

## ACCEPTED VERSION

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### **DHA supplementation during pregnancy does not reduce BMI or body fat mass in children: follow-up of the DHA to Optimize Mother Infant Outcome randomized controlled trial**

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**As per email received from on 18 May 2017:**

Carolyn,

Please accept my apologies for the delayed reply. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* permits authors to post the accepted manuscript version on an institutional repository provided that an embargo of 12 months is stipulated for public access to the manuscript.

Sincerely,

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1 **DHA supplementation during pregnancy does not reduce BMI or body fat mass**  
2 **in children: follow-up of the DOMInO randomized controlled trial**

3

4

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32

33 **Conflicts of interest:** MM serves on scientific advisory boards for Nestle and

34 Fonterra and RAG serves on scientific advisory boards for Fonterra and Ferrero.

35 BSM has given lectures on maternal nutrition for Aspen Nutrition and Danone

36 Nutricia. Associated honoraria for MM, RAG and BSM are paid their institutions to

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38 early career researchers. LT serves on the Science Advisory Committees of the

39 California Walnut Commission and the McCormicks Science Institute.

40 RM, AM and LNY have no conflicts to declare.

41

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61

62 **Running Title:** Prenatal DHA and childhood growth

63

64 **Abbreviations:**

65 BMI: Body Mass Index

66 BIS: Bioelectrical Impedance

67 DHA: Docosahexaenoic acid

68 DOMInO Trial: DHA to Optimize Mother Infant Outcomes Trial

69 LCPUFA: Long Chain Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid

70 RCT: Randomized Controlled Trial

71 SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism

72

73 **Trial Registration:** Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry:

74 [www.anzctr.org.au](http://www.anzctr.org.au) ACTRN1260500056906 &ACTRN12611001127998

75

76

77 **Abstract**

78 **Background:** The omega-3 long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid, docosahexaenoic  
79 acid (DHA), has proven effective at reducing fat storage in animal studies. However,  
80 a systematic review of human trials found a lack of quality data to support or refute  
81 this hypothesis.

82 **Objective:** To determine whether maternal DHA supplementation during the last half  
83 of pregnancy results in a lower body mass index (BMI) and percentage body fat mass  
84 (%BF) of children.

85 **Design:** A follow-up of children at 3 and 5 years of age born to mothers enrolled in  
86 the DOMInO (DHA to Optimize Mother Infant Outcome) double-blind randomized  
87 controlled trial, in which women with a singleton pregnancy were provided with  
88 DHA-rich fish oil capsules (providing 800 mg DHA/d) or vegetable oil capsules  
89 (control group) in the second half of pregnancy. Primary outcomes were BMI z-score  
90 and %BF at 3 and 5 years of age. Potential interactions between prenatal DHA and  
91 PPAR $\gamma$  genotype, as a measure of genetic predisposition to obesity, were investigated.

92 **Results:** 1614 children were eligible for the follow-up and 1531 (95%) consented and  
93 are included in the analysis. BMI z-scores and %BF of children in the DHA group did  
94 not differ from children in the control group at either 3 years (BMI z-score, adjusted  
95 mean difference 0.03, 95% CI -0.07 to 0.13, p=0.61; %BF, adjusted mean difference -  
96 0.26, 95% CI -0.99 to 0.46, p=0.47) or 5 years (BMI z-score, adjusted mean  
97 difference 0.02, 95% CI -0.08 to 0.12, p=0.66; %BF, adjusted mean difference 0.11,  
98 95% confidence interval -0.60 to 0.82, p=0.75). No treatment effects were modified  
99 by the PPAR $\gamma$  genotype of the child.

100 **Conclusions:** Maternal intake of DHA-rich fish oil during pregnancy does not affect  
101 the growth or body composition of children at 3 or 5 years, independent of genetic  
102 predisposition to obesity.

### 103 **Introduction**

104 The prevalence of overweight and obesity has reached epidemic proportions in many  
105 Western countries, and there is an urgent need for effective intervention strategies.  
106 Compelling epidemiological and experimental animal data has indicated that  
107 overweight and obesity have early life origins, and that exposure to an inappropriate  
108 balance of nutrients during fetal life and/or in early infancy can permanently alter the  
109 properties of fat cells and predispose an individual to fatness (1,2). This has led to  
110 suggestions that nutritional interventions during the perinatal period are likely to be  
111 more effective than those later in life in producing lifelong reductions in body fat  
112 mass and improvements to metabolic health (3).

