnicity. Nonparticipant children were more likely to be born earlier, have lower birthweight, not to be the first child, have darker skin, and be exclusively breastfed for a shorter period (**Supplementary Table 1**).

Participant characteristics according to quartiles of early pregnancy s-25(OH)D are presented in **Table 1**. Mothers with s-25(OH)D in the 1<sup>st</sup> quartile (Q1; <50.7 nmol/L) had higher prepregnancy BMI, higher parity, less vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy, were more often of non-Western ethnicity, and were more likely to smoke during pregnancy compared with mothers with s-25(OH)D in higher quartiles. Early pregnancy blood sample season in May-October and lighter skin type of the child were significantly associated with higher quartiles of early pregnancy s-25(OH)D.

The mean  $\pm$ SD of 5-y SBP/DBP was 101.0/63.8 (7.1/5.9) mmHg with no sex differences; boys 101.2/63.6 (7.1/5.7), girls 100.8/64.0 (7.2/6.0). Lowess smoothing plots for the unadjusted s-25(OH)D associations to 5-y SBP/DBP are given in **Supplementary Figure 2**.

### Early pregnancy s-25(OH)D associations to blood pressure at 5 y

Early pregnancy s-25(OH)D showed inverse associations with 5-y SBP and DBP in the total cohort for all models, whether s-25(OH)D was used as continuous or categorized by clinical cutoffs or quartiles (**Tables 2–4** and **Supplementary Tables 2–4**). Optimal s-25(OH)D ( $\geq 75$  nmol/L) associated with 1.45 mmHg lower SBP ( $P = 0.01$ ) and 0.97 mmHg lower DBP ( $P = 0.04$ ) compared with reference s-25(OH)D (50–74.9 nmol/L). No associations were found between early pregnancy s-25(OH)D and offspring risk of increased BP (BP >90<sup>th</sup> percentile, **Supplementary Table 5**).

Applying Bonferroni correction for two outcomes, significant associations remained between continuous s-25(OH)D and SBP in the total cohort, and between s-25(OH)D >75 nmol/L and SBP in the total cohort and in girls ( $P < 0.025$  for all). Tests for sex differences were not statistically significant (SBP;  $P = 0.445$ , DBP  $P = 0.857$ ).

### Late pregnancy and cord s-25(OH)D associations to blood pressure at 5 y

In the adjusted analysis, late pregnancy s-25(OH)D <25 nmol/L associated inversely with DBP in boys. Test for sex differences were not statistically significant (SBP;  $P = 0.163$ , DBP;  $P = 0.056$ ). No other associations were found between late pregnancy s-25(OH)D and 5-y BP.

In cord blood, s-25(OH)D <50 nmol/L compared with reference (50–74.9 nmol/L) nmol/L associated to higher DBP



TABLE 1 Selected population characteristics by quartiles of early pregnancy s-25(OH)D<sup>1</sup>

	n	All quartiles of s-25(OH)D in early pregnancy, nmol/L				P value
		≥50.7	<50.7	50.7–65.5	>65.6 to 78.5	
<b>Maternal characteristics</b>						
Age, y	835	30.3 (± 4.4)	30.7 (± 4.6)	30.6 (± 4.3)	30.1 (± 4.4)	0.125
Pregestational BMI	835	23.6 [21.5; 26.2]	24.5 [22.2; 27.5]	23.7 [21.7; 25.9]	23.4 [21.4; 26.0]	<0.001
Smoking <sup>2</sup> , n (%)	835	36 (4.3)	15 (7.2)	6 (2.9)	4 (1.9)	0.035
Alcohol consumption <sup>2</sup> , n (%)	626	47 (7.5)	12 (8.3)	12 (7.6)	11 (6.9)	0.974
Education level	823					0.531
Low, n (%)		233 (28.3)	57 (27.8)	50 (24.3)	64 (31.2)	
Intermediate, n (%)		409 (49.7)	107 (52.2)	102 (49.5)	98 (47.8)	
High, n (%)		181 (22.0)	41 (20.0)	54 (26.2)	43 (21.0)	
Ethnicity	835					<0.001
Danish/Western, n (%)		807 (96.7)	192 (91.9)	206 (98.6)	201 (96.2)	
Non-Western country, n (%)		28 (3.4)	17 (8.1)	3 (1.4)	8 (3.8)	
Maternal skin type (Fitzpatrick)	632					0.328
I/II, n (%)		122 (19.3)	33 (22.5)	24 (15.2)	27 (16.8)	
III, n (%)		387 (61.2)	88 (59.9)	93 (58.9)	107 (66.5)	
IV, n (%)		117 (18.5)	25 (17.0)	38 (24.1)	26 (16.2)	
V/VI, n (%)		6 (1.0)	1 (0.7)	3 (1.9)	1 (0.6)	
Parity	835					<0.001
1, n (%)		473 (56.7)	88 (42.1)	129 (61.7)	125 (59.8)	
≥2, n (%)		362 (43.4)	121 (57.9)	80 (38.3)	84 (40.2)	
Vitamin D tablets <sup>3</sup> , n (%)	522	461 (88.3)	92 (83.6)	111 (84.7)	127 (90.1)	0.043
Sun exposure <sup>2</sup>	634					0.455
Never/rarely, n (%)		10 (1.6)	1 (0.7)	4 (2.5)	3 (1.9)	
Sometimes, n (%)		135 (21.3)	37 (25.2)	30 (18.9)	40 (24.7)	
Often, n (%)		386 (60.9)	83 (56.5)	104 (65.4)	92 (56.8)	
Most of the time, n (%)		103 (16.3)	26 (17.7)	21 (13.2)	27 (16.7)	
<b>Child characteristics</b>						
Skin type (Fitzpatrick)	688					0.012
I/II, n (%)		361 (52.5)	84 (45.9)	94 (55.6)	98 (55.1)	
III, n (%)		303 (44.0)	85 (46.5)	74 (43.8)	75 (42.1)	
IV/V/VI, n (%)		24 (3.5)	14 (7.7)	1 (0.6)	5 (2.8)	
Age in y at examination	834	5.01 [5.0; 5.1]	5.01 [5.0; 5.0]	5.02 [5.0; 5.1]	5.02 [5.0; 5.1]	0.031
Early pregnancy blood sample, May–Oct, n (%)	835	396 (47.4)	74 (36.6)	101 (46.3)	108 (49.1)	<0.001
Height at 5 y, cm	834	112.3 [109.2; 115.1]	112.5 [109.7; 114.9]	112.4 [109.1; 115.3]	111.8 [108.8; 115.2]	0.681
Weight at 5 y, kg	819	19.1 [17.7; 20.6]	19.4 [18.2; 20.6]	18.9 [17.9; 20.5]	18.7 [17.4; 20.4]	0.072
BMI at 5 y	819	15.2 [14.5; 15.9]	15.4 [14.7; 16.0]	15.1 [14.5; 15.8]	15.1 [14.4; 15.8]	0.046
SPB at 5 y, mm Hg	835	100.9 (± 7.3)	101.5 (± 7.3)	101.4 (± 7.9)	100.4 (± 6.8)	0.223
DBP at 5 y, mm Hg	835	63.6 (± 5.8)	64.0 (± 5.7)	63.9 (± 5.5)	63.6 (± 5.8)	0.360
GPA at birth, d	835	282 [275; 288]	282 [276; 287]	281 [274; 288]	281 [275; 287]	0.850
Boys, n (%)	835	440 (52.7)	109 (52.2)	99 (47.4)	112 (53.6)	0.208
Vaginal birth, n (%)	835	684 (81.9)	166 (79.4)	173 (82.8)	170 (81.3)	0.633
Duration of exclusive breastfeeding, wk	743	8 [0; 17]	8 [0; 16]	10 [0; 18]	12 [0; 17]	0.185
Paternal characteristics						
BMI	493	25.0 [23.0; 27.4]	25.3 [23.5; 28.3]	24.8 [23.0; 26.8]	25.3 [22.9; 27.4]	0.349

