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1 **Paracetamol exposure and Asthma: What does the Evidence say? An Overview of Systematic**
2 **reviews**

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22 **Abstract**

23 *Objective:* To conduct an umbrella review collating the existing evidence to determine whether there is an
24 association between exposure of Paracetamol in-utero or in infancy and the development of childhood
25 Asthma.

26 *Methods:* In this review, systematic reviews with or without meta-analysis that reported the association
27 between paracetamol and asthma in children were included. To identify relevant reviews, a search was
28 performed in the electronic databases PubMed, the Cochrane Library, and Ovid MEDLINE. The protocol
29 was registered in PROSPERO CRD42020156023. A separate search was conducted for primary studies
30 from the last 5 years not yet included in systematic reviews reporting the association from January 2016
31 to March 2021.

32 *Results:* The electronic searches identified 1966 review titles. After the removal of 493 duplicates, 1475
33 titles and abstracts were screened against the eligibility criteria. Full-text screening yielded six systematic
34 reviews to be included in this review. The search for primary studies in the last five years yielded 1214
35 hits, out of which 5 studies were found suitable for inclusion. Three of them, that were not included in the
36 systematic reviews, and have been summarised in this paper. The Odds Ratios (ORs) for the outcome of
37 asthma in offspring of mothers with prenatal paracetamol consumption in any trimester were 1.28(1.13-
38 1.39) and 1.21(1.02-1.44). For first trimester exposures, they were 1.12 (0.99- 1.27), 1.39(1.01-1.91)
39 and 1.21(1.14-1.28), for the second or third trimester, they were 1.49(1.37-1.63) and 1.13(1.04-1.23).
40 For the third trimester only, the figure was 1.17(1.04-1.31). Of the six reviews included, 1 had a low risk
41 of bias, 2 had an unclear risk while 3 had a high risk of bias assessed using the ROBIS tool. There was no
42 significant increased risk of asthma with early infancy exposure. The inter-study heterogeneity varied
43 from $I^2=41\%$ to $I^2=76\%$ across reviews. In the primary studies, the OR for prenatal exposure ranged from
44 1.12 (0.25 to 4.98) to 4.66 (1.92-11.3) and for infancy exposure was 1.56 (1.06 to 2.30). All three
45 included primary studies were adjudged to be of high quality using the Newcastle Ottawa scale.

46 *Conclusions:* There is a modest association between paracetamol exposure in-utero and the future
47 development of asthma. Exposure in infancy has a less consistent association. All the studies done thus
48 far are observational in nature, with their inherent biases. Further research, preferably randomized
49 controlled trials are recommended to answer this pertinent question.

50

51 Introduction:

52 Asthma is a chronic respiratory disorder, which causes episodic wheezing ranging from mild symptoms to
53 life-threatening episodes. [1]. Common symptoms of asthma in children include coughing and whistling
54 or wheezing sounds when breathing [2].“As indicated by the United States Centers for Disease Control
55 and Prevention (CDC), 1 of every 13 individuals has asthma “[3].

56 Asthma is the most common cause of chronic morbidity in children.[4] At present, 1 out of 12 children
57 have asthma. It is the significant reason behind missed school days. The risk factors of asthma are divided
58 into genetic factors and environmental factors. Genetic factors include a positive family history for atopy
59 and environmental factors include exposure to allergens, dust, toxic chemicals, and drugs [5]. NSAIDs,
60 Beta-blockers, Radiological contrast media, and opiates have been known to aggravate bronchospasm in
61 asthmatics. The list of pharmacological agents implicated in the causation and aggravation is exhaustive,
62 and an extensive medication review is warranted in newly diagnosed and poorly controlled patients.

63 Paracetamol (acetaminophen) is a frequently used over-the-counter analgesic for the self-management of
64 some of the common disorders in children. Several epidemiologic observational studies suggested that its
65 use can be a risk factor for asthma development [7]. It is believed that the metabolite of paracetamol
66 diminishes glutathione levels in the respiratory tract and thus leads to susceptibility to oxidative stress.
67 This process causes airway inflammation, which leads to bronchoconstriction, and subsequently,
68 symptoms of asthma [8].