113

114 In this context, there has been growing interest in an increased supply of omega-3 (n-  
115 3) long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFA) during the perinatal period as a  
116 potential means to limit fat deposition and improve metabolic health outcomes in  
117 children (4,5). This is based on results from studies conducted *in vitro* and in adult  
118 humans and rodents which have demonstrated that the n-3 LCPUFA, in particular  
119 docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), inhibit the hyperplastic and hypertrophic expansion of  
120 fat depots and improve insulin sensitivity (6-11).

121

122 Despite these apparent benefits of n-3 LCPUFA, clinical studies designed to evaluate  
123 the effect of maternal DHA supplementation on body fat mass in children have  
124 produced mixed results (12). However, these studies have had a number of  
125 methodological limitations, including high rates of attrition, lack of statistical power  
126 and absence of appropriately sensitive measures of body composition (12). In  
127 addition, the potential impact of a genetic predisposition to obesity/type 2 diabetes on

128 the relationship between metabolic outcomes and maternal DHA supplementation has  
129 not yet been investigated.

130

131 We here report on the follow-up of children of Adelaide mothers who participated in  
132 the DOMInO (DHA to Optimize Mother Infant Outcome) trial (13) at 3 and 5 years of  
133 age. The primary objective of this study was to determine the effect of increased  
134 prenatal DHA on body mass index (BMI) z-score and percentage body fat (%BF) in  
135 children. A secondary objective was to determine whether the effects of maternal  
136 DHA supplementation on these outcomes were dependent on the child's genotype for  
137 the Pro/Ala single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the PPAR $\gamma$  gene, which has  
138 been strongly associated with genetic predisposition to obesity and type 2  
139 diabetes(14).

140

## 141 **Subjects and Methods**

### 142 *Study design*

143 This study involved a follow-up of children born to mothers enrolled in a registered,  
144 multi-center, double-blind, RCT called the DOMInO trial (ACTRN12605000569606,  
145 3 and 5 year follow-up: ACTRN12611001127998). The DOMInO trial methods have  
146 been published previously (13). Briefly, women with singleton pregnancies <21  
147 weeks' gestation were randomized to the treatment or control group using a computer  
148 driven service, stratified by center and parity. Women allocated to the treatment group  
149 received three 500 mg capsules per day of DHA-rich fish oil (~800 mg/d DHA and  
150 100 mg/d eicosapentaenoic acid; Incromea 500 TG, Croda Chemicals, East  
151 Yorkshire, England) and women in the control group received three 500 mg vegetable  
152 oil capsules (without DHA) per day. Women were asked to take the capsules from



153 study entry until birth. The eligible children (n=1614, 97%) for the 3 and 5 year  
154 follow-up were born to all 1660 women enrolled in Adelaide centers (Flinders  
155 Medical Centre or Women's and Children's Hospital) and had not withdrawn from  
156 the study or died. All procedures were conducted in accordance with the study  
157 protocol and approved by the local institutional boards of each center. Written  
158 informed consent was obtained from the guardian of each child.

159

#### 160 *Outcome Assessments*

161 Anthropometric assessments, BMI z-score and %BF, were conducted at the hospital  
162 study centers between 25 March 2009 and 4 October 2013. Assessments were  
163 administered by trained research staff blinded to treatment group allocation.

164

#### 165 *Anthropometric assessments*

166 Body weight was measured without shoes and in underwear to the nearest 100g using  
167 electronic scales. Height without shoes was measured using a stadiometer. Waist-,  
168 head- and hip-circumferences were measured using a non-stretch tape. All measures  
169 were recorded in duplicate, or triplicate if the first 2 measures differed by >0.1kg  
170 (weight) or >0.5cm (height/girths), and averaged for analysis. Weight and height  
171 measurements were used to calculate BMI (weight in kg/height in metres<sup>2</sup>). The  
172 measures for each child were compared with standardized reference charts for the  
173 child's age and sex to calculate their z-scores (15,16). Corrected ages were used for  
174 children born preterm (<37 weeks' gestation). The number of children classified as  
175 underweight (BMI<10<sup>th</sup> percentile), overweight (BMI>85<sup>th</sup> percentile) and obese  
176 (BMI> 90<sup>th</sup> percentile) was determined at each age.

177

178 Total fat and fat-free mass were assessed using Bioelectrical Impedance Spectroscopy  
179 (BIS) (17). Fat-free mass was derived from the measure of total body water using an  
180 equation previously validated for use in paediatric populations (18,19). %BF was then  
181 determined by subtracting the fat-free mass from the body weight, dividing by body  
182 weight and multiplying by 100.