<sup>1</sup>Values are presented as numbers [n or n (%)], mean ± SD, or median [IQR]. Sun exposure, education, and skin type were analyzed as categorical variables with reference to no sun exposure, low education, and Fitzpatrick I/II skin type. ANOVA or Kruskal–Wallis test used for continuous variables and chi-square test for categorical variables. DBP, diastolic blood pressure; GA, gestational age; SBP, systolic blood pressure; s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D.

<sup>2</sup>During pregnancy.

<sup>3</sup>Vitamin D supplementation > 10 µg/d during pregnancy.

TABLE 2 Adjusted multiple linear regression of associations between 5-y SBP/DBP and continuous s-25(OH)D in pregnancy and cord blood<sup>1</sup>

	Association with s-25(OH)D concentration											
	Early pregnancy <sup>2</sup>				Late pregnancy <sup>2</sup>				Cord blood			
	n	β (95% CI)	P value	n	β (95% CI)	P value	n	β (95% CI)	P value			
All												
SBP	819	-0.03 (-0.05, -0.01)	0.015	927	-0.01 (-0.02, 0.01)	0.486	1351	-0.00 (-0.02, 0.01)	0.686			
DBP	819	-0.02 (-0.04, -0.00)	0.048	927	-0.00 (-0.02, 0.01)	0.894	1351	-0.00 (-0.02, 0.01)	0.568			
Girls												
SBP	389	-0.04 (-0.08, -0.00)	0.044	443	0.01 (-0.02, 0.03)	0.602	638	0.01 (-0.02, 0.04)	0.460			
DBP	389	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.02)	0.398	443	0.01 (-0.01, 0.03)	0.186	638	0.01 (-0.01, 0.03)	0.379			
Boys												
SBP	430	-0.02 (-0.05, 0.01)	0.166	484	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.00)	0.097	713	-0.01 (-0.04, 0.01)	0.249			
DBP	430	-0.02 (-0.05, 0.00)	0.083	484	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.00)	0.124	713	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.00)	0.084			
Interaction, girls vs. boys												
SBP			0.445			0.163			0.905			
DBP			0.857			0.056			0.892			

<sup>1</sup>Values are results of multiple linear regression. All models adjusted for maternal ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, height at 5 y, and parity. DBP, diastolic blood pressure; GA, gestational age; SBP, systolic blood pressure; vs., versus; s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D.

<sup>2</sup>Early pregnancy, GA <140 d; late pregnancy, GA ≥140 d.

( $P < 0.05$ ) in the total cohort. For boys, SBP were higher for cord s-25(OH)D <25 nmol/L compared with reference and DBP associated inversely with cord s-25(OH)D in test for trend and for <50 nmol/L compared with reference ( $P < 0.05$  for all). However, the sex differences were not statistically significant (SBP;  $P = 0.210$ , DBP  $P = 0.067$ ). No associations were found between cord s-25(OH)D and 5-y BP ≥90<sup>th</sup> percentile. No associations were observed in girls.

### Two-stage analysis of overall association

The two-stage analysis combining early pregnancy, late pregnancy, and cord s-25(OH)D data showed an inverse association with both 5-y SBP and DBP for boys ( $P < 0.025$ ), but not for girls or the total cohort (Table 5). Test for sex differences were statistically significant for DBP ( $P = 0.004$ ), but not for SBP ( $P = 0.092$ ).