69 Why it is important to do this overview

70 Paracetamol has been used commonly during all stages of pregnancy for pain relief and fever. Paracetamol
71 is easily available over the counter and therefore readily accessible for self-medication [9]. There are no
72 specific guidelines/policy recommendations regarding paracetamol use in the context of asthma
73 prevention. It is necessary to shed some light on the effects of early-life exposure to paracetamol on
74 respiratory health during childhood. Prenatal exposure as well as exposure during the first year of life
75 constitutes early life exposure. There has been a plethora of systematic reviews exploring the association
76 between paracetamol exposure in utero and early infancy and the subsequent development of asthma in
77 children. There is a need to critically appraise this secondary research as well as shed some light on the
78 latest primary studies addressing this dilemma. We therefore conducted an overview of systematic
79 reviews on the topic as well as a systematic review of the studies published in the last 5 years to provide
80 the complete evidence summary to policy makers as well as clinicians.

81 **Methods**

82 We have reported this review in accordance with the PRISMA guidelines. All the Systematic reviews
83 with or without meta-analysis that reported the association between the exposure of Paracetamol in early
84 life and Asthma were included. The protocol of this review was registered in PROSPERO
85 CRD42020156023[10]. The population of interest was pregnant women and children less than 1 year of
86 age. Paracetamol, given by any route, any dose, and any duration, was the exposure. The comparator was
87 any other analgesic or placebo. The outcome was childhood asthma defined till the age of 18 years. We
88 included systematic reviews of cohort and cross-sectional studies. No time and language restrictions were
89 applied. We also ran a search for primary studies conducted in the last 5 years, from January 2016 to
90 March 2021 using similar search parameters, to ensure the complete body of evidence was taken into the
91 picture.

92 Search methods

93 To identify the relevant reviews, an extensive search was performed in three electronic databases:
94 PubMed, the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials Library, and Ovid MEDLINE till November
95 4, 2020. Search terms included MeSH terms and synonyms of “asthma,” “acetaminophen,”
96 “paracetamol,” “children,” “infants,” “pregnancy,” “prenatal,” and “systematic review”. We did not
97 apply any date or language restrictions in the electronic searches. Two authors (VS, MS) independently
98 screened the abstracts and titles of every record to identify studies potentially relevant to the predefined
99 eligibility criteria. Full texts of all included studies during primary screening were retrieved and screened
100 by two authors (VS, MS) independently, to determine the eligibility of the study. Where differences in
101 opinion existed, they were resolved through discussion with a third author (MeS). The search strategy is
102 available in the supplementary material (Document S1).

103 Primary studies from the last 5 years (January 2016 to March 2021) were also searched for in databases
104 PubMed, EMBASE and Ovid (Medline), to cover the evidence not yet included in systematic reviews. The
105 Cochrane library was also searched, without using the publication year filter. The search strategy is
106 appended as Supplementary Document S2. Two authors MS and AC searched the titles and abstracts for
107 relevant publications.

108 Data Extraction

109 For reviews that met the inclusion criteria, four authors (VS, MS, NJ, AC) extracted data using data
110 extraction templates. Discrepancies were resolved through discussion with the fifth author (MeS). All the
111 relevant data were extracted from each included review.

112 The primary studies from the last 5 years were also subjected to the data extraction process by two
113 authors (AC and MS), on a pre designed data extraction sheet. Disagreements were resolved by
114 consulting an arbitrator(JLM), who also critically reviewed the draft.

115 .

