

RESEARCH

Open Access



Maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and the risk of infantile eczema during the first year of life: a cohort study in northeast China

Xuening Li^{1,2}, Zhe Xiao¹, Chenyang Li¹, Qi Chen¹ and Lihong Jia^{1,3*}

Abstract

Background There are few studies on the relationship between diet during pregnancy and infantile eczema and the conclusions are inconsistent. The aim of the present study was to explore the impact of dietary patterns during pregnancy on infantile eczema.

Methods A total of 495 mother–child pairs from a prospective cohort in Shenyang, China was recruited. Information on maternal dietary intake during pregnancy was assessed with a validated self-administered food frequency questionnaire. The data of infantile eczema was assessed using a structured questionnaire. Factor analysis to derive dietary patterns. The relationship between the dietary pattern and infantile eczema was examined by the logistic regression analysis.

Results The cumulative incidence of eczema in 6 months and 12 months in northeast China was 45.7% and 57.8%, respectively. Three dietary patterns were identified. There was a tendency for an expose-response relationship between the maternal high-protein dietary pattern during pregnancy and the risk of infantile eczema within 12 months (P for trend = 0.023): the adjusted odds ratio (95% confidence interval) in the Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 were 1.00 (reference), 1.63 (0.96–2.76), 1.81 (1.06–3.06), and 1.87 (1.09–3.20), respectively. No association between Western and plant-based patterns during pregnancy and infantile eczema within 12 months was found. Infantile eczema within 6 months was not associated with any of the three dietary patterns.

Conclusion The maternal high-protein pattern during pregnancy may be a risk factor for infantile eczema during the first year of life.

Keywords Dietary patterns, Factor analysis, Cohort, Eczema

Background

Eczema is one of the most frequent chronic inflammatory skin diseases, and 60% of the cases occur in children before the age of 2 [1, 2]. Because eczema is the first manifestation of atopic march, research on the etiology and mechanism of eczema is increasing in the past 20 years [3]. The pathogenesis of eczema is not well understood, but it is believed to be related to environmental and genetic factors. Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) hypothesis suggests that the prenatal period is key period for the development of the fetal

*Correspondence:

Lihong Jia
lhjia@cmu.edu.cn

¹ Department of Child and Adolescent Health, School of Public Health, China Medical University, Shenyang 110122, Liaoning, China

² Department of Pediatrics, The Fourth Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University, Shenyang 110032, Liaoning, China

³ Liaoning Key Laboratory of Obesity and Glucose/Lipid Associated Metabolic Diseases, Shenyang 110122, Liaoning, China



© The Author(s) 2023. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

immune function, and the influence of adverse factors during this period may lead to an increased risk of allergic diseases [4, 5].

Maternal diet during pregnancy can provide nutrients for the development of the fetus, and may affect the fetal immune responses [6]. Therefore, researchers have gradually paid attention to the relationship between diet during pregnancy and the development of childhood allergic diseases [7, 8]. Some studies have shown a significant relationship between fish, fruit and vegetables, polyunsaturated fatty acids, and dairy products consumed by pregnant women and risk of eczema and asthma in the offspring [9–12]. However, the traditional method in relation to a single food has some limitations, such as failure to elucidate the interactions between nutrients and detect some effects of single nutrients [13]. Because the diet includes a variety of foods and complex nutrients, dietary pattern analysis, which can simultaneously assess the effect of multiple food combinations and parallel more closely the actual situation, provides a perspective method [14]. Thus, interest has shifted to a greater emphasis on dietary patterns [15].

However, there are few studies on the association between maternal diet pattern and infantile eczema, and the conclusions are inconsistent. In a study in Spain and Greece, Mediterranean diet was not associated with the risk of infantile eczema [15]. Three other prospective cohort study in Japan, Singapore and UK also found no association between maternal dietary patterns and infantile eczema [16–18]. However, a plant-based diet during pregnancy is a protective factor for the development of infantile eczema in a cohort study in Canada [19]. A recent study in southern China found that the maternal dairy and eggs pattern and the plant pattern were associated with a lower risk of infantile eczema [8]. The

inconsistency of the above results suggests that it is necessary to investigate the influence of dietary pattern of pregnant women in different regions and ethnic groups on allergic diseases in infants. To our knowledge, there is no study on the relationship between maternal diet pattern and infantile eczema in northeast China.

Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to explore the impact of dietary patterns during pregnancy on infantile eczema in a population of northeast China.