### Other analyses

No consistent associations were detected between 5-y s-25(OH)D and 5-y SBP/DBP (Supplementary Tables 5–8). In sensitivity analyses, quartiles defined for girls and boys separately did not change our results for any of the associations studied (data not shown).

Likewise, our primary association remained unchanged when 1) excluding children born preterm, 2) excluding mothers with preeclampsia or gestational hypertension, or 3) adding maternal 1<sup>st</sup> trimester BP, or mean of 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester BP, as a covariate (data not shown).

### Discussion

In our population-based cohort study, higher s-25(OH)D in early pregnancy was associated with lower child blood pressure at 5 y age. Split by routine cutoffs, s-25(OH)D >75 nmol/L associated with lower SBP and DBP. No associations with SBP or DBP >90<sup>th</sup> percentile or sex-specific associations were detected. For boys, inverse associations with blood pressure were found in the 2-stage model for overall pregnancy and cord vitamin D exposure.

Determinants of BP in childhood may include maternal factors already from early pregnancy. In a previous study, we identified positive associations between maternal first, second, and third trimester BP and offspring BP up to 5 y of age (38). In a large-scale genetic meta-analysis, BP in adults was linked to regions of active chromatin in fetal heart, muscle, kidney, and adrenal gland and lung tissues, suggesting a link between fetal development and later BP regulation (24).

Vitamin D plays an important role in the fetal development in many organs. In animal studies, vitamin D receptor gene deletion leads to activating of the renin-angiotensin system, hypertension, and target-organ damage (41) and similar effects are shown for 1α-hydroxylase gene knock out (42). Vitamin D deficiency during pregnancy increases the number of nephrons and glomeruli, but delay maturity of glomeruli in offspring (26, 27), and parental vitamin D depletion in rats leads to increased SBP and DBP with hypermethylation of the promotor region of the *Panx1* and impaired endothelial relaxation (28). Conversely,

TABLE 3 Adjusted associations between 5-y SBP/DBP and quartiles of s-25(OH)D in pregnancy and cord blood<sup>1</sup>

All participants	Association with s-25(OH)D concentration											
	Early pregnancy				Late pregnancy				Cord blood			
	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value			
SBP	819	Reference		927	Reference		1,351	Reference				
Q1	203	0.08 (-1.3, 1.5)	0.913	229	0.34 (-0.9, 1.6)	0.606	321	-0.49 (-1.6, 0.6)	0.365			
Q2	207	-0.82 (-2.2, 0.6)	0.248	232	-0.05 (-1.3, 1.2)	0.943	346	-0.43 (-1.5, 0.6)	0.432			
Q3	205	-1.22 (-2.6, 0.2)	0.090	234	-0.30 (-1.6, 1.0)	0.650	342	-0.28 (-1.4, 0.8)	0.604			
Q4	204	-0.46 (-0.9, -0.0)	0.040	232	-0.13 (-0.5, 0.3)	0.532	342	-0.07 (-0.4, 0.3)	0.674			
Trend	819			927			1,351					
DBP	819	Reference		927	Reference		1,351	Reference				
Q1	203	0.08 (-1.0, 1.2)	0.888	229	0.06 (-1.0, 1.1)	0.908	321	-0.26 (-1.2, 0.6)	0.564			
Q2	207	-0.19 (-1.3, 0.9)	0.741	232	0.41 (-0.7, 1.5)	0.452	346	-0.30 (-1.2, 0.6)	0.517			
Q3	205	-0.90 (-2.0, 0.2)	0.120	234	-0.24 (-1.3, 0.8)	0.660	342	-0.40 (-1.3, 0.5)	0.376			
Q4	204	-0.30 (-0.7, 0.1)	0.097	232	-0.04 (-0.4, 0.3)	0.822	342	-0.12 (-0.4, 0.2)	0.393			
Trend	819			927			1,351					
Girls <sup>2</sup>												
SBP	389	Reference		443	Reference		638	Reference				
Q1	96	-0.21 (-2.2, 1.8)	0.836	115	0.75 (-1.1, 2.6)	0.428	148	-0.44 (-2.0, 1.2)	0.595			
Q2	110	-0.69 (-2.8, 1.4)	0.518	111	0.31 (-1.6, 2.2)	0.751	152	-0.22 (-1.8, 1.4)	0.782			
Q3	95	-1.70 (-3.9, 0.5)	0.123	100	0.41 (-1.5, 2.3)	0.664	166	0.04 (-1.5, 1.7)	0.960			
Q4	88	-0.56 (-1.2, 0.1)	0.104	117	0.08 (-0.5, 0.7)	0.790	172	0.04 (-0.5, 0.5)	0.863			
Trend	389			443			638					
DBP	389	Reference		443	Reference		638	Reference				
Q1	96	-0.22 (-1.9, 1.4)	0.796	115	0.42 (-1.1, 2.0)	0.596	148	-0.19 (-1.5, 1.2)	0.778			
Q2	110	-0.47 (-2.2, 1.2)	0.584	111	1.35 (-0.3, 3.0)	0.099	152	-0.19 (-1.5, 1.1)	0.773			
Q3	95	-0.32 (-2.1, 1.4)	0.723	100	0.64 (-0.9, 2.2)	0.420	166	0.20 (-1.1, 1.5)	0.765			
Q4	88	-0.12 (-0.7, 0.4)	0.659	117	0.27 (-0.2, 0.8)	0.285	172	0.07 (-0.3, 0.5)	0.748			
Trend	389			443			638					
Boys <sup>2</sup>												
SBP	430	Reference		484	Reference		713	Reference				
Q1	107	0.50 (-1.5, 2.5)	0.614	114	-0.09 (-1.8, 1.7)	0.922	173	-0.57 (-2.0, 0.9)	0.439			
Q2	97	-0.86 (-2.8, 1.1)	0.382	121	-0.51 (-2.2, 1.2)	0.563	194	-0.56 (-2.0, 0.9)	0.450			
Q3	110	-0.79 (-2.7, 1.1)	0.411	134	-1.08 (-2.9, 0.7)	0.239	176	-0.51 (-2.0, 1.0)	0.499			
Q4	116	-0.38 (-1.0, 0.2)	0.217	115	-0.37 (-0.9, 0.2)	0.203	170	-0.15 (-0.6, 0.3)	0.529			
Trend	430			484			713					
DBP	430	Reference		484	Reference		713	Reference				
Q1	107	0.44 (-1.1, 2.0)	0.583	114	-0.36 (-1.8, 1.1)	0.626	173	-0.34 (-1.5, 0.8)	0.570			
Q2	97	0.11 (-1.4, 1.7)	0.889	121	-0.36 (-1.8, 1.1)	0.615	194	-0.38 (-1.6, 0.8)	0.537			
Q3	110	-1.21 (-2.7, 0.3)	0.117	134	-1.10 (-2.6, 0.4)	0.146	176	-1.00 (-2.2, 0.2)	0.109			
Q4	116	-0.42 (-0.9, 0.1)	0.086	115	-0.33 (-0.8, 0.1)	0.170	170	-0.30 (-0.7, 0.1)	0.123			
Trend	430			484			713					