183

184 Systolic, diastolic and mean arterial blood pressure at 5 years of age were assessed in  
185 duplicate using a DINAMAP Procare V100 monitor (GE Health Care) with an  
186 appropriate sized cuff.

187

#### 188 *Blood sample collection and processing*

189 Children were instructed to fast for at least 4 hours prior to their 5 year clinic  
190 appointment and blood samples (~5ml) were collected into tubes treated with EDTA,  
191 kept on ice until transfer to the laboratory and processed (centrifugation at 1,500 x g  
192 for 30 minutes at 4°C) within 24 hours. The plasma and buffy coat fractions were  
193 separated into aliquots and frozen at -80°C, and the red blood cells washed in sterile  
194 saline, lipids extracted into chloroform and used to assess fatty acid composition of  
195 the phospholipids as previously described (20).

196

#### 197 *Determination of insulin sensitivity*

198 Glucose and insulin concentrations in the 5 year plasma samples were determined  
199 using an enzymatic assay (Thermo Electron, Pittsburgh, PA) and human  
200 ultrasensitive insulin ELISA kit (ALPCO Diagnostics, Salem, NH) respectively. The  
201 intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation for both assays were <10%. The fasting  
202 glucose and insulin measures were used to calculate the HOMA-IR index for each  
203 child according to the equation  $[\text{glucose (mmol/l)} \times \text{insulin (mU/l)}] / 22.5$ .

204 *PPAR $\gamma$  genotyping*

205 DNA was extracted from 200 $\mu$ l of the 5 year buffy coat samples using the Qiagen  
206 DNA extraction kit (Qiagen Pty Ltd, Doncaster, Australia). PPAR $\gamma$  genotyping of  
207 each child was undertaken by the Australian Genome Facility (AGRF) using TaqMan  
208 technology (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).

209

210 *Other measures*

211 In the DOMInO trial, maternal weight, height and BMI, parity, education and  
212 smoking status were collected at enrolment. Weight and height of the biological  
213 mother of the child were re-measured by clinic staff at the time of the 5 year  
214 assessments. Questions on home environment, education and employment of the  
215 primary carer and whether the participant had requested to be unblinded were also re-  
216 asked at the time of the 3 and 5 year assessments.

217

218 At both the 3 and 5 year follow-up, detailed information on care outside the home and  
219 general health of the child was collected at the clinic appointment. Information on  
220 feeding practices in the first 6-12 months, family food environment and the child's  
221 habitual dietary intake, physical activity and screen time was collected using a  
222 structured questionnaire completed by the primary carer.

223

224 *Sample size and statistical analysis*

225 Follow-up of the 1660 children born to women enrolled in Adelaide-based centers  
226 would provide over 90% power to detect a 3% relative reduction in the mean BMI  
227 (16kg/m<sup>2</sup> to 15.52kg/m<sup>2</sup>, standard deviation 1.6kg/m<sup>2</sup>), and a 2% absolute reduction in  
228 the mean %BF (25% to 23% at 3 years and 21% to 19% at 5 years, standard deviation  
229 5%), in boys and girls separately, allowing for 10% loss to follow-up (alpha=0.05).

230 All analyses were performed on an intention-to-treat basis, according to the treatment  
231 group allocated at randomization. Multiple imputation was performed separately by  
232 treatment group using chained equations to create 100 complete datasets for analysis,  
233 assuming that data were missing at random. The effect estimates from the imputed  
234 datasets were combined using Rubin's rules (21). The primary analysis was based on  
235 imputed data and included all participants who consented to the follow-up study.  
236 Sensitivity analyses were performed on the available data and on imputed data for all  
237 1660 children born to women enrolled in Adelaide-based centers. All analyses  
238 produced similar results and only the results of the primary analysis are presented.  
239  
240 Continuous outcomes were analyzed using linear regression models, with treatment  
241 effects expressed as differences in means. For continuous outcomes that were log  
242 transformed prior to analysis, treatment effects are expressed as ratios of geometric  
243 means on the original scale. Binary outcomes were analyzed using log binomial  
244 regression models, with treatment effects expressed as relative risks (RRs). For  
245 outcomes measured at both 3 and 5 years, the repeated measurements were taken into  
246 account using generalized estimating equations, with treatment effects estimated at  
247 each time point separately. *A priori* secondary analyses were performed to test for  
248 effect measure modification by sex and PPAR $\gamma$  genotype.  
249  
250 Both unadjusted and adjusted analyses were performed, with adjustment for the  
251 stratification variables, center and parity, as well as pre-specified variables  
252 depending on the outcome that included the child's sex and PPAR $\gamma$  genotype and the  
253 mother's secondary education, further education, smoking status and BMI at  
254 enrolment. Statistical significance was assessed at the 2-sided  $P < 0.05$  level. No

255 adjustment was made for multiple comparisons and results of secondary analyses  
256 should be interpreted with caution unless highly significant.