Methods

Study population

The Shenyang Maternal and Child Health Study (SMCHS) was a prospective cohort study conducted in Shenyang, China. The purpose of the SMCHS was to investigate the effect of environmental exposure during pregnancy on allergic disorders in children. Details of the SMCHS have been published elsewhere [20]. Mother–child pairs were recruited from February 2019 to September 2020. Participants meeting the following criteria were included in the study: 1) the pregnant women were over 18 years old; 2) natural singleton conception. Participants were excluded if they meet the following criteria: 1) the pregnant women had intellectual disabilities; 2) the pregnant women suffered from acute and chronic infectious diseases, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases or tumors before pregnancy; 3) multiple pregnancy; 4) the newborns had birth defects; Finally, a total of 512 mother–child pairs agreed to participate in this study. Of the 512 participants, 495 mother-pairs were followed up at 6 and 12 months (Fig. 1). The SMCHS follows the rules of the Declaration of Helsinki on the ethical principles for medical research in human beings. An informed consent was obtained from all pregnant women who participated. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the

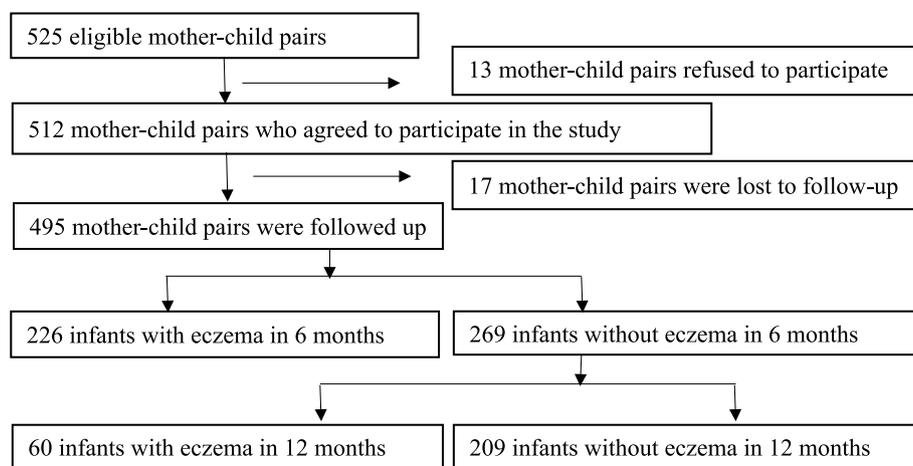


Fig. 1 Eligibility for and participation in the study

Fourth Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University (reference number: EC-2019-KS-027).

Data collection

Assessment of potential confounding factors

Each participant completed two self-administrated questionnaires (the pregnant woman basic information questionnaire and food frequency questionnaire during pregnancy) in third trimester. The pregnant woman basic information questionnaire included maternal age, maternal body mass index (BMI) before pregnancy, ethnicity, family income, maternal education, passive smoking, nutrient supplementation (if vitamin D, folic acid, docosahexaenoic acids or multivitamin/mineral supplementation of pregnancy is greater than 1 month), stressful life events during pregnancy (if fit any of the categories of loss of her job or her husband's job, mourning, separation and family financial crisis), number of children (excluding this fetus) and parental history of atopic eczema, allergic rhinitis, and/or asthma. Neonatal information such as baby's sex, delivery mode, gestational age, birth weight, birth season was obtained through birth records.

Assessment of dietary intake

Dietary information was collected using a food frequency questionnaire during pregnancy, which included: rice and wheat, whole grains, lean meat, animal liver, eggs, dairy products, bean products, sea products, vegetables, fruit, processed meat, canned products, grilled food, fried food, nuts, dessert, puffed food, beverage, and coffee. The frequency of intake includes: 1) never; 2) 1 time a month; 3) 1 time a week; 4) 2–3 times a week; 5) 4–5 times a week; 6) 1 time a day; 7) 2–3 times a day; 8) >3 times a day. Meanwhile, average food intake for each food item was also provided by pregnant women. The dietary intake assessment methods have been described in detail in another article [21].

Assessment of infantile eczema

At 6 and 12 months after birth, a structured questionnaire was used to investigate infantile eczema status by telephone follow-up of pediatricians. According to the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood questionnaire [22], eczema can be determined by affirmative answers to both two questions: 'Has your child had a recurring itchy skin rash in the past 6 months?', 'If yes, does this itchy rash affect any of the following areas: the fold of elbows, behind the knees, in front of the ankles, under the buttocks, or around the ears, neck, or eyes?'; or an affirmative answer to the single question 'Has your child ever had been diagnosed as eczema by a doctor?.'

Statistical analysis

Categorical variables were compared by χ^2 test and descriptive statistics are shown as n (%). The measurement data were expressed by mean \pm standard deviation and compared by independent *t*-test. We handled missing data using multiple imputation method.

In order to describe the dietary patterns of the pregnant women, factor analysis (principal component method) to derive dietary patterns based on the 19 food groups from the food frequency questionnaire during pregnancy was conducted. The obtained factors are from the Equimax rotation. The number of factors was determined based on the scree plot and interpretability. Finally, three identified patterns were found to be reasonable and meaningful. Food items with a factor loading less than -0.4 or >0.4 were considered to significantly contribute to the pattern [23]. The labeling of dietary patterns was based on the interpretation of foods with high factor loadings for each dietary pattern. The proportion of variance explained by each dietary pattern was determined by dividing the sum of the squares of the respective factor loadings by the number of variables. The factor scores were computed for each pattern and for pregnant women by summing the intake of each food items weighted by their factor loadings.

