

Maternal origin of children-onset asthma: evidence from observational study and instrumental variable analysis

Siyi Jin

Xuzhou Medical University

Yuxuan Wu

Xuzhou Medical University

Shuo Zhang

Xuzhou Medical University

Tongyu Gao

Xuzhou Medical University

Ying Liu

Xuzhou Medical University

Zeng Ping (✉ zpstat@xzhmu.edu.cn)

Xuzhou Medical University

Ting Wang

Xuzhou Medical University

Research Article

Keywords: Children-onset asthma, birthweight, maternal/fetal-specific genetic effect, intrauterine environment, pleiotropy analysis, genetic risk score based Mendelian randomization

Posted Date: February 20th, 2023

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-2550421/v1>

License: © ⓘ This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

Abstract

Background

An inverse association was observed between birthweight and children-onset asthma (COA), the origin of the connection however remains elusive. Instrumental variable causal inference analysis can be used to reveal the origin of such association but requires resolving the mixed genetic effect of birthweight into fetal/maternal-specific components.

Methods

We first performed a meta-analysis to study the relation between birthweight and COA using updated literature published from 2014 to 2020. Using maternal-specific instruments of birthweight, we next performed a genetic risk score (GRS) based Mendelian randomization (MR) to estimate the causal effect of low birthweight on COA in mother-offspring pairs ($n=3,634$) and father-offspring pairs ($n=1,334$) of the UK Biobank. Two sensitivity analyses of MR were applied to assess the robustness of our causal inference and another method called iMAP was conducted to offer complementary result regarding the direction of referred causality.

Results

The updated meta-analysis indicated individuals born with lower birthweight would be more vulnerable to asthma in childhood. The GRS-based MR analysis demonstrated a significantly negative maternal impact of birthweight on COA ($\beta=-0.162$, $P=0.037$) after adjusting for offspring's genetic effect in mother-offspring pairs, but failed to repeat this relation in father-offspring pairs. Our sensitivity analyses showed such inverse association was robust against horizontal pleiotropy of used instruments ($\beta=-0.169$, $P=0.030$) and was not likely affected by preterm birth ($\beta=-0.165$, $P=0.035$). The iMAP result also provided additional evidence supporting the causal influence of low birthweight on COA.

Conclusions

This study provides supportive evidence for the maternal origin of COA and helps guide early prevention for COA via improving intrauterine environments during pregnancy.

Implications And Contribution

By performing a genetic risk score based Mendelian randomization analysis, we estimated the causal effect of birthweight on children-onset asthma (COA) in parent-offspring pairs of the UK Biobank cohort using maternal-specific instruments of birthweight. We discovered substantial evidence for the causal relationship between birthweight and COA in mother-offspring pairs, supporting the maternal origin of COA. From a methodological perspective, our work offered a successfully empirical example to infer the causal association between an intrauterine environmental exposure and an offspring outcome by examining the association between maternal genotypes related to offspring birthweight and offspring outcome while conditioning on offspring genotype at the same set of genetic variant instruments.

Background

Asthma is one of the most common chronic pediatric diseases characterized by chronic airway inflammation associated with airway hyperresponsiveness; it affects one in three children during the first three years of life, and happens more often on younger children (Nurmagambetov, et al., 2018). The last thirty years have witnessed a stunningly elevated incidence of children-onset asthma (COA) in most developed countries, with the prevalence of severe COA increasing up to 5% in asthma patients, although not each of these children remain this disease in later age. COA imposes a great economic burden on global society continuously in its wake (Fitzmaurice, et al., 2019); therefore, it is critical to understand the etiology, inducement, and development of COA for early prevention.

Besides familial history (Litonjua, et al., 1998) and genetic foundation (Ferreira, et al., 2019), epidemiological studies have discovered that both allergic and non-allergic triggers contribute to the development of asthma. However, established risk factors cannot completely explain the occurrence pattern of COA. As another appealing interpretation of disease risk, the causal role of perinatal intrauterine environments in COA has garnered widespread interest. Due to the difficulty of prospectively measuring in-utero exposures accurately, birthweight is widely used as a surrogate variable for early life development in practice and has long been hypothesized to exert a lasting influence on individual's predisposition to the risk of many diseases in later life including asthma – a more generalized hypothesis referred to as the developmental origins of health and disease (DOHaD) or the Barker hypothesis of adult diseases (Duijts, 2012).

According to a systematic review of eighteen studies covering from 1966 to 2013 (Mu, et al., 2014), there was an increase of 34% (95% confidence intervals (CIs) 13–60%) in COA risk for individuals with lower birthweight compared to normal ones; this finding was further supported by other studies (Mebrahtu, et al., 2015; Xu, et al., 2014). Nevertheless, it is currently hard to make a conclusive causality between adverse intrauterine environments (approximated by low birthweight) and the risk of COA under the DOHaD framework because birthweight is a special exposure proxy genetically affected by both maternal and fetal genomes and represents a combined outcome of maternal and fetal factors (Warrington, et al., 2019).

Genetic analysis with birthweight-relevant instrumental variable causal inference offers an efficient solution for this challenging problem, but it requires first resolving the mixed genetic effect of birthweight into fetal-specific and maternal-specific components, which is the key to elucidate the origin of observed association between birthweight and COA (Fig. 1). In terms of the interpretations given in this figure and the core of DOHaD, the maternal-specific component

can be employed to characterize the causal relation between birthweight and COA (Moen, et al., 2020; Zhang, et al., 2022). Maternal/fetal-specific summary statistics of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) on birthweight were recently released (Warrington, et al., 2019), providing us an unprecedented opportunity to assess the intrauterine effect by elaborating the maternal contribution of birthweight to COA.

We first performed a meta-analysis to study the relation between birthweight and COA using updated literature published from 2014 to 2020. To evaluate the causal role of birthweight in COA using maternal-specific birthweight instruments, we next analyzed parent-offspring pairs ($n = 4,968$) of the UK Biobank cohort (Bycroft, et al., 2018) and conducted a genetic risk score (GRS) analysis (D'Urso, et al., 2021; Moen, et al., 2020; Tyrrell, et al., 2016) under the Mendelian randomization (MR) framework. As a complementary approach to the GRS-based MR, another method called iMAP (Zeng, et al., 2018) was carried out to assess the direction of causality between maternal-specific birthweight and COA.