257

258 Post-randomization child demographics and clinical characteristics were compared  
259 between treatment groups based on the available data using chi-square tests for  
260 categorical variables, Mann-Whitney U tests for continuous variables and log Poisson  
261 regression for count variables. All analyses followed a pre-specified statistical  
262 analysis plan and were performed using SAS version 9.3 (Cary, NC, USA).

263

## 264 **Results**

### 265 *Participant flow and baseline characteristics*

266 Participant flow is shown in **Figure 1**. A total of 1531 families consented to the 3 and  
267 5 year follow-up (92.2% of the 1660 originally enrolled in Adelaide centers and  
268 94.9% of the 1614 invited to participate). BMI z-scores and %BF were determined for  
269 1468/1531 (95.9%) and 1269/1531 (82.9%) children respectively at 3 years and  
270 1352/1531 (88.3%) and 1120/1531 (73.2%) children respectively at 5 years. The  
271 amount of missing data requiring imputation was similar between the treatment  
272 groups.

273

274 The sociodemographic characteristics of the families in the subset consenting to  
275 follow-up were comparable between the treatment groups at baseline (**Table 1**) and at  
276 3 and 5 years (**Supplementary Table 1**). The distribution of PPAR $\gamma$  genotypes in the  
277 children was similar between groups (**Table 1**).

278

### 279 *BMI z-score and %BF*

280 The BMI z-scores of children in the DHA group did not differ from the control group  
281 at either 3 years (**Table 2**; adjusted mean difference 0.03, 95% CI -0.07 to 0.13,  
282 P=.61) or 5 years (**Table 2**; adjusted mean difference 0.02, 95% CI -0.08 to 0.12,  
283 P=.66). The %BF was also not different between children in the DHA and control  
284 groups at either 3 or 5 years (**Table 2**, 3 years, adjusted mean difference -0.26, 95%  
285 CI -0.99 to 0.46, P=.47; 5 years, adjusted mean difference 0.11, 95% CI -0.60 to  
286 0.82, P=.75). There were no significant interactions between treatment group and  
287 either sex or PPAR $\gamma$  genotype in relation to BMI z-score or %BF at 3 or 5 years of  
288 age (data not shown). There was no difference in the proportion of children classified  
289 as overweight or obese between the treatment groups at either 3 or 5 years (**Table 2**).

290

#### 291 *Other anthropometric outcomes*

292 Bodyweight and height z-scores were similar between groups, as was the average  
293 weight gain between 3 and 5 years of age (**Table 2**). Hip and waist circumferences  
294 and waist circumference z-scores were also not different between the treatment  
295 groups at either 3 or 5 years (**Table 2**). The waist:hip ratio was slightly higher in the  
296 DHA group compared to the control group at 3 years (adjusted mean difference, 0.00,  
297 95% CI 0.00 to 0.01, P=.04), but was not different between groups at 5 years (P=.43).  
298 Total and percentage fat-free mass, total body water and the impedance index was not  
299 different between groups at either 3 or 5 years (**Table 2**). Head circumference, head  
300 circumference z-score and the change in head circumference between 3 and 5 years  
301 were also similar between groups (**Table 2**).

302

303

#### 304 *Insulin sensitivity at 5 years of age*

305 In both adjusted and unadjusted analyses, insulin resistance at 5 years of age, as  
306 assessed by HOMA-IR, was higher in children in the DHA group compared to  
307 controls (**Table 3**; adjusted ratio of geometric means, 1.20, 95% CI 1.04 to 1.39,  
308  $P=.01$ ). Fasting insulin levels were also higher in the DHA group (adjusted ratio of  
309 geometric means, 1.17, 95% CI 1.03 to 1.33,  $P=.02$ ). There was an interaction  
310 between treatment group and sex for fasting glucose concentrations ( $P=.03$ ), such that  
311 boys in the DHA group had higher fasting glucose concentrations than boys in the  
312 control group (adjusted mean difference 0.21, 95% CI 0.01 to 0.42,  $P=.04$ ), however  
313 there were no differences between groups in girls. Similar effects were observed  
314 for both fasting insulin concentrations and HOMA-IR. Boys in the DHA group had  
315 significantly higher mean HOMA-IR (adjusted ratio of geometric means 1.35, 95% CI  
316 1.11 to 1.65,  $P=.003$ ) and fasting insulin levels (adjusted ratio of geometric means  
317 1.26, 95% CI 1.05 to 1.51,  $P=.01$ ) compared with the control group, while no  
318 differences were seen for girls, however, the interactions between treatment and  
319 sex were not significant for HOMA-IR ( $P=.13$ ) or fasting insulin ( $P=.28$ ). All  
320 results were independent of the PPAR $\gamma$  genotype of the child.