Factor scores for each dietary pattern were categorized at quartile points (Q1 represented the lowest quartile; Q4 represented the highest quartile). Potential confounding factors were evaluated using prior knowledge and descriptive statistics from this study through the use of directed acyclic graphs [24, 25]. Finally, confounding factors include maternal age, maternal BMI before pregnancy, ethnicity of pregnant women, maternal education, parental positive history of allergy, stressful life events during pregnancy, one or more older siblings and infant's sex (Figure S1). Logistic regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between quartiles of the dietary pattern scores and risk of infantile eczema. Multiple logistic regression analysis was employed to control for potential confounding factors. We conducted a sensitivity analysis by calculating the E-value [26]. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0 (IBM SPSS, Armonk, NY, USA). A two-sided $P < 0.05$ were considered significant.

Results

Figure 1 showed that 495 mother–child pairs were eventually included in the study. The cumulative incidence of eczema in 6 months and 12 months was 45.7% and 57.8%, respectively, among 495 infants.

In this study, univariate analysis showed that the factors affecting the occurrence of eczema within 6 months

include ethnicity of pregnant women, maternal BMI before pregnancy, parental positive history of allergy, infant birth season and one or more older siblings (all $P < 0.05$, Table 1). The factors affecting the occurrence of eczema within 12 months are ethnicity of pregnant women, maternal BMI before pregnancy, stressful life events during pregnancy, infant birth season, one or more older siblings and birth weight (all $P < 0.05$,

Table 1). We did not find that other factors had an effect on eczema within 6 months and 12 months (Table 1). In addition, vitamin D, folic acid, docosahexaenoic acids, and multivitamin/mineral supplementation during pregnancy did not have an effect on infantile eczema in this study (Table 1).

The factor-loading matrices of the three identified dietary patterns is shown in Table 2. The first pattern was

Table 1 Distribution of selected characteristics of 495 parent–child pairs^a

Variable		6 months		P	12 months		P
		Non-eczema	Eczema		Non-eczema	Eczema	
Maternal age (years)	≤ 25	32(11.9)	35(15.5)	0.230	26(12.4)	41(14.3)	0.480
	26–30	117(43.5)	106(46.9)		90(43.1)	133(46.5)	
	≥ 30	120(44.6)	85(37.6)		93(44.5)	112(39.2)	
Ethnicity of pregnant women	Han	236(87.7)	183(81.0)	0.038	186(89.0)	233(81.5)	0.022
	Others	33(12.3)	43(19.0)		23(11.0)	53(18.5)	
Maternal BMI before pregnancy (kg/m ²)	< 18.5	49(18.2)	26(11.5)	0.023	42(20.1)	33(11.5)	0.003
	18.5–24.0	169(62.8)	138(61.1)		132(63.2)	175(61.2)	
	> 24.0	51(19.0)	62(27.4)		35(16.7)	78(27.3)	
Family income per month (RMB)	< 5000	44(16.4)	33(14.6)	0.709	36(17.2)	41(14.3)	0.239
	5000–10000	210(78.1)	177(78.3)		164(78.5)	223(78.0)	
	> 10,000	15(5.6)	16(7.1)		9(4.3)	22(7.7)	
Maternal education	≤ High school	62(23.0)	58(25.7)	0.499	45(21.5)	75(26.2)	0.229
	College or higher	207(77.0)	168(74.3)		164(78.5)	211(73.8)	
Passive smoking during pregnancy	Yes	79(29.4)	66(29.2)	0.968	59(28.2)	86(30.1)	0.657
Stressful life events during pregnancy	Yes	29(10.8)	33(14.6)	0.201	19(9.1)	43(15.0)	0.048
Parental positive history of allergy	Yes	56(20.8)	70(31.0)	0.010	45(21.5)	81(28.3)	0.087
Vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy	Yes	191(71.0)	168(74.3)	0.408	146(69.9)	213(74.5)	0.255
Folic acid supplementation during pregnancy	Yes	237(88.1)	201(88.9)	0.772	181(86.6)	257(89.9)	0.262
Docosahexaenoic acids supplementation during pregnancy	Yes	103(38.3)	89(39.4)	0.804	73(34.9)	119(41.6)	0.132
Multivitamin/mineral supplementation during pregnancy	Yes	174(64.7)	142(62.8)	0.669	136(65.1)	180(62.9)	0.625
Cesarean	Yes	170(63.2)	138(61.1)	0.626	132(63.2)	176(61.5)	0.714
Infant birth season	Spring	91(33.8)	76(33.6)	0.015	69(33.0)	98(34.3)	0.015
	Summer	59(21.9)	40(17.7)		51(24.4)	48(16.8)	
	Autumn	57(21.2)	74(32.7)		42(20.1)	89(31.1)	
	Winter	62(23.0)	36(15.9)		47(22.5)	51(17.8)	
Characteristics at postnatal assessment							
One or more older siblings	Yes	77(28.6)	44(19.5)	0.018	61(29.2)	60(21.0)	0.036
Infant's sex	Male	130(48.3)	129(57.1)	0.052	106(50.7)	153(53.5)	0.541
Birth weight (kg)		3.31 ± 0.40	3.38 ± 0.40	0.063 ^b	3.30 ± 0.40	3.37 ± 0.41	0.040 ^b
Gestational age (weeks)		38.84 ± 1.11	38.80 ± 1.00	0.621 ^b	38.84 ± 1.17	38.81 ± 0.98	0.787 ^b
Feeding patterns within 4 months	Breast-feeding	136(50.6)	116(51.3)	0.880	102(48.8)	150(52.4)	0.541
	Formula-feeding	54(20.1)	48(21.2)		42(20.1)	60(21.0)	
	Mixed feeding	79(29.4)	62(27.4)		65(31.1)	76(26.6)	
Vitamin D supplementation for infants	Yes	205(76.2)	176(77.9)	0.661	159(76.1)	222(77.6)	0.687
Infant history of passive smoking	Yes	120(44.6)	100(44.2)	0.936	87(41.6)	133(46.5)	0.281