<sup>1</sup>Values are results of multiple linear regression. All models adjusted for maternal ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, height at 5 y, weight at 5 y, and parity. s-25(OH)D quartiles: early pregnancy: Q1, <50.7; Q2, 50.7–65.5; Q3, 65.6–78.5; and Q4,  $\geq$ 78.5 nmol/L; late pregnancy: Q1, <60.3; Q2, 60.3–78.5; Q3, 78.6–95.8; and Q4,  $\geq$ 95.8 nmol/L. DBP, diastolic blood pressure; GA, gestational age; Q, quartile; SBP, systolic blood pressure; vs., versus; s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D.

<sup>2</sup>No interactions based on participant sex were found in any of the associations.

**TABLE 4** Adjusted associations between 5-y SBP/DBP and clinical cutoffs for s-25(OH)D in pregnancy and cord blood<sup>1</sup>

		Association with s-25(OH)D concentration							
s-25(OH)D, nmol/L		Early pregnancy		Late pregnancy		Cord blood			
All participants	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value
SBP	819			927			1,351		
<25	17	1.08 (-2.4, 4.5)	0.538	13	1.03 (-2.8, 4.9)	0.603	216	1.04 (-0.1, 2.2)	0.077
25-49.9	177	-0.39 (-1.7, 0.9)	0.552	129	-0.42 (-1.9, 1.0)	0.571	571	0.60 (-0.3, 1.5)	0.182
0-49.9	194	-0.26 (-1.5, 1.0)	0.681	142	-0.29 (-1.7, 1.1)	0.686	423	0.71 (-0.1, 1.5)	0.090
50-74.9	358	Reference		266	Reference		141	Reference	
≥75	267	-1.45 (-2.6, -0.3)	0.011	519	-0.45 (-1.5, 0.6)	0.389	80	0.85 (-0.5, 2.2)	0.210
Trend <sup>2</sup>	819	-0.65 (-0.1, 3, -0.0)	0.043	927	-0.18 (-0.8, 0.4)	0.552	1,351	-0.22 (-0.7, 0.2)	0.305
DBP	819			927			1,351		
<25	17	-0.72 (-3.5, 2.1)	0.611	13	0.82 (-2.4, 4.0)	0.616	216	0.70 (-0.3, 1.7)	0.152
25-49.9	177	-0.11 (-1.2, 0.9)	0.836	129	-0.52 (-1.7, 0.7)	0.405	571	0.77 (0.0, 1.5)	0.039
0-49.9	194	-0.16 (-1.2, 0.9)	0.752	142	-0.39 (-1.6, 0.8)	0.511	423	0.75 (0.1, 1.4)	0.032
50-74.9	358	Reference		266	Reference		141	Reference	
≥75	267	-0.97 (-1.9, -0.1)	0.037	519	-0.14 (-1.0, 0.7)	0.750	80	0.63 (-0.5, 1.7)	0.262
Trend <sup>2</sup>	819	-0.39 (-0.9, 0.1)	0.135	927	0.04 (-0.4, 0.5)	0.871	1,351	-0.21 (-0.6, 0.1)	0.241
Girls	389			443			638		
SBP	6	0.35 (-5.5, 6.2)	0.908	7	-0.81 (-6.2, 4.6)	0.768	95	0.11 (-1.6, 1.8)	0.905
25-49.9	87	-0.45 (-2.3, 1.4)	0.639	60	-0.86 (-3.0, 1.3)	0.433	257	0.92 (-0.4, 2.2)	0.157
0-49.9	93	-0.40 (-2.2, 1.4)	0.671	67	-0.86 (-2.9, 1.2)	0.418	352	0.71 (-0.5, 1.9)	0.245
50-74.9	183	Reference		136	Reference		214	Reference	
≥75	113	-2.25 (-3.9, -0.5)	0.010	240	-0.08 (-1.6, 1.4)	0.922	72	1.29 (-0.6, 3.2)	0.175
Trend <sup>2</sup>	389	-0.95 (-1.9, 0.0)	0.056	443	0.28 (-0.6, 1.2)	0.533	638	0.07 (-0.6, 0.7)	0.826
DBP	389			443			638		
<25	6	-1.56 (-6.4, 3.2)	0.522	7	-2.58 (-7.0, 1.9)	0.258	95	0.03 (-1.4, 1.5)	0.971
25-49.9	87	0.08 (-0.1, 1.6)	0.917	60	-0.70 (-2.5, 1.1)	0.444	257	0.71 (-0.4, 1.8)	0.192
0-49.9	93	-0.03 (-1.5, 1.5)	0.972	67	-0.89 (-2.6, 0.8)	0.309	352	0.54 (-0.5, 1.5)	0.296
50-74.9	183	Reference		136	Reference		214	Reference	
≥75	113	-0.72 (-2.1, 0.7)	0.308	240	0.59 (-0.7, 1.8)	0.355	72	1.06 (-0.5, 2.6)	0.185
Trend <sup>2</sup>	389	-0.30 (-1.1, 0.5)	0.459	443	0.71 (-0.0, 1.4)	0.053	638	0.08 (-0.4, 0.6)	0.756
Boys	430			484			713		
SBP	11	1.18 (-3.1, 5.5)	0.591	6	4.47 (1.2, 10.1)	0.120	121	1.66 (0.1, 3.2)	0.037
25-49.9	90	-0.46 (-2.3, 1.4)	0.621	69	-0.12 (-2.1, 1.9)	0.903	314	0.22 (-1.0, 1.4)	0.723
0-49.9	101	-0.29 (-2.0, 1.5)	0.748	75	0.23 (0.1, 2.2)	0.817	435	0.62 (-0.5, 1.8)	0.291
50-74.9	175	Reference		130	Reference		209	Reference	
≥75	154	-0.95 (-2.5, 0.6)	0.218	279	-0.87 (-2.3, 0.5)	0.228	69	0.40 (-1.5, 2.3)	0.679
Trend <sup>2</sup>	430	-0.41 (-1.2, 0.4)	0.333	484	-0.67 (-1.5, 0.1)	0.102	713	-0.45 (-1.0, 0.1)	0.137