116 Risk of bias assessment

117 Four reviewers (VS,MS,NJ, and AC) used the ROBIS tool to assess the risk of bias of each included
118 systematic review. This tool assesses the level of bias present in four domains, namely, eligibility criteria
119 of the study, identification and selection of studies, data collection and study appraisal, and synthesis and
120 findings[11].Any discrepancy in quality assessment was discussed and resolved through mutual
121 discussion between authors. The quality of the primary studies was assessed using the Newcaslte-Ottawa
122 scale for cross sectional and cohort studies. [12] This tool assigns a score to each study based on the
123 selection of the sample, comparability of the groups and outcomes. The study quality is graded based on
124 the score, as poor (0-3),fair (4-6), and good (7-9).

125 Data synthesis

126 Due to the existence of heterogeneity and overlap of studies between included systematic reviews, a
127 narrative evidence synthesis was done instead of pooling the results of the systematic reviews. The data
128 from the primary studies published in the last 5 years has also been provided in a table.

129 **Results**

130 The systematic search identified 1966 potentially eligible studies; among these 493 duplicates were
131 removed. Two additional systematic reviews, that were thesis dissertations published online were
132 identified as part of grey literature search. Screening of titles of 1475 studies, eliminated 1433 studies.
133 The full text of the remaining 40 studies was screened, which yielded 6 systematic reviews to be included
134 in this review. The reasons excluding 34 studies are presented in the PRISMA chart [Fig 1].

135 The 6 included systematic reviews were published between 2009 and 2016. The characteristics of the
136 included reviews are given in Table 1. The various tools for assessing and reporting the data in the
137 reviews were STROBE(13), PRISMA(14), QUORUM(15), and MOOSE(16) checklists. One systematic
138 review had a low risk of bias, 4 had an unclear risk of bias and one had a high risk of bias.[Table 2]

139 Mahyar et al identified five studies from 8 databases, up to 2008. Out of five included studies in the
140 prenatal subgroup, three were cohort studies and two were cross-sectional surveys. Paracetamol use in
141 the pregnancy, and development of asthma symptoms was explored in 425140 infants. There was no

142 information on the dose, duration, or indication of paracetamol use. The authors included studies if they
143 clearly defined asthma or wheezing as the primary outcome. The age of diagnosis of asthma was not
144 specified. This review used the Newcastle-Ottawa scale to assess the risk of bias. The review reported
145 higher odds for the development of persistent wheeze [OR: 1.50 (1.10-2.05)] and asthma [OR:1.28 (1.13-
146 1.39)] in children [17]. We assessed an unclear risk of bias in this systematic review. Evers et al identified
147 six studies in four databases up to 2010. They included five prospective cohorts and one cross-sectional
148 survey consisting of 28038 subjects. This review had a high risk of bias, as it did not report any details
149 about the risk of bias assessment of included studies. The review reported that paracetamol use in
150 pregnancy was associated with a higher odds of development of wheezing in offspring [OR: 1.21(1.02–
151 1.44)][18].

152 Cheelo et al identified eleven studies in two databases till August 2013. This review included
153 retrospective and prospective cohort studies, reporting both prenatal and infantile paracetamol exposure
154 data of 907751 subjects. This review used the Newcastle-Ottawa scale to assess the bias in the included
155 studies. There higher odds of asthma in children when the exposure was prenatal, during 1st trimester
156 [OR: 1.39(1.01-1.91)], during 2nd and 3rd trimester [OR: 1.49(1.37-1.63)], during 3rd trimester [OR:
157 1.17(1.04-1.31)] and during Infancy [OR: 1.41(0.96-2.08)]. [19]. Overall, this review had a low risk of
158 bias. This review also used the most robust definition of asthma by pre-specifying the age of diagnosis
159 above 5 years.

160 Fan et al identified thirteen studies in two databases up to 2016. They reported data from 1043109
161 subjects. Risk of bias in the included studies was assessed by using the Newcastle Ottawa scale. This
162 review also reported higher odds of developing asthma[OR 1.19 (1.12-1.27)]. Subgroup analysis showed
163 an OR of 1.21[1.14-1.28] for the 1st trimester and 1.13[1.04-1.23] for the 2nd and 3rd trimester[20].The
164 results of the risk of bias assessment were not reported in the manuscript, making the overall risk of bias
165 unclear.