321

### 322 *Other post-randomization variables*

323 More families from the control group had requested to be un-blinded compared with  
324 the DHA group at both the 3 and 5 year time-points, but these represented <10% of  
325 the cohort. Maternal and paternal BMI at baseline and at the time of the 3 and 5 year  
326 follow-up was also similar between groups (**Supplementary Table 1**).

327

328 There were no significant differences between groups in frequency of hospitalizations  
329 or diagnosis of any medical conditions between birth and 5 years (**Supplementary**

330 **Table 2)** or habitual dietary intake, family food environment or reported levels of  
331 physical activity or screen time at either 3 or 5 years (**Supplementary Table 3**).  
332 Systolic, diastolic and mean arterial blood pressure and fatty acid composition of red  
333 blood cell phospholipids at 5 years of age were also similar between groups  
334 (**Supplementary Table 4**).

335

### 336 **Discussion**

337 The results of this study do not support the hypothesis that increasing maternal DHA  
338 intake by 800mg/day during the second half of pregnancy can influence body weight,  
339 BMI z-score or body fat mass of the children either positively or negatively. We  
340 have many reasons to have a high degree of confidence in our findings. The DOMInO  
341 trial is the largest RCT of DHA supplementation during pregnancy, and has high  
342 retention and long-term follow-up rates of the children. It is also the first study to  
343 include two measures of obesity/body fat mass, i.e. BIS and BMI z-score, at two ages  
344 and to investigate the potential impact of child genotype on their response to the  
345 prenatal DHA intervention.

346

347 The percentage of DOMInO children classified as overweight or obese, >30% at 3  
348 years and >25% at 5 years, is similar to figures reported in previous studies of pre-  
349 school children in South Australia by us (22) and others (23), indicating that this  
350 study population is representative of the general Australian pediatric population. Our  
351 new data confirm that the percentage of overweight and obese children in Australia  
352 remains high at 5 years of age, despite the fact that this is considered to be a period of  
353 increased physical activity and lower BMI/fat mass which precedes the adiposity  
354 rebound (24).



355

356 Our study suggests a possible negative effect of prenatal DHA supplementation on  
357 waist:hip ratio and insulin sensitivity. An increased waist circumference has  
358 previously been reported in children at 2.5 years whose mothers were supplemented  
359 with DHA during lactation (5). While ours is the first study to determine the effect of  
360 prenatal DHA supplementation on insulin sensitivity, our findings are unexpected  
361 given existing data from *in vitro* and experimental animal studies suggesting that  
362 DHA increases insulin sensitivity (25,26). While it is possible that the observed  
363 differences in insulin sensitivity and waist:hip ratio may indicate a true underlying  
364 adverse effect of DHA supplementation, these were secondary outcomes and as such  
365 require confirmation. It is also important to note that the differences between groups  
366 were small and that the measures in both groups fell within the normal range.

367

368 The PPAR $\gamma$  Pro12Ala SNP is present in ~20% of Caucasian populations and has been  
369 consistently associated with a reduced risk of obesity and type 2 diabetes in  
370 epidemiological studies (14,27). While there were no significant interactions between  
371 PPAR $\gamma$  genotype and treatment in our study, we were likely underpowered to detect  
372 such interaction effects, and further studies will be needed to explore possible  
373 interactions.

374

375 In light of the fact that ~70% of pregnant women in Adelaide are now consuming  
376 nutritional supplements which provide at least some DHA, it is encouraging that this  
377 long-term follow-up of the DOMInO trial showed no detrimental effects of maternal  
378 DHA supplementation on childhood growth or body composition. These data,  
379 together with the absence of significant effects on development in this same study

380 population at 4 years(28), support the safety of high-dose DHA supplements in  
381 pregnancy for the long term health of the child.