Materials And Methods

Updated literature for meta-analysis

Literature searching strategy

We first performed a literature retrieval mainly on PubMed from January 2014 to December 2020 for searching articles on the relationship between birthweight (and related factors including premature birth and fetal development) and COA. We made no restriction on study designs and considered both cohort and population-based studies, but limited articles in English. With the guideline of PRISMA (Moher, et al., 2009), we applied the following search command: ("birthweight" or "BW" or "low birthweight" or "LBW" or "premature birth" or "infant-low birthweight" or "birthweight" or "Birthweight" or "Birthweight" or "fetal growth retardation" or "intrauterine growth restriction" or "intrauterine growth retardation" or "fetal development" or "small for gestational age") and ("asthma" or "Asthma" or "wheezing" or "Respiratory Illness") not ("animal") ("2014/01/01" [Date - Publication]: "2020/12/30" [Date - Publication]).

Exclusion criteria, data extraction and meta-analysis

A total of 644 articles (633 articles by searching and additional 11 articles by references scanning) were originally obtained (Fig. 2). The exclusion criteria for articles filtering included: (i) the title and abstract did not contain any information on birthweight and/or asthma; (ii) insufficient results were available on birthweight and asthma; (iii) duplicated studies on the same topic; (iv) review, letter-to-editor, response, or commentary articles; (v) articles were about clinical drug trials for asthma; and (vi) articles were already incorporated in previous systematic reviews; (vii) birthweight was discretized with the same threshold in these articles. Finally, a total of 12 studies (15 association results) published after 2014 were included.

For each included study, we extracted some key information such as total sample size, criteria for low birthweight, study population as well as effect (odds ratio (OR) or risk ratio (RR)) and its 95% confidence intervals (CIs). Then, we reserved the studies which adopted the most common standards for low birthweight and applied a weighted meta-analysis method to estimate the combined effect of birthweight on COA. We used the Cochran's Q test to examine the effect heterogeneity among incorporated studies (Thompson and Sharp, 1999).

Genetic Risk Score Based Instrumental Variable Causal Inference

Parent-offspring pairs in the UK Biobank cohort

We applied the parent-offspring UK Biobank data (Bycroft, et al., 2018) to perform the GRS analysis for examining the causal influence of birthweight (as a proxy of intrauterine environment exposures) on COA while accounting for confounding effect of offspring's genetic background (Moen, et al., 2020). To obtain parent-offspring pairs in the UK Biobank cohort, we calculated the kinship coefficient for all participants in the UK Biobank via the KING software and identified 4,968 independent parent-offspring pairs of European ancestry, including 1,334 father-offspring pairs and 3,634 mother-offspring pairs. To be consistent with the analyses above, we defined COA cases in terms of the diagnosis age (< 19 years old) (Ferreira, et al., 2019) for any offspring suffering from asthma diagnosed by doctor, and obtained 314 and 96 COA cases in mother-offspring pairs and father-offspring pairs, respectively.

Birthweight-related instrumental variable selection

When constructing GRS (i.e., g_1 and g_2) we selected SNPs with maternal-only effects ($r^2 < 0.1$ and $P < 6.6 \times 10^{-9}$) (Warrington, et al., 2019) serving as instrumental variables for birthweight in terms of confidence intervals around the maternal/fetal-specific effects estimated with structural equation model (Warrington, et al., 2018). The fetal-specific SNP effect was calculated conditioning on mother's genotypes and the maternal-specific SNP effect was calculated conditioning on offspring's genotypes, with 297,356 European individuals with their own birthweight and 210,248 European individuals with offspring birthweight. The selected instruments included 15 SNPs with directionally-opposing maternal and fetal effects, 26 SNPs with directionally-concordant maternal and fetal effects, and 31 SNPs with maternal-only effects (Warrington, et al., 2019; Zhang, et al., 2022).

Logistic model for GRS of parent-offspring pairs

Four directed acyclic graphs, which illustrates how maternal genotypes influence offspring birthweight and COA, are shown in Fig. 3. Based on the illustration, to assess the causal association of low birthweight on COA, we built a logistic model for mother-offspring pairs

$$\text{logit}(\pi) = \mathbf{X}\alpha + g_1\beta + g_2\theta$$

where $\pi = E(y)$ with y an indicator variable of COA, \mathbf{X} indicated the design matrix of covariates with α the effect vector, $g_1 = \sum_j^J G_{1j}$ and $g_2 = \sum_j^J G_{2j}$ indicated maternal or offspring's GRS, where G_{1j} and G_{2j} were the genotypes of maternal-specific SNP instruments associated with birthweight (Warrington, et al., 2019), with β and θ the corresponding effects. Analogous to (Moen, et al., 2020), we constructed an unweighted GRS by adding the expected number of increasing-birthweight alleles together.

We primarily incorporated sex of offspring as the covariate as well as an intercept term, and standardized both g_1 and g_2 . Our objective was to examine $H_0: \beta = 0$ to assess whether there was evidence supporting the maternal-specific birthweight effect on COA after conditioning on fetal genotypes. The similar logistic analysis using the same set of SNP instruments with only maternal-specific impact was conducted in father-offspring pairs to assess whether there was evidence for the postnatal environmental effect (genetic nurture or dynastic effects) on COA through birthweight while adjusting for fetal genotypes (Moen, et al., 2020).

Sensitivity analysis of the GRS-based MR

As shown in prior literature (D'Urso, et al., 2021; Moen, et al., 2020), the GRS-based MR could provide important implication regarding causality as long as the three critical modeling assumptions (i.e., the relevance assumption, the independence assumption, and the exclusion restriction assumption) are satisfied. Particularly, to protect against horizontal pleiotropy of instruments required by the exclusion restriction assumption, in terms of the GWAS Catalog (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas>) we excluded several birthweight SNP instruments which were associated with some important COA-related risk factors (e.g., body mass index and smoking). The remaining instruments were used to construct the GRS and then the same analysis was implemented.

Gestational duration is highly correlated with birthweight, and should be considered when analyzing birthweight. However, the information of gestational duration was unavailable from the UK Biobank cohort. To examine the impact of likely premature birth (Warrington, et al., 2019), we performed another sensitivity analysis focusing only on parent-offspring pairs in which offspring had a normal measurement of birthweight (< 2.5kg and > 4.5kg).