^a Data is presented as mean ± standard deviation or n (%)

^b Independent-samples t-test. otherwise, chi-square test

Table 2 Factor-loading matrix for major dietary patterns in 495 pregnant women^a

Food group	Western pattern	High-protein pattern	Plant-based pattern
Rice and wheat	0.095	-0.129	0.680
Whole grains	-0.058	0.537	-0.208
Lean meat	0.201	0.517	0.299
Animal liver	0.111	0.451	0.025
Eggs	-0.141	0.616	0.200
Dairy products	-0.083	0.519	0.353
Bean products	0.008	0.626	0.183
Sea products	0.089	0.646	-0.124
Vegetables	-0.107	0.225	0.667
Fruit	0.033	0.152	0.715
Processed meat	0.475	0.028	0.106
Canned products	0.541	0.133	-0.196
Grilled food	0.634	-0.006	-0.059
Fried food	0.645	0.111	0.008
Nuts	0.003	0.540	0.102
Dessert	0.585	0.048	0.248
Puffed food	0.680	-0.042	0.042
Beverage	0.731	-0.072	0.071
Coffee	0.255	-0.019	-0.053

^a Value less than -0.4 or > 0.4 are expressed in bold

described as “Western pattern” due to it displayed a high intake of beverage, puffed food, fried food, grilled food, dessert, processed meat and canned products. The second pattern represented high intake of whole grains, sea products, bean products, eggs, nuts, animal liver and lean meat and was labeled the “high-protein pattern”. The third pattern was characterized by high intake of fruit, rice and wheat, and vegetables and was labeled the “Plant-based pattern”. These dietary patterns accounted for 16.34%, 14.37%, and 8.19%, respectively, of the variance in food intake and together explained 38.90% of the variability.

Table 3 provides odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the risk of infantile eczema within 6 months and 12 months. In unadjusted logistic analysis, there was a tendency for an expose-response relationship between the high-protein dietary pattern and the risk of infantile eczema within 12 months, and the crude OR in the Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 were 1.00 (reference), 1.50 (95% CI: 0.91–2.49), 1.56 (95% CI: 0.94–2.58), and 1.61 (95% CI: 0.97–2.67). However, the relationship was strengthened after adjustment for the confounding factors: the adjusted OR in the Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 were 1.00 (reference), 1.63 (95% CI: 0.96–2.76), 1.81 (95% CI: 1.06–3.06), and 1.87 (95% CI: 1.09–3.20), respectively, and the linear trend was statistically significant (P for trend = 0.023). No association between Western and plant-based patterns

Table 3 Odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for eczema in 495 infants by quartiles of maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy

Variable	6 months			12 months			E-value
	No. cases	Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI) ^a	No. cases	Crude OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI) ^a	
Western pattern							
Q1 (n = 123)	54	1.00	1.00	66	1.00	1.00	-
Q2 (n = 124)	63	1.32(0.80–2.18)	1.35(0.81–2.26)	80	1.57(0.94–2.62)	1.66(0.98–2.79)	-
Q3 (n = 124)	49	0.84(0.50–1.39)	0.77(0.45–1.30)	72	1.20(0.72–1.98)	1.18(0.70–1.99)	-
Q4 (n = 124)	60	1.20(0.73–1.98)	1.19(0.71–2.00)	68	1.05(0.64–1.73)	1.10(0.65–1.84)	-
P for trend		0.915	0.980		0.879	0.941	
High-protein pattern							
Q1 (n = 123)	51	1.00	1.00	61	1.00	1.00	-
Q2 (n = 124)	62	1.16(0.70–1.92)	1.18(0.69–2.00)	81	1.50(0.91–2.49)	1.63(0.96–2.76)	-
Q3 (n = 124)	52	1.24(0.75–2.05)	1.35(0.80–2.28)	68	1.56(0.94–2.58)	1.81(1.06–3.06)	3.021
Q4 (n = 124)	61	1.37(0.83–2.26)	1.46(0.86–2.49)	76	1.61(0.97–2.67)	1.87(1.09–3.20)	3.145
P for trend		0.216	0.140		0.072	0.023	
Plant-based pattern							
Q1 (n = 123)	62	1.00	1.00	80	1.00	1.00	-
Q2 (n = 124)	50	0.67(0.40–1.10)	0.62(0.37–1.05)	64	0.57(0.34–0.96)	0.56(0.33–0.95)	-
Q3 (n = 124)	58	0.87(0.53–1.43)	0.83(0.49–1.38)	73	0.77(0.46–1.29)	0.77(0.45–1.30)	-
Q4 (n = 124)	56	0.81(0.49–1.34)	0.78(0.46–1.31)	69	0.67(0.40–1.13)	0.68(0.40–1.15)	-
P for trend		0.646	0.578		0.295	0.329	

^a Adjustment for maternal age, maternal BMI before pregnancy, ethnicity of pregnant women, maternal education, parental positive history of allergy, stressful life events during pregnancy, one or more older siblings and infant’s sex

during pregnancy and infantile eczema within 12 months was found. In addition, infantile eczema within 6 months was not associated with any of the three dietary patterns. By calculating the E-value, our results were further confirmed to be meaningful (Table 3).

Discussion

The current prospective study suggests that the cumulative incidence of infantile eczema in 6 months and 12 months in northeast China was 45.7% and 57.8%, respectively. The maternal high-protein pattern during pregnancy may be a risk factor for infantile eczema during the first year of life.

The prevalence of allergic diseases is increasing worldwide [27]. Eczema is one of the most common chronic diseases and plays a special role in the development of other allergic diseases [28]. Recent research showed that the prevalence of eczema in children aged 1–7 years in China was 12.94%, which is similar to the prevalence of eczema in children in Asian countries and slightly lower than that in European countries [29, 30]. In a cohort study in Guangzhou, China, the cumulative incidence of infantile eczema at 6 months of age was 51.19% [8], which was slightly higher than our study (45.7%). However, our results were higher than those of a study conducted in U.K. [31], which had a cumulative incidence of 32.0% and 49.0% at 6 months and 18 months, respectively. The differences in the results of the above studies may be related to social, biogenic, nutrition, and anthropogenic environmental factors [28].

Two studies in Japan (health pattern, western pattern and Japanese pattern) and Singapore (Seafood and Noodle pattern; Vegetable, Fruit and white Rice pattern; Pasta, Cheese and Processed meat) found no link between dietary patterns during pregnancy and infantile eczema [16, 17]. Similarly, cohort studies in Spain and Greece did not find an association between Mediterranean diet (rich in carbohydrates, fiber and antioxidants, low in saturated fatty acid, and high content of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid and monounsaturated fatty acid) during pregnancy and eczema in the first year of life [15, 32]. However, some studies have shown a clear link between dietary patterns during pregnancy and infantile eczema. A plant-based diet assessed at 24–28 weeks of gestation was associated with a lowered odd of infantile eczema at 1 year in a cohort study in Canada ($OR=0.65$, 95% CI : 0.56–0.75) [19]. A prospective cohort study conducted in Guangzhou, a city in the south of China, showed that the plant pattern and the dairy and eggs pattern during pregnancy (assessed at 20–28 weeks of gestation) were associated with a reduced risk of infantile eczema at 6 months [8]. The inconsistency of the above results may be related to the time of dietary assessment, region, and ethnic group [15, 19].

In our study, we found that the maternal high-protein pattern during pregnancy may be a risk factor for

infantile eczema during the first year of life in northeast China. However, eczema within 6 months was not associated with any of the three dietary patterns. We speculate that it may be that infants in 6 months have less outdoor activities and complementary foods have not been added, so there is less exposure to allergens, and some infants do not have eczema. In addition, changes in a child's immune system during the first year of life may also play a role in the negative results [33]. A previous study showed that higher maternal consumption of green and yellow vegetables and citrus fruit during pregnancy may be protective against the development of eczema in the offspring [10], and the protective relationship might to be attributed to β -carotene. Our study also found that plant-based pattern had a protective effect against infantile eczema, although it did not reach statistical significance.