382

### 383 *Conclusion*

384 The results of this follow-up study provide no evidence to support the hypothesis that  
385 increasing maternal DHA intake during the second half of pregnancy influences body  
386 weight, BMI or body fat mass of the children, at least up to 5 years of age. We cannot  
387 extend our conclusion to suggest that maternal DHA intake does not influence later  
388 fat deposition in the child, however, it seems that any effects on growth are likely  
389 small, and are far outweighed by the influence of other factors, such as genetics and  
390 environment, experienced by the child after birth. This trial therefore provides the  
391 most robust data to date that maternal DHA supplementation during pregnancy is not  
392 an effective strategy by which to reduce the population burden of childhood obesity.

393

394

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403 in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the  
404 data analysis.

405

406 **Original DOMInO trial Steering Committee:** Maria Makrides (chair); Robert A

407 Gibson (deputy chair), Andrew J McPhee, Lisa N Yelland, Julie Quinlivan, Philip

408 Ryan.

409

410 **Author Contributions:** BSM, RG, MM, AM, LT and RM designed the research;

411 BSM and MM conducted research; LY performed the statistical analysis; BM, RG

412 and MM wrote the paper; BSM had primary responsibility for final content. All

413 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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**TABLE 1. Baseline Characteristics by Treatment Group**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>DHA Supplement n=770</b>	<b>Control Supplement n=761</b>
Maternal data collected at enrolment		
Primiparous, n (%)	319 (41.4)	321 (42.2)
Mother completed secondary education, n(%)	485 (63.0)	495 (65.0)
Mother completed further education, n (%) <sup>a</sup>	515 (66.9)	533 (70.0)
Non-smoker before and during early pregnancy, n(%)	556 (72.2)	512 (67.3)
Maternal BMI, median (IQR)	26.2 (23.5- 30.1)	26.3 (23.2- 30.5)
Infant pre-randomization characteristics		
Infant female sex, n(%)	384 (49.9)	382 (50.2)
PPAR $\gamma$ Pro12Ala genotype, n(%) <sup>b</sup>		
Pro/Pro	260 (77.6)	245 (77.3)
Pro/Ala	66 (19.7)	66 (20.8)
Ala/Ala	9 (2.7)	6 (1.9)

<sup>a</sup> Degree, diploma, certificate, trade

<sup>b</sup> Numbers do not add up to total in each group due to missing data. Percentages calculated based on participants with available data.