Causal Direction By The Imap Analysis

To complement the GRS-based MR, we carried out another analysis called iMAP (Zeng, et al., 2018) with the hope of yielding additional evidence with regards to the causal relation between low birthweight and COA. Compared to existing methods such as GPA (Chung, et al., 2014) and GWAS-pw (Pickrell, et al., 2016), iMAP has the advantage of accounting for un-independence due to phenotypic correlation or sample overlap. Briefly, iMAP estimates the probability of SNPs related to one phenotype that is also associated with the other. By calculating such probability, iMAP has the potential to offer suggestion for directional causality between birthweight and COA.

Analogous to iMAP, an alternative methods called latent causal variable (LCV) model could be also applied to distinguish genetic correlation from causation between birthweight and COA by calculating the posterior causality proportion (GCP) (O'Connor and Price, 2018). The magnitude of GCP could be employed to evaluate the likelihood that there existed evidence for a causal influence of birthweight on COA and the sign of GCP could be applied to infer the potential causal direction between birthweight and COA. However, we obtained a non-significant genetic correlation estimate between them ($P > 0.05$) (Bulik-Sullivan, et al., 2015), which would make the result of LCV meaningless and inaccurate; thus, we did not pursue LCV further.

The summary statistics of birthweight were available from (Warrington, et al., 2019); the summary statistics of COA were obtained from (Ferreira, et al., 2019) which analyzed 314,633 European individuals (including 13,962 cases with age less than 19 years old). For both summary statistics of birthweight and COA, we performed the similar quality control for common SNPs (minor allele frequency > 0.01) as done in (Bulik-Sullivan, et al., 2015).

Results

Finding in previous studies and combined result of meta-analysis

In terms of our literature retrieval, we reserved a total of 18 results, including 3 multi-nations meta-studies covering from 1966 to 2013 and 15 new studies published between 2014 and 2020. Among those studies, six were performed on individuals of European ancestry, and almost all demonstrated that low birthweight was a strong risk factor of COA regardless of ancestral groups (Table 1).

We first performed meta-analysis among the recent 15 results and then combined the result with each of the prior three reviews. As the definition of low/high birthweight was slightly different across studies, only 12 out of 15 studies with the threshold of 2.5kg were incorporated in our meta-analysis. Because of the heterogeneity in effects among these included studies (the Cochran's $P < 0.01$), we here primarily reported random-effects meta-analysis results. In terms of studies collected between 2014 and 2020, the risk of COA for individuals with lower birthweight increased by 68% (95% CIs 47 ~ 92%) (Fig. 4).

The leave-one-out sensitivity analysis indicated no single study could substantially change the pooled estimated effect (Figure S1). Such inverse relation also held if including these prior meta-studies (OR = 1.51, 95% CIs 1.37 ~ 1.65) and were robust in stratification analyses of distinct birthweight threshold (Figure S2), study population (Figure S3), study design (Figure S4), and exposure and outcome ascertainment (Figures S5-S6), although sometimes the heterogeneity remained. In summary, based on the results of meta-analysis, we concluded there was a negative association between birthweight and COA, implying that individuals born with lower birthweight would be more vulnerable to asthma in childhood.

Table 1
Summary information of studies investigating the relationship between birthweight and childhood-onset asthma

| id | country or region | Total number | OR/RR (95%CI) | cutoff for birthweight (kg) | Study Design | Age at follow up | Number in each group | Outcome ascertainment | Exposure ascertainment | Quality Score | race | Ref |
|----|-------------------|--------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| A | Europe | 1,105,703 | 1.16 (1.13–1.20) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | | | | | | | | (Xu 201) |
| B | Europe | 30,877 | 1.28 (1.09–1.50) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | | | | | | | | (Mu 201) |
| B | Europe | 30,877 | 1.34 (1.13–1.60) | < 2.5 and 2.5-4.0 | | | | | | | | (Mu 201) |
| C | Europe | 1,712,737 | 1.37 (1.05–1.79) | < 2.5 and 2.5-4.0 | | | | | | | | (Me et a 201) |
| C | Europe | 1,712,737 | 1.60 (1.39–1.85) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | | | | | | | | (Me et a 201) |
| 1 | Brazil | 1,534 | 1.38 (1.05–1.81) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | PC | < 4 | 310 vs. 989 | a, b | a | 7 | mixed | (Re 201) |
| 2 | Spain | 766 | 1.71 (1.06–2.76) | < 2.5 and 2.5-4.0 | RC | < 1 | 149 vs. 617 | a, b | a, b | 8 | Spain | (Pé Yar al., |
| 3 | UK | 13,734 | 1.29 (1.12–1.50) | 2.5-4 and > 4.0 | PC | 0–7 | 1,139 vs. 11,341 | a, b | a, b | 8 | mixed | (Me et a 201) |
| 3 | UK | 13,734 | 0.91(0.79–1.04) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | PC | 0–7 | 11,341 vs. 1,254 | a, b | a, b | 8 | mixed | (Me et a 201) |
| 3 | UK | 13,734 | 1.60 (1.05–1.79) | 2.0-2.5 and > 2.5 | PC | 0–7 | 1,139 vs. 12,595 | a, b | a, b | 8 | mixed | (Me et a 201) |
| 4 | USA | 680 | 5.20 (2.80–8.70) | < 2.0 and > 2.5 | RC | 6–17 | 251 vs. 293 | a, b | a | 7 | mixed | (Jo et a 201) |
| 4 | USA | 680 | 8.80 (4.60–14.9) | < 2.5 and 2.5–3.5 | RC | 6–17 | 136 vs. 293 | a, b | a | 7 | mixed | (Jo et a 201) |
| 5 | Iran | 3,102 | 1.32 (0.97–1.80) | < 2.5 and 2.5–3.5 | RC | 6–7 | 269 vs. 1,165 | a | a | 6 | Caucasian | (Ra al., |
| | | 3,554 | 1.52 (1.04–2.22) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 13–14 | 382 vs. 1,104 | a | a | 6 | Caucasian | Raf al., |
| 6 | Australia | 2,775 | 1.75 (1.07–2.87) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 7 | 299 vs. 2,461 | a | b | 7 | Tasmanian | (Ma et a 201) |
| | | 2,775 | 2 (1.03–3.87) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 12 | 136 vs. 2,381 | a | b | 7 | Tasmanian | (Ma et a 201) |
| 7 | USA | 90,721 | 1.43 (1.25–1.63) | < 3.0 and > 3.0 | RC | 0–17 | 8,202 vs. 82,519 | a | a | 7 | mixed | (Zh al., |
| 8 | Italy | 80 | 10.30 (1.50–27.5) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | PC | 2.8–8.8 | - | a | b | 8 | Italian | (Bo al., |
| 9 | Brazil | 375 | 2.90 (1.70–4.90) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 13–14 | - | a | a | 8 | mixed | (Fe et a 201) |