(Continued)



TABLE 4 (Continued)

s-25(OH)D, nmol/L	Association with s-25(OH)D concentration											
	Early pregnancy				Late pregnancy				Cord blood			
	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value	n	$\beta$ (95% CI)	P value			
All participants	430			484			713					
DBP	11	-0.31 (-3.8, 3.1)	0.859	6	5.53 (0.9, 10.2)	0.020	121	1.29 (-0.0, 2.6)	0.051			
<25	90	-0.39 (-1.9, 1.1)	0.603	69	-0.32 (-2.0, 1.3)	0.698	314	0.85 (-0.2, 1.9)	0.100			
25-49.9	101	-0.38 (-1.8, 1.0)	0.598	75	0.13 (-1.5, 1.7)	0.879	435	0.97 (0.0, 1.9)	0.046			
0-49.9	175	Reference		130	Reference		209	Reference				
50-74.9	154	-1.15 (-2.4, 0.1)	0.063	279	-0.70 (-1.9, 0.5)	0.240	69	0.17 (-1.4, 1.7)	0.836			
$\geq 75$	430	-0.42 (-1.1, 0.3)	0.219	484	-0.55 (-1.2, 0.1)	0.102	713	-0.51 (-1.0, -0.0)	0.043			
Trend <sup>2</sup>												
Interaction, girls vs. boys												
SBP	819		0.776	927		0.200	1,351		0.081			
DBP	819		0.697	927		0.012	1,351		0.426			

<sup>1</sup>Values are results of multiple linear regression. All models adjusted for maternal ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, height at 5 y, weight at 5 y, and parity. s-25(OH)D concentration quartiles: cord blood: Q1, <31.1; Q2, 31.1-45; Q3, 45.5-60.7; Q4,  $\geq 60.7$  nmol/L; early pregnancy: Q1, <50.7; Q2, 50.7-65.5; Q3, 65.6-78.5; Q4,  $\geq 78.5$  nmol/L; late pregnancy: Q1, <60.3; Q2, 60.3-78.5; Q3, 78.6-95.8; Q4,  $\geq 95.8$  nmol/L. DBP, diastolic blood pressure; Q, quartile; SBP, systolic blood pressure; vs., versus; s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D.

<sup>2</sup>The test for trend is done for <25 nmol/L, 25-49.9 nmol/L, 50-74.9 nmol/L and  $\geq 75$  nmol/L.

calcitriol [1,25(OH)<sub>2</sub>D<sub>3</sub>] lowers renin expression through actions on the renin gene promoter (29).

No large RCTs have addressed the possible effect of vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy on offspring BP. However, in a small RCT ( $n = 52$ ), BP was similar in the 12- to 16-month offspring between groups with vitamin D supplementation or placebo in pregnancy (43).

Inverse associations between pregnancy or cord s-25(OH)D and offspring BP have been found in some (17-21), but not all (22, 23) observational studies. Of note, the large observational Dutch study by Miliku et al. (22), which did not find associations between s-25(OH)D in mid-gestation pregnancy and 6y BP in the offspring, adjusted for multivitamin supplementation and calcium intake in pregnancy, unlike our and other studies. As vitamin D supplementation is a major determinant for s-25(OH)D concentrations in pregnancy [Table 1 and previously shown (34)], adjusting for multivitamin supplementation may have masked a true association in the Dutch study.

We had the opportunity to explore 3 exposure times in early life and identified early pregnancy as the exposure time with most significant associations. In late pregnancy and cord blood, weaker associations were still present for boys and the 2-stage model for the combined exposure of early pregnancy, late pregnancy, and cord 25(OH)D were highly significant in boys, in keeping with the findings of males being more susceptible to developmental insults in early life with regard to cardiovascular health (44, 45).

Large-scale twin studies would be optimal to further address this sex difference.