It is important for pregnant women to consume the moderate amount of protein during different pregnancies to ensure the normal growth and development of the fetus [8, 34]. However, excessive protein intake during pregnancy may increase the risk of allergic diseases in offspring in later [35–38]. It has been reported that a high-protein diet can activate the mTOR signaling pathway [35]. Activation of mTOR signaling pathway can down-regulate the expression of Foxp3 protein and further affect the division and proliferation of regulatory T cells (Treg), which play an important role in the regulation of immunity [36]. Patients with allergic diseases usually have lower Treg in their blood [38]. Some studies showed that milk products, peanut or tree nut, consumed during pregnancy may reduce the risk of food allergies in offspring [39, 40]. The results of the above studies are inconsistent with or contrary to the conclusions of our study, which may be caused by the inconsistency of the time of food survey (which represents the diet at different stages of pregnancy).

The formative period of fetal immune system development is mainly in the first trimester [41]. Therefore, early forms and functions of many cells involved in allergy are formed during the first trimester of pregnancy [42, 43]. Maternal dietary antigens could cross the placenta and influence Th cell differentiation [44]. Early exposure to food allergens through maternal diet could lead to tolerance rather than sensitization during this critical period of immune system formation [41]. Thus, the timing of dietary assessment during pregnancy may partly explain the difference in findings from previous studies. Our study only examined the diet in the third trimester. Therefore, we will conduct a dietary survey on pregnant women in the first, second and third trimester respectively in future study, so as to clarify the influence of dietary conditions in different stages of pregnancy on infantile eczema. Although our

study suggests that high-protein dietary patterns during pregnancy can increase the risk of infantile eczema within 12 months, because evidence supporting the protective role of eliminating common protein allergens from maternal diet is lacking and the restricted diet during pregnancy may adversely affect maternal or fetal nutrition [45], both European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology and American Academy of Pediatrics advise a normal diet without restriction for allergenic foods for mothers who are pregnant or breastfeeding [37].

There are some shortcomings that should be considered in this study. Firstly, this study is a single-center study. Thus, the mother–child pairs in this study were likely not representative of the general population in Shenyang, China. Secondly, we measured maternal dietary intake using a food frequency questionnaire, which might lead to recall bias [46]. However, reliability and validity of food frequency questionnaire among pregnant women have been validated to be good overall [47]. In addition, some factors, such as morning sickness, may cause changes in the diet of pregnant women [48], which may also lead to information bias. Thirdly, the diagnosis of eczema was based on the structured questionnaire in this study. In addition to the diagnosis of eczema by doctors, the diagnosis of eczema in some infants was based on the reports of parents. However, self-reported questionnaire may over-report infants with eczema [49]. Nevertheless, the diagnostic method of eczema used in our study was based on the International Study of Asthma and Allergies in Childhood questionnaire, which has been widely used [30, 50]. Therefore, our results are comparable with the results of most previous studies. Fourthly, we did not assess the relationship between maternal diet pattern and infantile eczema in 6–12 months. The main reason is that fewer infants develop eczema 6–12 months, and the statistical results are not reliable. However, the number of mother–child pairs in SMCHS is still increasing, and we will conduct statistical analysis on this part in the future. Finally, although we evaluated a large number of confounders, the result of this study still needs to be interpreted with caution because there are so many factors affecting infantile eczema and we cannot rule out the role of unmeasured confounders.

Conclusions

We observed that maternal high-protein pattern during pregnancy may be a risk factor for infantile eczema during the first year of life in this cohort study. These findings can provide clues for the prevention of infantile eczema.

Abbreviations

BMI	Body mass index
CI	Confidence intervals
DOHaD	Developmental Origins of Health and Disease
OR	Odds ratios
SMCHS	Shenyang Maternal and Child Health Study

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-023-16577-9>.

Additional file 1: Figure S1. Directed acyclic graph for the association between dietary patterns during pregnancy and infantile eczema.

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

LX and JL designed the research study. LX, XZ, LC, and CQ performed the research. LX, XZ, LC, CQ and JL analyzed and interpreted the data. LX and JL prepared the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the Funds of National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant numbers 82073575, 81673190).

Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Fourth Affiliated Hospital of China Medical University (reference number: EC-2019-KS-027). An informed consent was obtained from all pregnant women who participated. All procedures were performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 24 February 2023 Accepted: 21 August 2023

Published online: 28 August 2023

References

- Lee KS, Rha YH, Oh IH, Choi YS, Kim YE, Choi SH. Does breast-feeding relate to development of atopic dermatitis in young Korean children? Based on the fourth and fifth Korea national health and nutrition examination survey 2007–2012. *Allergy Asthma Immunol Res.* 2017;9(4):307–13.
- McAleer MA, Flohr C, Irvine AD. Management of difficult and severe eczema in childhood. *BMJ.* 2012;345: e4770.
- Dharmage SC, Lowe AJ, Matheson MC, Burgess JA, Allen KJ, Abramson MJ. Atopic dermatitis and the atopic march revisited. *Allergy.* 2014;69(1):17–27.
- Grieger JA, Clifton VL, Tuck AR, Wooldridge AL, Robertson SA, Gatford KL. In utero programming of allergic susceptibility. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2016;169(2):80–92.
- Khan TK, Palmer DJ, Prescott SL. In-utero exposures and the evolving epidemiology of paediatric allergy. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2015;15(5):402–8.