Note: A-C were three previous review paper, 1–15 were results of studies published between 2014–2020; the studies in green were included in our meta-analysis questionnaire, b = hospital records; PC: prospective cohort, RC: retrospective cohort.

| id | country or region | Total number | OR/RR (95%CI) | cutoff for birthweight (kg) | Study Design | Age at follow up | Number in each group | Outcome ascertainment | Exposure ascertainment | Quality Score | race | Ref |
|----|-------------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------|---------|--------------|
| 10 | China | 701 | 1.75 (1.11–2.75) | < 2.5 and 2.5-4.0 | RC | 0–1 | - | b | b | 6 | Asian | (Yir 201 |
| 11 | Japan | 6364 | 1.22 (0.89–1.65) | 2.5-4 and > 4.0 | RC | 3 | 560 vs. 5,756 | a | a | 7 | Asian | (Ta al., |
| | | 6364 | 0.53 (0.09–1.71) | 0.5-1 and > 2.0 | RC | 3 | 5,756 vs. 48 | a | a | 7 | Asian | Tak al., |
| 12 | Brazil | 445 | 2.38 (1.33–4.27) | 1-1.5 and > 2.0 | RC | 1–5 | 80 vs. 160 | a | a | 6 | mixed | (Sir al., |
| 12 | Brazil | 445 | 1.52 (0.88–2.63) | 1.5-2 and > 2.0 | RC | 1–5 | 114 vs. 160 | a | a | 6 | mixed | (Sir al., |
| 12 | Brazil | 445 | 1.02 (0.55–1.90) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 1–5 | 90 vs. 160 | a | a | 6 | mixed | (Sir al., |
| 13 | China | 628,878 | 1.14 (1.10–1.19) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 0–6 | 40,704 vs. 588,174 | b | b | 6 | Asian | (Lir 201 |
| 14 | Iraq | 952 | 16.70 (6.97–37.49) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 4.2–9.2 | 273 vs. 679 | b | b | 6 | Arabian | (Al et a 201 |
| 15 | Japan | 45,060 | 1.14 (1.03–1.26) | < 2.5 and > 2.5 | RC | 0.5–10 | - | a | a | 7 | Asian | (Fu et a 202 |

Note: A-C were three previous review paper, 1–15 were results of studies published between 2014–2020; the studies in green were included in our meta-analysis questionnaire, b = hospital records; PC: prospective cohort, RC: retrospective cohort.

Association between birthweight and COA in the full UK Biobank cohort

We here examined the relation between birthweight and COA among all available participants in the full UK Biobank cohort. It was discovered the estimated effect = -0.205 ($se = 0.038$, $P = 5.12 \times 10^{-8}$) for birthweight and 0.175 ($se = 0.038$, $P = 4.51 \times 10^{-6}$) for squared birthweight.

Estimated causal association between birthweight and COA

Furthermore, we carried out logistic model using the mother-offspring or father-offspring datasets, respectively. Using all birthweight-associated instruments, we identified that the maternal GRS was negatively related to COA ($\beta = -0.162$, $P = 0.037$) after adjusting for sex and offspring's genetic impact in mother-offspring pairs (Table 2). However, we did not find significant associations between the paternal GRS and COA in father-offspring pairs, and failed to detect substantial relation between the fetal GRS and COA in mother-offspring or father-offspring pairs.

Table 2
Association between parental/fetal GRS and COA after conditioning on offspring genotypes in parent-offspring pairs calculated with selected SNP instruments of birthweight

| COA | parental GRS | | fetal GRS | |
|---|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| | β (se) | P | β (se) | P |
| maternal GRS (cases vs. control) | | | | |
| A (3320 vs. 314) | -0.162 (0.078) | 0.037 | -0.127 (0.078) | 0.103 |
| B (3320 vs. 314) | -0.169 (0.078) | 0.030 | -0.128 (0.078) | 0.101 |
| C (3299 vs. 310) | -0.165 (0.079) | 0.035 | -0.135 (0.078) | 0.086 |
| paternal GRS (cases vs. control) | | | | |
| A (1238 vs. 96) | -0.067 (0.141) | 0.632 | 0.038 (0.141) | 0.785 |
| B (1238 vs. 96) | 0.039 (0.139) | 0.778 | -0.025 (0.141) | 0.858 |
| C (1196 vs. 91) | 0.037 (0.144) | 0.801 | -0.051 (0.145) | 0.723 |
| Note: A = the GRS analysis with all available instruments; B = the GRS analysis with some instruments with potentially horizontal pleiotropic effects removed; C = the GRS analysis analyzing only offspring with normal birthweight. | | | | |

Results of sensitivity analyses

After excluding several instruments with potentially horizontal pleiotropic effects, we found this inverse relation was still substantial ($\beta=-0.169$, $P=0.030$). We discovered the causal association between the maternal GRS and COA remained significant when only analyzing offspring with normal birthweight ($\beta=-0.165$, $P=0.035$), indicating that our finding was less likely affected by preterm birth and that the detected causal connection might be not driven by offspring born at the extremes of birthweight.

Results for iMAP

In terms of the iMAP results, the probability of SNPs related to maternal-specific birthweight that were also associated with COA was 57.9%. In contrast, the probability of SNPs related to COA that were also associated with maternal-specific birthweight was only 22.4%. The two asymmetrical probabilities implied birthweight-associated loci were more likely related to COA than the other way around. Therefore, the result of iMAP provided us additional genome-wide evidence supporting the causal influence of birthweight on COA.