We identified an inverse association between optimal vitamin D status in early pregnancy (s-25(OH)D  $\geq 75$  nmol/L) and SBP and DBP in the 5-y-old offspring, whereas vitamin D deficiency (<25 nmol/L) was not associated with SBP or DBP. This may suggest a beneficial role of optimal vitamin D status in early pregnancy on offspring BP. In former studies, only low vitamin D status in pregnancy (20), or the continuous full scale of s-25(OH)D (17-19, 21), showed associations with offspring BP.

Our mean s-25(OH)D concentrations were relatively high in early and late pregnancy compared with most other (46, 47), but not all, studies (48). A generally high vitamin D status in a cohort may lead to failure to detect an association between low vitamin D status and higher offspring BP, especially in late pregnancy where s-25(OH)D reach the highest concentrations, compatible with an increasing adherence to vitamin D supplementation recommendations during pregnancy in our cohort (34, 49). On the other hand, the failure to detect associations between optimal vitamin D status and lower BP in late pregnancy or cord suggests a time window of a protective effect of optimal vitamin D status on offspring BP confined to early pregnancy.

The lack of association between 5-y s-25(OH)D and BP is in keeping with null effect of vitamin D supplementation in childhood on BP in RCTs (11). However, our cohort was not suitable for studying associations of very low s-25(OH)D concentrations, nor at 5 y.

We noted that the mean SBP/DBP of 101/64 in our cohort was high compared with the consensus guideline BP pediatric reference (50), but only slightly higher than the mean SBP/DBP of 100/63 at 3 y of age (21). These high values can partly be ascribed to the oscillometric method used in OCC, partly to a mean 5-y height in OCC comparable with the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile height in the consensus reference population (data not shown).

**TABLE 5** Two-stage analysis, associations between 5-y SBP/DBP and vitamin D (early pregnancy, late pregnancy, and cord blood)<sup>1</sup>

Association with 5-y SBP/DBP and vitamin D											
	Girls			Boys			Interaction				
	<i>n</i>	$\beta$ (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value	<i>n</i>	$\beta$ (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value	<i>n</i>	$\beta$ (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value	<i>P</i> <sub>interaction girls vs. boys</sub>	
SBP	1351	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.00)	0.099	638	0.00 (-0.03, 0.04)	0.861	713	-0.04 (-0.07, -0.01)	0.021	0.092	
DBP	1351	-0.02 (-0.04, 0.00)	0.100	638	0.01 (-0.02, 0.05)	0.393	713	-0.04 (-0.07, -0.02)	0.001	0.004	

<sup>1</sup>Values are results of 2-stage analysis (multiple regression) adjusted for maternal ethnicity, smoking during pregnancy, height at 5 y, weight at 5 y, and parity. DBP, diastolic blood pressure; SBP, systolic blood pressure; vs., versus; s-25(OH)D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D.

These differences were not believed to bias the associations studied.

## Strengths and limitations

Strengths of this study included the use of a large population-based birth cohort, the longitudinal s-25(OH)D sampling, the use of s-25(OH)D measured by gold standard method instead of questionnaire data on vitamin D supplementation, and child examination performed by trained staff blinded for s-25(OH)D. Limitations of the study included the observational nature of our study with the use of self-reported data in covariates and the potential for chance findings and residual confounding. Moreover, eligible pregnant women who did not participate in the OCC at all were more likely to have higher parity, to smoke during pregnancy, be of non-Western ethnicity, and have children with darker skin in a previously reported selection bias analysis (35).

In conclusion, early pregnancy s-25(OH)D was inversely associated to measures of SBP and DBP at 5 y with a novel identified inverse association between optimal vitamin D status [s-25(OH)D >75 nmol/L] and BP at 5 y. Mixed effect models for pregnancy and cord s-25(OH)D identified an inverse association in the male offspring only.

Our findings may encourage women to obtain optimal vitamin D status already before or within early pregnancy. Although the associations led to only small differences in SBP and DBP and no associations to BP >90<sup>th</sup> percentile, the results may have clinical importance given the strong evidence for higher BP tracking from childhood into adulthood (9, 51) with association to clinical hypertension (9, 52, 53) and metabolic syndrome (53).

In the policy making of public health recommendations on vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy, the potential small beneficial effect on offspring BP must, however, be balanced against the risk of vitamin D toxicity. Longer follow-ups into adolescence and adulthood and high-evidence data from well-designed RCTs should address the question of vitamin D supplementation earliest possible in pregnancy with respect to offspring BP along with other outcomes.

We acknowledge the research staff at the Hans Christian Andersen children's Hospital for their careful examinations of the study participants. We are grateful to the OCC participants for their use of time and engagement in the cohort.

The authors' responsibilities were as follows – JNP, CD, HTC: designed the study; JNP, AB, MSA: collected the data; JNP, SM, CD: analyzed data; JNP, CD, LBA, SM, HTC: wrote the paper; HTC: had primary responsibility for final content; and all authors: read and approved the final manuscript. The authors report no conflicts of interest.

## Data Availability

Data described in the manuscript, code book, and analytic code will not be made available as they contain personal information on the participants.

## References

1. Magnussen CG, Smith KJ. Pediatric blood pressure and adult preclinical markers of cardiovascular disease. *Clin Med Insights Blood Disord* 2016;9:1–8.