TABLE 2 . Primary and Secondary Anthropometric Outcomes at 3 and 5 years of age

	DHA Supplement n=770	Control Supplement n=761	Unadjusted Effect (95% CI)	P Value	Adjusted <sup>b</sup> Effect (95% CI)	P Value
<b>3-years</b>						
BMI z-score	0.72 (0.97)	0.70 (1.06)	0.02 (-0.08,0.12)	0.73	0.03 (-0.07,0.13)	0.61
Percent Body Fat <sup>c</sup>	24.54 (7.07)	24.87 (6.69)	-0.32 (-1.08,0.43)	0.40	-0.26 (-0.99,0.46)	0.47
Body Weight (kg)	15.40 (2.02)	15.34 (2.01)	0.07 (-0.14,0.27)	0.53	0.08 (-0.12,0.27)	0.43
Body Weight z-score	0.51 (0.97)	0.48 (0.95)	0.04 (-0.06,0.13)	0.43	0.04 (-0.05,0.14)	0.38
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	16.52 (1.41)	16.51 (1.54)	0.01 (-0.14,0.16)	0.92	0.02 (-0.13,0.16)	0.81
BMI >85 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	256 (33.2%)	287 (37.7%)	0.88 (0.77,1.01)	0.07	0.89 (0.78,1.02)	0.10
BMI >90 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	195 (25.4%)	216 (28.4%)	0.89 (0.76,1.06)	0.19	0.91 (0.77,1.07)	0.26
BMI <10 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	11 (1.4%)	21 (2.8%)	0.51 (0.24,1.07)	0.07	0.51 (0.24,1.07)	0.07
Total Fat Mass (kg)	3.79 (1.26)	3.84 (1.25)	-0.05 (-0.18, 0.09)	0.48	-0.03 (-0.17, 0.10)	0.62
Total Fat-Free Mass (kg)	11.61 (1.76)	11.50 (1.68)	0.11 (-0.07, 0.20)	0.24	0.11 (-0.06, 0.27)	0.20
Percent Fat-Free Mass <sup>c</sup>	75.43 (7.03)	75.13 (6.64)	0.30 (-0.44, 1.05)	0.43	0.24 (-0.47, 0.95)	0.51
Total Body Water (kg)	8.68 (1.25)	8.59 (1.19)	0.09 (-0.04,0.22)	0.20	0.09 (-0.04, 0.21)	0.17
Impedance Index	13.00 (2.02)	12.88 (1.91)	0.12 (-0.08,0.33)	0.23	0.12 (-0.07,0.32)	0.22
Height (cm)	96.43 (4.21)	96.27 (4.04)	0.16 (-0.26,0.57)	0.45	0.16 (-0.23,0.55)	0.41
Height z-score <sup>c</sup>	0.03 (1.04)	-0.01 (0.97)	0.05 (-0.05,0.15)	0.36	0.05 (-0.06,0.15)	0.38
Head Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	50.04 (1.57)	50.06 (1.55)	-0.02 (-0.17, 0.14)	0.84	-0.02 (-0.16, 0.13)	0.81
Head Circumference z-score	0.69 (1.02)	0.69 (1.00)	0.00 (-0.11,0.10)	0.96	0.00 (-0.11,0.10)	0.96
Waist Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	50.73 (3.53)	50.50 (3.48)	0.23 (-0.12,0.59)	0.20	0.25 (-0.10,0.60)	0.17
Waist Circumference z-score	0.47 (0.88)	0.40 (0.91)	0.07 (-0.02,0.16)	0.11	0.08 (-0.01,0.17)	0.09
Hip Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	53.65 (3.54)	53.66 (3.67)	-0.01 (-0.38,0.35)	0.95	0.03 (-0.33,0.39)	0.87
Waist:Hip ratio <sup>c</sup>	0.95 (0.05)	0.94 (0.04)	0.00 (0.00,0.01)	0.04	0.00 (0.00,0.01)	0.04
<b>5-years</b>						
BMI z-score	0.56 (0.97)	0.54 (1.03)	0.01 (-0.09,0.12)	0.78	0.02 (-0.08,0.12)	0.66
Percent Body Fat <sup>c</sup>	23.46 (6.82)	23.42 (6.59)	0.05 (-0.72,0.81)	0.91	0.11 (-0.60,0.82)	0.75
Body Weight (kg)	19.95 (3.00)	19.87 (3.07)	0.09 (-0.22,0.39)	0.58	0.06 (-0.23,0.36)	0.68
Body Weight z-score	0.45 (0.98)	0.42 (0.97)	0.03 (-0.06,0.13)	0.49	0.04 (-0.06,0.14)	0.43
Body weight increase 3-5 years (kg)	4.51 (1.60)	4.47 (1.71)	0.04 (-0.13,0.22)	0.65	0.02 (-0.15,0.18)	0.85
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	16.19 (1.61)	16.20 (1.73)	-0.01 (-0.18,0.16)	0.90	0.00 (-0.17, 0.17)	0.99
BMI >85 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	221 (28.7%)	223 (29.4%)	0.98 (0.83,1.15)	0.78	0.99 (0.84,1.16)	0.90
BMI >90 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	165 (21/5%)	168 (22.1%)	0.97 (0.80,1.19)	0.78	0.99 (0.81,1.20)	0.91
BMI <10 <sup>th</sup> percentile <sup>a</sup>	13 (1.7%)	19 (2.5%)	0.66 (0.31,1.40)	0.28	0.66 (0.31,1.40)	0.28