Discussion

In the present study, we first conducted a literature-updated meta-analysis from 2014–2020 and discovered birthweight had an inverse impact on COA in recent observational studies, consistent with the finding observed in the literature before 2014 (Mebraska, et al., 2015; Mu, et al., 2014; Xu, et al., 2014). Furthermore, we carried out the GRS analysis separately in the mother-offspring and father-offspring data. Together with our iMAP results, we found significant evidence in favor of the maternal influence of birthweight on COA, implying the intrauterine environments might play an important role in the development of COA.

Comparison to previous studies

Compared to prior studies (Zeng, et al., 2019; Zeng and Zhou, 2019), one of the greatest advantages for our work was its ability to isolate the relatively maternal and fetal contributions to birthweight (Warrington, et al., 2018) that rendered us the capability to investigate the origin of this observed relationship between low birthweight and COA. As the fetal and maternal effects of birthweight were remarkably distinct in direction and magnitude, ignoring such information not only limited the practical interpretation of prior findings, but also likely resulted in misleading findings. Therefore, our results provided a much clearer insight into the association between birthweight and COA, and had the potential to understand internal mechanisms in a deeper level.

Importance of the use of maternal-specific instruments

Several previous MR studies (Au Yeung, et al., 2016; Wang, et al., 2016; Zanetti, et al., 2018; Zeng, et al., 2019; Zeng and Zhou, 2019), which naively applied the fetal-specific instruments of birthweight to address the DOHaD hypothesis, were likely invalid when inferring the causal association between birthweight and adult diseases because of two reasons. First, the DOHaD hypothesis proposes an adverse intrauterine exposure leads to low birthweight and adult disease through developmental compensations, which contrasts with the assumption that birthweight itself displays a direct causal impact on disease. Thus, the nature of DOHaD requires us to employ the birthweight-related instruments with maternal-specific effect when seeking to uncover the causal association between an early exposure in life course or an intrauterine factor and an adult outcome of interest.

Second, the fetal genotype is highly correlated maternal genotype ($r \approx 0.50$) that influences offspring birthweight and also possibly has an impact on offspring health outcome (Warrington, et al., 2018). Any causal association discovered by using fetal-specific SNP instruments would also imply an indirect influence of mother; this violates the independence modeling assumption of MR study, where it requires the used instruments are not related to any confounders in the pathway from the exposure to the outcome under consideration.

Due to these complex situations, the standard MR analysis is infeasible when examining the DOHAD hypothesis. In contrast, recent studies (D'Urso, et al., 2021; Evans, et al., 2019; Moen, et al., 2020) have successfully demonstrated the GRS-based MR method, which determines the association between maternal genotypes related to offspring birthweight and offspring outcome while conditioning on offspring genotype at the same set of SNP instruments, is a valid strategy to estimate the causal effect.

Further research directions and limitations

Some limitations of this study need be mentioned. First, because of limited COA cases in parent-offspring pairs, we could not carry out stratified GRS analysis in terms of offspring's sex although prior studies showed significant sex difference in the risk of COA (Bao, et al., 2017). Second, like any MR studies, the validity of our causal inference depended on several critical modeling assumptions of MR, some of which are not completely testable in practice. For instance, due to unknown biological functions of these used birthweight-related SNP instruments, we cannot fully check the exclusion restriction assumption even though we performed a sensitivity analysis to assess such assumption.

Third, because some SNP instruments that are most strongly associated with birthweight might also show the strongest influence on offspring outcome (D'Urso, et al., 2021; Warrington, et al., 2019), which not only violates the exclusion restriction assumption of MR study but also violates the InSIDE assumption of MR-Egger regression (Bowden, et al., 2015). We cannot further conduct robust methods analogous to MR-Egger regression to evaluate and control horizontal pleiotropy. It is currently unknown how to carry out a formal test for evaluating horizontal pleiotropy and yield unbiased estimates of the causal effect under our GRS-based MR context.

Fourth, we recognized that the GRS-based MR analysis cannot completely rule out all confounders even though MR is less susceptible to confounding effects compared to other study designs (Davey Smith and Ebrahim, 2003). For example, low birthweight of offspring and higher risk of COA are likely due to common environments and lifestyles such as low socio-economic status, poor family income, polluted environment, and poor diet shared by parents and offspring, which result in the co-occurrence of low birthweight and high risk of COA. Thus, the causal association suggested in our work possibly in part results from residual confounders and should be thus interpreted with caution.

Finally, from a methodological perspective, despite the simplicity and effectiveness of the GRS-based MR, it requires genotypes and phenotypes for parent-offspring pairs with sufficient samples; such well-established cohorts and datasets are however not always available. There exist other causal inference methods (e.g., MR using maternal instruments only on non-transmitted alleles (Zhang, et al., 2015)) that were recently developed particularly for within-family MR studies (Brumpton, et al., 2020; Davies, et al., 2019; Gage, et al., 2016; Lawlor, et al., 2017), the empirical performance of these methods with the GRS-based MR approach is not comprehensively evaluated. The application of those methods to our objective is warranted to offer additional results for more robust conclusions.

Conclusion

Our study is among the first effort to unveil the relation between low birthweight and COA from an instrumental variable based causal inference perspective, and provides supportive evidence for the maternal origin hypothesis of COA. The finding helps guide early prevention for COA.

Abbreviations

| | |
|-------|---|
| COA | Children-onset asthma |
| GRS | genetic risk score |
| DOHAD | developmental origins of health and disease |
| MR | Mendelian randomization |
| PC | prospective cohort |
| RC | retrospective cohort |
| LCV | latent causal variable |
| SNPs | single nucleotide polymorphisms |

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The UK Biobank had approval from the North West Multi-Centre Research Ethics Committee (MREC) as a Research Tissue Bank (RTB) approval. All participants provided written informed consent before enrolment in the study, which was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. This approval means that other researchers do not require separate ethical clearance and can operate under the RTB approval.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

This study used the UK Biobank resource with the application ID 88159. Researchers can access to the UK Biobank dataset by applying to the UK Biobank official website (<https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/>).