2. Beveridge LA, Struthers AD, Khan F, Jorde R, Scragg R, Macdonald HM, et al. Effect of vitamin D supplementation on blood pressure: a systematic review and meta-analysis incorporating individual patient data. *JAMA Intern Med* 2015;175(5):745–54.
3. Zhang D, Cheng C, Wang Y, Sun H, Yu S, Xue Y, et al. Effect of vitamin D on blood pressure and hypertension in the general population: an update meta-analysis of cohort studies and randomized controlled trials. *Prev Chronic Dis* 2020;17:E03.
4. Wu L, Sun D. Effects of calcium plus vitamin D supplementation on blood pressure: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Hum Hypertens* 2017;31(9):547–54.
5. Kunutsor SK, Burgess S, Munroe PB, Khan H. Vitamin D and high blood pressure: causal association or epiphenomenon? *Eur J Epidemiol* 2014;29(1):1–14.
6. Kunutsor SK, Apekey TA, Steur M. Vitamin D and risk of future hypertension: meta-analysis of 283,537 participants. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2013;28(3):205–21.
7. Vimalaswaran KS, Cavadino A, Berry DJ, Jorde R, Dieffenbach AK, Lu C, et al. Association of vitamin D status with arterial blood pressure and hypertension risk: a mendelian randomisation study. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol* 2014;2(9):719–29.
8. Chen S, Sun Y, Agrawal DK. Vitamin D deficiency and essential hypertension. *J Am Soc Hypertens* 2015;9(11):885–901.
9. Chen X, Wang Y. Tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adulthood: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis. *Circulation* 2008;117(25):3171–80.
10. Kelly RK, Thomson R, Smith KJ, Dwyer T, Venn A, Magnussen CG. Factors affecting tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adulthood: the childhood determinants of adult health study. *J Pediatr* 2015;167(6):1422–8.e2.e2.
11. Abboud M. Vitamin D supplementation and blood pressure in children and adolescents: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrients* 2020;12(4):1163.
12. Pacifico L, Anania C, Osborn JF, Ferraro F, Bonci E, Olivero E, et al. Low 25(OH)D3 levels are associated with total adiposity, metabolic syndrome, and hypertension in Caucasian children and adolescents. *Eur J Endocrinol* 2011;165(4):603–11.
13. Ganji V, Zhang X, Shaikh N, Tangpricha V. Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations are associated with prevalence of metabolic syndrome and various cardiometabolic risk factors in US children and adolescents based on assay-adjusted serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D data from NHANES 2001–2006. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2011;94(1):225–33.
14. Tomaino K, Romero KM, Robinson CL, Baumann LM, Hansel NN, Pollard SL, et al. Association between serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D levels and blood pressure among adolescents in two resource-limited settings in Peru. *Am J Hypertens* 2015;28(8):1017–23.
15. Petersen RA, Dalskov SM, Sørensen LB, Hjorth MF, Andersen R, Tetens I, et al. Vitamin D status is associated with cardiometabolic markers in 8–11-year-old children, independently of body fat and physical activity. *Br J Nutr* 2015;114(10):1647–55.
16. Dolinsky DH, Armstrong S, Mangarelli C, Kemper AR. The association between vitamin D and cardiometabolic risk factors in children: a systematic review. *Clin Pediatr (Phila)* 2013;52(3):210–23.
17. Rytter D, Bech BH, Halldorsson TI, Henriksen TB, Grandström C, Cohen A, et al. Maternal vitamin D status at week 30 of gestation and offspring cardio-metabolic health at 20 years: a prospective cohort study over two decades. *PLoS One* 2016;11(10):e0164758.
18. Williams DM, Fraser A, Fraser WD, Hyppönen E, Davey Smith G, Deanfield J, et al. Associations of maternal 25-hydroxyvitamin D in pregnancy with offspring cardiovascular risk factors in childhood and adolescence: findings from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children. *Heart* 2013;99(24):1849–56.
19. Sauder KA, Stamatou AV, Leshchinskaya E, Ringham BM, Glueck DH, Dabelea D. Cord blood vitamin D levels and early childhood blood pressure: the Healthy Start Study. *J Am Heart Assoc* 2019;8(9):e011485.
20. Wang G, Liu X, Bartell TR, Pearson C, Cheng TL, Wang X. Vitamin D trajectories from birth to early childhood and elevated systolic blood pressure during childhood and adolescence. *Hypertension* 2019;74(2):421–30. [Hypertensionaha11913120](https://doi.org/10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA11913120).
21. Larsen SD, Dalgård C, Christensen ME, Lykkedegn S, Andersen LB, Andersen M, et al. Blood pressure in 3-year-old girls associates inversely with umbilical cord serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D: an Odense Child Cohort study. *Endocr Connect* 2018;7(12):1236–44.
22. Miliku K, Felix JF, Voortman T, Tiemeier H, Eyles DW, Burne TH, et al. Associations of maternal and fetal vitamin D status with childhood body composition and cardiovascular risk factors. *Matern Child Nutr* 2019;15(2):e12672.
23. Krishnaveni GV, Veena SR, Winder NR, Hill JC, Noonan K, Boucher BJ, et al. Maternal vitamin D status during pregnancy and body composition and cardiovascular risk markers in Indian children: the Mysore Parthenon Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2011;93(3):628–35.
24. Surendran P, Feofanova EV, Lahrouchi N, Ntalla I, Karthikeyan S, Cook J, et al. Discovery of rare variants associated with blood pressure regulation through meta-analysis of 1.3 million individuals. *Nat Genet* 2020;52(12):1314–32.
25. Ritz E, Amann K, Koleganova N, Benz K. Prenatal programming—effects on blood pressure and renal function. *Nat Rev Nephrol* 2011;7(3):137–44.
26. Nascimento FA, Ceciliano TC, Aguila MB, Mandarim-de-Lacerda CA. Maternal vitamin D deficiency delays glomerular maturity in F1 and F2 offspring. *PLoS One* 2012;7(8):e41740.
27. Maka N, Makrakis J, Parkington HC, Tare M, Morley R, Black MJ. Vitamin D deficiency during pregnancy and lactation stimulates nephrogenesis in rat offspring. *Pediatr Nephrol* 2008;23(1):55–61.
28. Meems LM, Mahmud H, Buikema H, Tost J, Michel S, Takens J, et al. Parental vitamin D deficiency during pregnancy is associated with increased blood pressure in offspring via Panx1 hypermethylation. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2016;311(6):H1459–69.
29. Yuan W, Pan W, Kong J, Zheng W, Szeto FL, Wong KE, et al. 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 suppresses renin gene transcription by blocking the activity of the cyclic AMP response element in the renin gene promoter. *J Biol Chem* 2007;282(41):29821–30.
30. Moritz KM, Dodic M, Wintour EM. Kidney development and the fetal programming of adult disease. *Bioessays* 2003;25(3):212–20.
31. Saraf R, Morton SM, Camargo CA Jr., Grant CC. Global summary of maternal and newborn vitamin D status—a systematic review. *Matern Child Nutr* 2016;12(4):647–68.
32. Holick MF. The vitamin D deficiency pandemic: approaches for diagnosis, treatment and prevention. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord* 2017;18(2):153–65.
33. Andersen LB, Abrahamsen B, Dalgard C, Kyhl HB, Beck-Nielsen SS, Frost-Nielsen M, et al. Parity and tanned white skin as novel predictors of vitamin D status in early pregnancy: a population-based cohort study. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 2013;79(3):333–41.
34. Lykkedegn S, Beck-Nielsen SS, Sorensen GL, Andersen LB, Fruekilde PBN, Nielsen J, et al. Vitamin D supplementation, cord 25-hydroxyvitamin D and birth weight: Findings from the Odense Child Cohort. *Clin Nutr* 2017;36(6):1621–7.
35. Kyhl HB, Jensen TK, Barington T, Buhl S, Norberg LA, Jørgensen JS, et al. The Odense Child Cohort: aims, design, and cohort profile. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 2015;29(3):250–8.
36. Sempos CT, Heijboer AC, Bikle DD, Bollerslev J, Bouillon R, Brannon PM, et al. Vitamin D assays and the definition of hypovitaminosis D: results from the First International Conference on Controversies in Vitamin D. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2018;84(10):2194–207.
37. Eşer I, Khorshid L, Güneş UY, Demir Y. The effect of different body positions on blood pressure. *J Clin Nurs* 2007;16(1):137–40.
38. Birukov A, Herse F, Nielsen JH, Kyhl HB, Golic M, Kräker K, et al. Blood pressure and angiogenic markers in pregnancy: contributors to pregnancy-induced hypertension and offspring cardiovascular risk. *Hypertension* 2020;76(3):901–9.
39. Fitzpatrick TB. The validity and practicality of sun-reactive skin types I through VI. *Arch Dermatol* 1988;124(6):869–71.
40. von Elm E, Altman DG, Egger M, Pocock SJ, Gøtzsche PC, Vandenbroucke JP. The Strengthening of Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. *J Clin Epidemiol* 2007;61(4):344–9.
41. Li YC, Kong J, Wei M, Chen ZF, Liu SQ, Cao LP. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D(3) is a negative endocrine regulator of the renin-angiotensin system. *J Clin Invest* 2002;110(2):229–238.
42. Zhou C, Lu F, Cao K, Xu D, Goltzman D, Miao D. Calcium-independent and 1,25(OH)2D3-dependent regulation of the renin-angiotensin system in alpha-hydroxylase knockout mice. *Kidney Int* 2008;74(2):170–9.
43. Sahoo SK, Katam KK, Das V, Agarwal A, Bhatia V. Maternal vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy and offspring outcomes: a