6. West CE, D'Vaz N, Prescott SL. Dietary immunomodulatory factors in the development of immune tolerance. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep.* 2011;11(4):325–33.
7. Devereux G. Early life events in asthma-diet. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2007;42(8):663–73.
8. Zeng J, Wu W, Tang N, Chen Y, Jing J, Cai L. Maternal dietary protein patterns during pregnancy and the risk of infant eczema: A cohort study. *Front Nutr.* 2021;8: 608972.
9. Romieu I, Torrent M, Garcia-Esteban R, Ferrer C, Ribas-Fitó N, Antó JM, et al. Maternal fish intake during pregnancy and atopy and asthma in infancy. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2007;37(4):518–25.
10. Miyake Y, Sasaki S, Tanaka K, Hirota Y. Consumption of vegetables, fruit, and antioxidants during pregnancy and wheeze and eczema in infants. *Allergy.* 2010;65(6):758–65.
11. Saito K, Yokoyama T, Miyake Y, Sasaki S, Tanaka K, Ohya Y, et al. Maternal meat and fat consumption during pregnancy and suspected atopic eczema in Japanese infants aged 3–4 months: the Osaka Maternal and Child Health Study. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol.* 2010;21(1 Pt 1):38–46.
12. Miyake Y, Sasaki S, Tanaka K, Hirota Y. Dairy food, calcium and vitamin D intake in pregnancy, and wheeze and eczema in infants. *Eur Respir J.* 2010;35(6):1228–34.
13. Newby PK, Tucker KL. Empirically derived eating patterns using factor or cluster analysis: a review. *Nutr Rev.* 2004;62(5):177–203.
14. Hu FB. Dietary pattern analysis: a new direction in nutritional epidemiology. *Curr Opin Lipidol.* 2002;13(1):3–9.
15. Chatzi L, Garcia R, Roumeliotaki T, Basterrechea M, Begiristain H, Iñiguez C, et al. Mediterranean diet adherence during pregnancy and risk of wheeze and eczema in the first year of life: INMA (Spain) and RHEA (Greece) mother-child cohort studies. *Br J Nutr.* 2013;110(11):2058–68.
16. Miyake Y, Okubo H, Sasaki S, Tanaka K, Hirota Y. Maternal dietary patterns during pregnancy and risk of wheeze and eczema in Japanese infants aged 16–24 months: the Osaka Maternal and Child Health Study. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol.* 2011;22(7):734–41.
17. Loo EXL, Ong L, Goh A, Chia AR, Teoh OH, Colega MT, 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.
18. Shaheen SO, Northstone K, Newson RB, Emmett PM, Sherriff A, Henderson AJ. Dietary patterns in pregnancy and respiratory and atopic outcomes in childhood. *Thorax.* 2009;64(5):411–7.
19. Zulyniak MA, de Souza RJ, Shaikh M, Ramasundarahettige C, Tam K, Williams N, et al. Ethnic differences in maternal diet in pregnancy and infant eczema. *PLoS One.* 2020;15(5): e0232170.
20. Li XN, Wu D, Liu Y, Zhang SS, Tian FL, Sun Q, et al. Prenatal exposure to bisphenols, immune responses in cord blood and infantile eczema: A nested prospective cohort study in China. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf.* 2021;228: 112987.
21. Li XN, Jia LH, Cao X, Zhang SS, Pu Rui, Cheng XJ, et al. Association of prenatal factors and cord blood lead levels in China: A nested cohort cross-sectional study. *J Trace Elem Med Biol.* 2021; 67, 126783.
22. Asher MI, Keil U, Anderson HR, Beasley R, Crane J, Martinez F, et al. International study of asthma and allergies in childhood (ISAAC): rationale and methods. *Eur Respir J.* 1995;8(3):483–91.
23. Shu L, Shen XM, Li C, Zhang XY, Zheng PF. Dietary patterns are associated with type 2 diabetes mellitus among middle-aged adults in Zhejiang Province, China. *Nutr J.* 2017;16(1):81.
24. Williamson EJ, Aitken Z, Lawrie J, Dharmage SC, Burgess JA, Forbes AB. Introduction to causal diagrams for confounder selection. *Respirology.* 2014;19(3):303–11.
25. Adeyeye TE, Yeung EH, McLain AC, Lin S, Lawrence DA, Bell EM. Wheeze and food allergies in children born via cesarean delivery: The upstate KIDS study. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2019;188(2):355–62.
26. VanderWeele TJ, Ding P. Sensitivity Analysis in Observational Research: Introducing the E-Value. *Ann Intern Med.* 2017;167(4):268–74.
27. Aw M, Penn J, Gauvreau GM, Lima H, Sehmi R. Atopic march: collegium internationale allergologicum update 2020. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol.* 2020;181(1):1–10.