Competing interests

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Funding

The research of Ping Zeng was supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (82173630 and 81402765), the Youth Foundation of Humanity and Social Science funded by Ministry of Education of China (18YJC910002), the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province of China (BK20181472), the China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2018M630607 and 2019T120465), the QingLan Research Project of Jiangsu Province for Young and Middle-aged Academic Leaders, the Six-Talent Peaks Project in Jiangsu Province of China (WSN-087), the Training Project for Youth Teams of Science and Technology Innovation at Xuzhou Medical University (TD202008). The research of Ting Wang was supported in part by the Social Development Project of Xuzhou City (KC20062). The research of Shuo Zhang was supported by Postgraduate Research & Practice Innovation Program of Jiangsu Province (KYCX22_2960).

Authors Contributions

PZ and TW conceived the idea for the study. PZ obtained the data. PZ, TG, and SJ cleared up the datasets. SZ, SJ, and YW performed the data analyses. PZ, SZ, YW, YL, TW, and SJ interpreted the results of the data analyses. PZ, YW, and SJ wrote the manuscript with the participation of other authors.

Acknowledgements

We thank the GWAS consortia for making summary statistics publicly available for us and are also grateful of all the investigators and participants contributed to those studies. Genetic data set for birthweight was contributed by the EGG Consortium using the UK Biobank Resource and was downloaded from www.egg-consortium.org. The UK Biobank approval was given for this project under the application number of 88159 and can be downloaded from <https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/> or <https://biota.osc.ox.ac.uk/>. The data analyses in the present study were carried out with the high-performance computing cluster that was supported by the special central finance project of local universities for Xuzhou Medical University. We are very grateful to Professor Xingjie Hao at Huazhong University of Science and Technology for helping apply the UK Biobank data.

References

1. Al Yassen AQ, Al-Asadi JN, Khalaf SK. The role of Caesarean section in childhood asthma. *Malays Fam Physician*. 2019;14:10–7.
2. Au Yeung SL, et al. Birth weight and risk of ischemic heart disease: A Mendelian randomization study. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:38420.
3. Bao Y, et al. Risk Factors in Preschool Children for Predicting Asthma During the Preschool Age and the Early School Age: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep*. 2017;17:85.
4. Bonato M, et al. Clinical and Pathologic Factors Predicting Future Asthma in Wheezing Children. A Longitudinal Study. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol*. 2018;59:458–66.
5. Bowden J, Davey Smith G, Burgess S. Mendelian randomization with invalid instruments: effect estimation and bias detection through Egger regression. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2015;44:512–25.
6. Brumpton B, et al. Avoiding dynastic, assortative mating, and population stratification biases in Mendelian randomization through within-family analyses. *Nat Commun*. 2020;11:3519.
7. Bulik-Sullivan BK, et al. LD Score regression distinguishes confounding from polygenicity in genome-wide association studies. *Nat Genet*. 2015;47:291–5.
8. Bycroft C, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. *Nature*. 2018;562:203–9.
9. Chung D, et al. GPA: a statistical approach to prioritizing GWAS results by integrating pleiotropy and annotation. *PLoS Genet*. 2014;10:e1004787.
10. D'Urso S, et al. A cautionary note on using Mendelian randomization to examine the Barker hypothesis and Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD). *J Dev Origins Health Disease*. 2021;12:688–93.
11. Davey Smith G, Ebrahim S. 'Mendelian randomization': can genetic epidemiology contribute to understanding environmental determinants of disease? *Int J Epidemiol*. 2003;32:1–22.
12. Davies NM, et al. Within family Mendelian randomization studies. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2019;28:R170–9.
13. Duijts L. Fetal and infant origins of asthma. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2012;27:5–14.
14. Evans DM, et al. Elucidating the role of maternal environmental exposures on offspring health and disease using two-sample Mendelian randomization. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2019;48:861–75.
15. Fernandes SSC, et al. Factors associated with asthma expression in adolescents. *J Bras Pneumol*. 2018;44:12–7.
16. Ferreira MAR, et al. Genetic Architectures of Childhood- and Adult-Onset Asthma Are Partly Distinct. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2019;104:665–84.
17. Fitzmaurice C, et al. Global, Regional, and National Cancer Incidence, Mortality, Years of Life Lost, Years Lived With Disability, and Disability-Adjusted Life-Years for 29 Cancer Groups, 1990 to 2017: A Systematic Analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study. *JAMA Oncol*. 2019;5:1749–68.