Total Fat Mass (kg)	4.75 (1.78)	4.74 (1.85)	0.01 (-0.18, 0.20)	0.92	0.02 (-0.17, 0.20)	0.86
Total Fat-Free Mass (kg) <sup>c</sup>	15.25 (2.36)	15.15 (2.22)	0.11 (-0.14, 0.35)	0.40	0.08 (-0.15, 0.32)	0.48
Percent Fat-Free Mass <sup>c</sup>	76.52 (6.80)	76.61 (6.52)	-0.09 (-0.84, 0.67)	0.82	-0.15 (-0.85, 0.55)	0.67
Total Body Water (kg)	11.32 (1.67)	11.24 (1.58)	0.08 (-0.10, 0.26)	0.39	0.06 (-0.11, 0.24)	0.48
Impedance Index	16.98 (2.67)	16.88 (2.50)	0.10 (-0.17, 0.38)	0.45	0.08 (-0.19, 0.34)	0.56
Height (cm)	110.82 (5.06)	110.58 (4.93)	0.24 (-0.27, 0.75)	0.35	0.16 (-0.32, 0.65)	0.51
Height z-score	0.12 (1.03)	0.08 (0.98)	0.04 (-0.06, 0.14)	0.46	0.04 (-0.07, 0.14)	0.48
Height increase between 3 and 5 years (cm)	14.36 (2.66)	14.28 (2.75)	0.07 (-0.22, 0.37)	0.61	-0.02 (-0.26, 0.22)	0.86
Head Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	51.35 (1.53)	51.33 (1.56)	0.02 (-0.14, 0.18)	0.80	0.01 (-0.14, 0.16)	0.86
Head Circumference z-score	0.66 (0.98)	0.64 (0.98)	0.02 (-0.09, 0.13)	0.71	0.02 (-0.09, 0.13)	0.71
Head Circumference increase between 3 and 5 years (cm)	1.30 (0.86)	1.25 (0.91)	0.04 (-0.06, 0.14)	0.40	0.03 (-0.07, 0.13)	0.53
Waist Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	53.69 (3.88)	53.57 (4.24)	0.11 (-0.31, 0.54)	0.60	0.10 (-0.31, 0.51)	0.62
Waist Circumference z-score	0.24 (0.74)	0.20 (0.79)	0.04 (-0.04, 0.12)	0.34	0.04 (-0.04, 0.12)	0.29
Hip Circumference (cm) <sup>c</sup>	59.34 (4.16)	59.31 (4.55)	0.03 (-0.41, 0.47)	0.90	0.04 (-0.40, 0.48)	0.87
Waist:Hip ratio <sup>c</sup>	0.91 (0.04)	0.90 (0.04)	0.00 (0.00, 0.01)	0.47	0.00 (0.00, 0.01)	0.43
BMI z-score	0.72 (0.97)	0.70 (1.06)	0.02 (-0.08, 0.12)	0.73	0.03 (-0.07, 0.13)	0.61

Data are presented as mean (SD) with effect being difference in means unless otherwise indicated. Analyses are based on 100 imputed datasets.

<sup>a</sup>Data are presented as number (percentage) with effect being relative risk.

<sup>b</sup>Adjusted for center, parity, maternal BMI at study entry, mother's secondary education, mother's further education, mother's smoking status, PPAR $\gamma$  genotype.

<sup>c</sup> Also adjusted for infant sex and actual age of child at assessment.

**TABLE 3. Secondary Outcomes Related to Insulin Sensitivity at 5 years of age**

	<b>DHA Supplement n=770</b>	<b>Control Supplement n=761</b>	<b>Unadjusted Effect (95% CI)</b>	<b>P Value</b>	<b>Adjusted<sup>b</sup> Effect (95% CI)</b>	<b>P Value</b>
HOMA-IR <sup>a</sup>	0.80 (0.43-1.71)	0.68 (0.38-1.31)	1.20 (1.04, 1.39)	0.01	1.20 (1.04, 1.39)	0.01
Fasting Glucose	4.07 (1.08)	4.02 (1.02)	0.05 (-0.11, 0.20)	0.56	0.05 (-0.11, 0.20)	0.56
Fasting Insulin <sup>a</sup>	4.63 (2.68-9.20)	4.01 (2.38-7.25)	1.17 (1.03, 1.32)	0.02	1.17 (1.03, 1.33)	0.02
Boys						
HOMA-IR <sup>a</sup>	0.86 (0.44-1.88)	0.62 (0.35-1.21)	1.35 (1.11, 1.65)	0.003	1.35 (1.11, 1.65)	0.003
Fasting Glucose	4.26 (1.07)	4.03 (1.00)	0.22 (0.02, 0.43)	0.03	0.21 (0.01, 0.42)	0.04
Fasting Insulin <sup>a</sup>	4.75 (2.70-9.63)	3.63 (2.22-6.81)	1.25 (1.04, 1.50)	0.02	1.26 (1.05, 1.51)	0.01
Girls						
HOMA-IR <sup>a</sup>	0.75 (0.43-1.58)	0.74 (0.41-1.41)	1.07 (0.86, 1.33)	0.55	1.07 (0.86, 1.33)	0.52
Fasting Glucose	3.87 (1.04)	4.01 (1.04)	-0.14 (-0.36, 0.09)	0.24	-0.12 (-0.35, 0.11)	0.29
Fasting Insulin <sup>a</sup>	4.55 (2.66-8.90)	4.40 (2.56-7.72)	1.09 (0.90, 1.31)	0.37	1.09 (0.90, 1.31)	0.37

Data are presented as mean (SD) with effect being difference in means unless otherwise indicated. Analyses are based on 100 imputed datasets.

<sup>a</sup> Data are presented as median (IQR) with effect being ratio of geometric means.

<sup>b</sup> Adjusted for center, parity, maternal BMI at study entry, infant sex, mother's secondary education, mother's further education, mother's smoking status, PPAR $\gamma$  genotype.