28. Luschkova D, Zeiser K, Ludwig A, Traidl-Hoffmann C. Atopic eczema is an environmental disease. *Allergol Select.* 2021;5:244–50.
29. Guo Y, Li P, Tang J, Han X, Zou X, Xu G, et al. Prevalence of atopic dermatitis in Chinese children aged 1–7 ys. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6:29751.
30. Silverberg JI, Barbarot S, Gadkari A, Simpson EL, Weidinger S, Mina-Osorio P, et al. Atopic dermatitis in the pediatric population: A cross-sectional, international epidemiologic study. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol.* 2021;126(4):417–28.e2.
31. Wadonda-Kabondo N, Sterne JA, Golding J, Kennedy CT, Archer CB, Dunnill MG, et al. A prospective study of the prevalence and incidence of atopic dermatitis in children aged 0–42 months. *Br J Dermatol.* 2003;149(5):1023–8.
32. Trichopoulou A, Lagiou P. Healthy traditional Mediterranean diet: an expression of culture, history, and lifestyle. *Nutr Rev.* 1997;55(11 Pt 1):383–9.
33. Tkachenko SK, Bulienko LF, Golovko IM, Alferova MP. Characteristics of the development of immunity in healthy children during the first year of life. *Pediatrriia.* 1989;9:14–7.
34. Mousa A, Naqash A, Lim S. Macronutrient and micronutrient intake during pregnancy: An overview of recent evidence. *Nutrients.* 2019;11(2):443.
35. Zhang X, Sergin I, Evans TD, Jeong SJ, Rodriguez-Velez A, Kapoor D, et al. High-protein diets increase cardiovascular risk by activating macrophage mTOR to suppress mitophagy. *Nat Metab.* 2020;2(1):110–25.
36. Chapman NM, Chi H. mTOR signaling, Tregs and immune modulation. *Immunotherapy.* 2014;6(12):1295–311.
37. Kang CM, Chiang BL, Wang LC. Maternal nutritional status and development of atopic dermatitis in their offspring. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol.* 2021;61(2):128–55.
38. Zhao ST, Wang CZ. Regulatory T cells and asthma. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci B.* 2018;19(9):663–73.
39. Tuokkola J, Luukkainen P, Tapanainen H, Kaila M, Vaarala O, Kenward MG, et al. Maternal diet during pregnancy and lactation and cow's milk allergy in offspring. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2016;70(5):554–9.
40. Frazier AL, Camargo CA Jr, Malspeis S, Willett WC, Young MC. 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.
41. Bunyavanich S, Rifas-Shiman SL, Platts-Mills TA, Workman L, Sordillo JE, Camargo CA Jr, 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.
42. Rackaityte E, Halkias J. Mechanisms of fetal T cell tolerance and immune regulation. *Front Immunol.* 2020;11:588.
43. Dorshkind K, Montecino-Rodriguez E. Fetal B-cell lymphopoiesis and the emergence of B-1-cell potential. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2007;7(3):213–9.
44. Loibichler C, Pichler J, Gerstmayr M, Bohle B, Kist H, Urbanek R, et al. Materno-fetal passage of nutritive and inhalant allergens across placentas of term and pre-term deliveries perfused in vitro. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2002;32(11):1546–51.
45. Kramer MS, Kakuma R. Maternal dietary antigen avoidance during pregnancy or lactation, or both, for preventing or treating atopic disease in the child. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012; 2012(9):CD000133.
46. Venter C, Higgins B, Grundy J, Clayton CB, Gant C, Dean T. Reliability and validity of a maternal food frequency questionnaire designed to estimate consumption of common food allergens. *J Hum Nutr Diet.* 2006;19(2):129–38.
47. Willett W. *Nutritional epidemiology.* 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 1990.
48. Watson PE, McDonald BW. Major influences on nutrient intake in pregnant New Zealand women. *Matern Child Health J.* 2009;13(5):695–706.
49. Pols DH, Wartna JB, Moed H, van Alphen EI, Bohnen AM, Bindels PJ. Atopic dermatitis, asthma and allergic rhinitis in general practice and the open population: a systematic review. *Scand J Prim Health Care.* 2016;34(2):143–50.
50. Lee SL, Lau YL, Wong WH, Tian LW. Childhood wheeze, allergic rhinitis, and eczema in Hong Kong ISAAC Study from 1995 to 2015. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2022;19(24):16503.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.