18. Furuhashi M, et al. Factors Associated with the Development of Childhood Asthma in Japan: A Nationwide Longitudinal Study. *Matern Child Health J.* 2020;24:911–22.
19. Gage SH, Munafò MR, Davey Smith G. Causal Inference in Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) Research. *Annu Rev Psychol.* 2016;67:567–85.
20. Johnson CC, et al. Birth weight and asthma incidence by asthma phenotype pattern in a racially diverse cohort followed through adolescence. *J Asthma.* 2015;52:1006–12.
21. Lawlor D, et al. Using Mendelian randomization to determine causal effects of maternal pregnancy (intrauterine) exposures on offspring outcomes: Sources of bias and methods for assessing them. *Wellcome Open Research.* 2017;2:11.
22. Lin CH, et al. Shared prenatal impacts among childhood asthma, allergic rhinitis and atopic dermatitis: a population-based study. *Allergy Asthma Clin Immunol.* 2019;15:52.
23. Litonjua AA, et al. Parental history and the risk for childhood asthma. Does mother confer more risk than father? *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1998;158:176–81.
24. Matheson MC, et al. Preterm birth and low birth weight continue to increase the risk of asthma from age 7 to 43. *J Asthma.* 2017;54:616–23.
25. Mebrahtu TF, et al. Birth weight and childhood wheezing disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2015;69:500–8.
26. Mebrahtu TF, Feltbower RG, Parslow RC. Effects of birth weight and growth on childhood wheezing disorders: findings from the Born in Bradford Cohort. *BMJ Open.* 2015;5:2015–009553.
27. Moen G-H, et al. Mendelian randomization study of maternal influences on birthweight and future cardiometabolic risk in the HUNT cohort. *Nat Commun.* 2020;11:5404.
28. Moher D, et al. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS Med.* 2009;6:e1000097.
29. Mu M, et al. Birth weight and subsequent risk of asthma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Heart Lung Circ.* 2014;23:511–9.
30. Nurmagambetov T, Kuwahara R, Garbe P. The Economic Burden of Asthma in the United States, 2008–2013. *Ann Am Thorac Soc.* 2018;15:348–56.
31. O'Connor LJ, Price AL. (2018) Distinguishing genetic correlation from causation across 52 diseases and complex traits (vol 50, pg 1728, 2018), *Nat Genet.*, **50**, 1753–1753.
32. Pérez-Yarza EG, et al. Risk factors for bronchiolitis, recurrent wheezing, and related hospitalization in preterm infants during the first year of life. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol.* 2015;26:797–804.
33. Pickrell JK, et al. Detection and interpretation of shared genetic influences on 42 human traits. *Nat Genet.* 2016;48:709–17.
34. Raheleh Z et al. (2016) The Association between Birth Weight and Gestational Age and Asthma in 6-7- and 13-14-Year-Old Children, *Scientifica (Cairo)*, **2016**, 3987460.
35. Reis GG, et al. Prevalence and risk factors for wheezing in Salvador, Brazil: a population-based study. *QJM.* 2015;108:213–8.
36. Simões M, et al. Recurrent wheezing in preterm infants: Prevalence and risk factors. *J Pediatr (Rio J).* 2019;95:720–7.
37. Takata N, et al. Preterm birth is associated with higher prevalence of wheeze and asthma in a selected population of Japanese children aged three years. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr).* 2019;47:425–30.
38. Thompson SG, Sharp SJ. Explaining heterogeneity in meta-analysis: a comparison of methods. *Stat Med.* 1999;18:2693–708.
39. Tyrrell J, et al. Genetic evidence for causal relationships between maternal obesity-related traits and birth weight. *JAMA.* 2016;315:1129–40.
40. Wang T, et al. Low birthweight and risk of type 2 diabetes: a Mendelian randomisation study. *Diabetologia.* 2016;59:1920–7.
41. Warrington NM, et al. Maternal and fetal genetic effects on birth weight and their relevance to cardio-metabolic risk factors. *Nat Genet.* 2019;51:804–14.
42. Warrington NM, et al. Using structural equation modelling to jointly estimate maternal and fetal effects on birthweight in the UK Biobank. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2018;47:1229–41.
43. Xu XF, et al. Effect of low birth weight on childhood asthma: a meta-analysis. *BMC Pediatr.* 2014;14:275.
44. Yin L, et al. A risk factor for early wheezing in infants: rapid weight gain. *BMC Pediatr.* 2019;19:352.
45. Zanetti D, et al. Birthweight, Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus, and Cardiovascular Disease: Addressing the Barker Hypothesis With Mendelian Randomization. *Circulation: Genomic and Precision Medicine.* 2018;11:e002054.
46. Zeng P, Hao X, Zhou X. Pleiotropic mapping and annotation selection in genome-wide association studies with penalized Gaussian mixture models. *Bioinformatics.* 2018;34:2797–807.
47. Zeng P, Yu X, Zhou X. Birth weight is not causally associated with adult asthma: results from instrumental variable analyses. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9:7647.
48. Zeng P, Zhou X. (2019) Causal Association Between Birth Weight and Adult Diseases: Evidence From a Mendelian Randomization Analysis, *Frontiers in Genetics*, **10**.
49. Zhang G, et al. Assessing the Causal Relationship of Maternal Height on Birth Size and Gestational Age at Birth: A Mendelian Randomization Analysis. *PLoS Med.* 2015;12:e1001865.
50. Zhang J, et al. Is preterm birth associated with asthma among children from birth to 17 years old? -A study based on 2011–2012 US National Survey of Children's Health. *Ital J Pediatr.* 2018;44:151.
51. Zhang M, et al. Exploring the association between birthweight and breast cancer using summary statistics from a perspective of genetic correlation, mediation, and causality. *J Transl Med.* 2022;20:227.

Figures

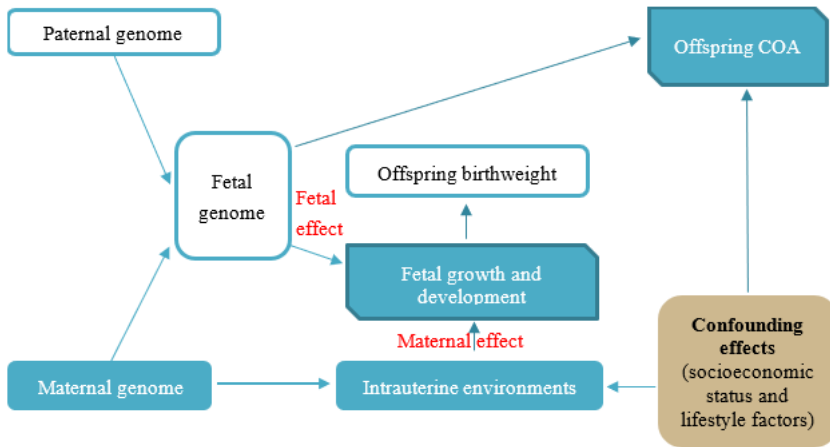


Figure 1

Framework for exploring the relation between birthweight and offspring COA. The key is to resolve the fetal/maternal-specific genetic effects of SNPs that were associated with birthweight when using birthweight as the proxy of maternal environments. Under the hypothesis of the developmental origins of COA, low birthweight caused by maternal adverse in-utero environmental factors (i.e., maternal-specific component of birthweight) reflects growth restriction which is assumed to further affect asthma in children, indicating the causal effect of fetal growth due to adverse maternal environments on offspring asthma. Fetal own genome is likely to be a common genetic factor for low weight at birth (i.e., fetal-specific component of birthweight) and COA, indicating the genetic pleiotropy between birthweight and offspring outcome.