- double-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial. *J Bone Miner Metab* 2017;35(4):464–71.
44. Ojeda NB, Intapad S, Alexander BT. Sex differences in the developmental programming of hypertension. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* 2014;210(2):307–16.
  45. Dasinger JH, Alexander BT. Gender differences in developmental programming of cardiovascular diseases. *Clin Sci (Colch)* 2016;130(5):337–48.
  46. Johnson DD, Wagner CL, Hulsey TC, McNeil RB, Ebeling M, Hollis BW. Vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency is common during pregnancy. *Am J Perinatol* 2011;28(01):007–12.
  47. Moon RJ, Crozier SR, Dennison EM, Davies JH, Robinson SM, Inskip HM, et al. Tracking of 25-hydroxyvitamin D status during pregnancy: the importance of vitamin D supplementation. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2015;102(5):1081–7.
  48. Magnus MC, Stene LC, Håberg SE, Nafstad P, Stigum H, London SJ, et al. Prospective study of maternal mid-pregnancy 25-hydroxyvitamin D level and early childhood respiratory disorders. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 2013;27(6):532–41.
  49. Andersen LB, Abrahamsen B, Dalgård C, Kyhl HB, Beck-Nielsen SS, Frost-Nielsen M, et al. Parity and tanned white skin as novel predictors of vitamin D status in early pregnancy: a population-based cohort study. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 2013;79(3):333–41.
  50. Lurbe E, Agabiti-Rosei E, Cruickshank JK, Dominiczak A, Erdine S, Hirth A, et al. 2016 European Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. *J Hypertens* 2016;34(10):1887–920.
  51. Theodore RF, Broadbent J, Nagin D, Ambler A, Hogan S, Ramrakha S, et al. Childhood to early-midlife systolic blood pressure trajectories: early-life predictors, effect modifiers, and adult cardiovascular outcomes. *Hypertension* 2015;66(6):1108–15.
  52. Juhola J, Oikonen M, Magnussen CG, Mikkilä V, Siitonen N, Jokinen E, et al. Childhood physical, environmental, and genetic predictors of adult hypertension: the cardiovascular risk in young Finns study. *Circulation* 2012;126(4):402–9.
  53. Sun SS, Grave GD, Siervogel RM, Pickoff AA, Arslanian SS, Daniels SR. Systolic blood pressure in childhood predicts hypertension and metabolic syndrome later in life. *Pediatrics* 2007;119(2):237–46.