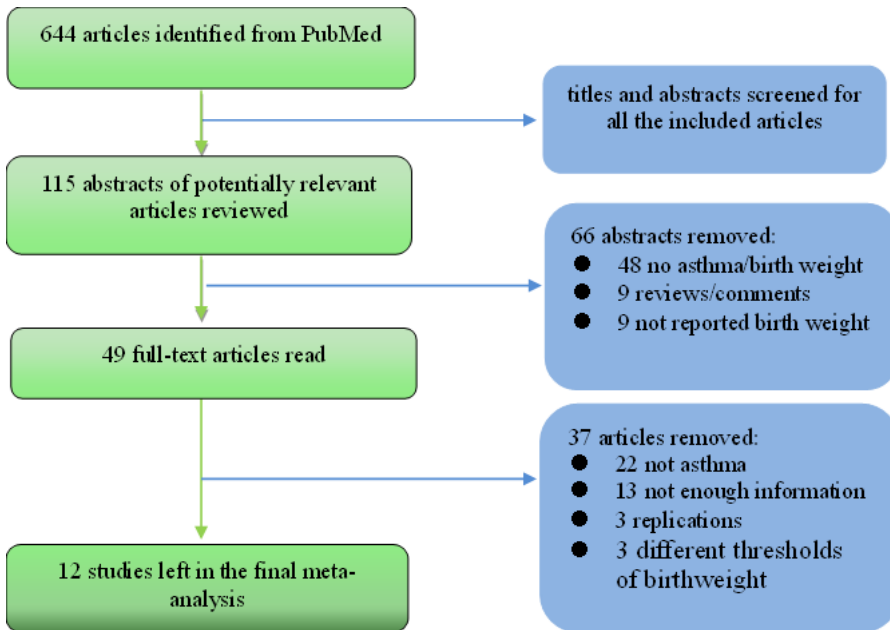


Figure 2

Flowchart of the study selection for investigating the association between lower birthweight and the risk of children-onset asthma.

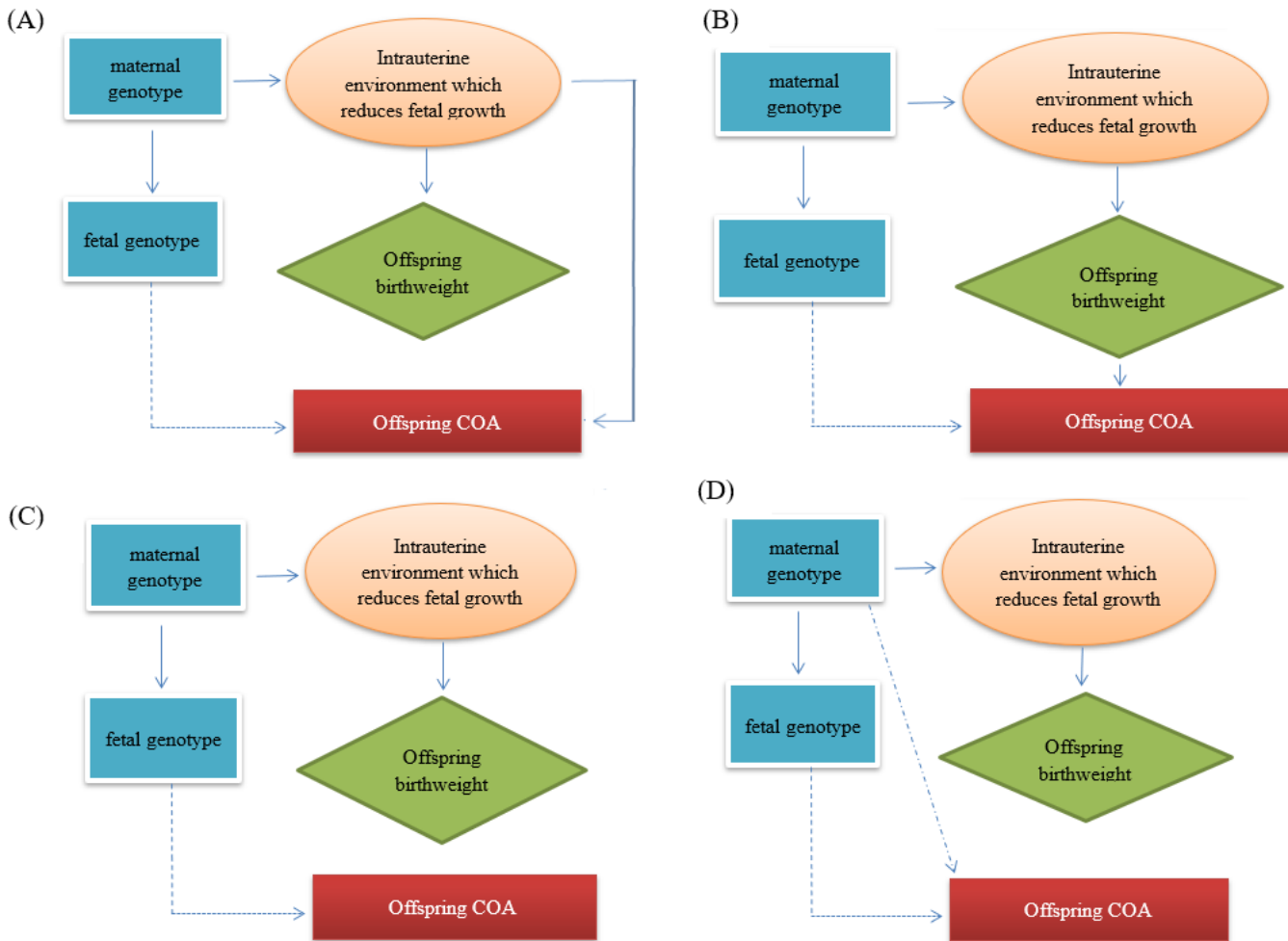


Figure 3

Four directed acyclic graphs in which maternal genotypes have a substantial influence on offspring birthweight and COA. (A) Maternal genotypes lead to an adverse intrauterine environment, which results in low offspring birthweight due to fetal growth restriction and subsequently developmental compensation that leads to increased risk of offspring COA. (B) Maternal genotypes lead to an adverse intrauterine environment that results in fetal growth restriction and low offspring birthweight, which is in turn causally related to increased risk of offspring COA. (C) Maternal genotypes lead to an adverse intrauterine environment, which results in fetal growth restriction and reduced birthweight; the same alleles of genotypes are transmitted to offspring and pleiotropically influence offspring COA through the offspring genome. (D) Maternal genotypes lead to an adverse intrauterine environment, which results to fetal growth restriction and reduced offspring birthweight; genotypes with maternal effects on offspring birthweight also pleiotropically influence offspring COA through the postnatal environment. The dotted line indicates the pathway in which the maternal genotype is related to offspring outcome is not involved in intrauterine growth restriction.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [20230204COASupplementaryText.docx](#)