166 Fujii-Rios authored a systematic review in a thesis. Six prospective studies with 28606 participants were
167 identified in PubMed alone. The pooled OR was1.12(1.03-1.22), however it was statistically insignificant

168 during the first and second trimesters.[21] In this systematic review, only 1 database was searched,the
169 entire systematic review was conducted by a single author, and the risk of bias assessments for individual
170 studies was not done. For these reasons, the overall risk of bias for this review was reported as high.

171 Prejean et al studied only post-natal exposure. They searched 4 databases and included 3 birth cohorts and
172 1 multicenter cross-sectional study studying the exposure in the first 2 years of life. The outcome was
173 assessed at 5-7 years of age. Only qualitative synthesis was done. All included studies were judged to
174 have a serious risk of bias. Outcomes from three out of four included studies showed no association
175 between paracetamol exposure in the first 2 years of life and asthma. The GRADE level of certainty was
176 adjudged to be very low.[22] The risk of bias in the review using the ROBIS tool was unclear. The six
177 reviews together included 36 different studies[23-58](Supplementary Table S1).

178 In summary, the Odds Ratios(ORs) for the outcome of asthma in offspring of mothers with prenatal
179 paracetamol consumption in any trimester were 1.28(1.13-1.39) and 1.21(1.02-1.44). For first trimester
180 exposures, they were 1.12 (0.99- 1.27), 1.39(1.01-1.91) and 1.21(1.14-1.28), for the second or third
181 trimester, they were 1.49(1.37-1.63) and 1.13(1.04-1.23). For the third trimester only, the figure was
182 1.17(1.04-1.31). Most of the confidence intervals from prenatal exposures did not cross the line of no
183 effect, proving the association to be consistently statistically significant. Only the outcome CIs of ORs for
184 the first 2 trimesters from one review (Fujii-Rios 2012) and one of asthma in infancy exposure of
185 paracetamol was crossing the line of no effect. Publication bias was assessed in only one systematic
186 review.[21] The funnel plot suggests a publication bias.

187 The search for primary studies from 2015 to 2021 yielded 1214 results. After the removal of 259
188 duplicates, 955 titles and abstracts were screened. Of these, 19 full texts were retrieved and 5 studies were
189 included. Two of these were already included in aforementioned systematic reviews (Sordillo[56],
190 Magnus[58]). The data from the remaining 3 studies is presented in Table 3. For prenatal exposure, the
191 ORs from the study by Malaeb et al was 4.66 (1.92-11.30).[59] Piler et al found no association with
192 prenatal and combined exposures while a mild association was seen with infant exposure on the outcome

193 of pediatrician diagnosed asthma at 11 years of age. The adjusted OR(CI) for development of asthma was
194 1.83 (0.91 to 3.71) with combined prenatal and postnatal exposure to paracetamol, 1.56 (1.06 to 2.30)
195 with postnatal exposure and 1.12 (0.25 to 4.98) with prenatal exposure.[60] Shaheen et al reported an OR
196 of 1.50 (1.35–1.66) from analysis of 152797 asthmatic subjects from the cohort at 5 years of age.[61] All
197 studies scored > 7 on the Newcastle Ottawa scale.

198 **Discussion**

199 Overall, our analysis of six systematic reviews, and 3 additional studies suggest that there is a significant
200 association between paracetamol exposure in utero and the development of childhood asthma. There was
201 heterogeneity among the studies included in the reviews as well as methodological differences between
202 the systematic reviews. For instance, Eyers et al utilized raw data, and the outcome variables were
203 standardized, whereas Mahyar et al utilized adjusted ORs and did not standardize the outcomes.

204 Association does not imply causation and non-causal explanations for such associations cannot be ruled
205 out. There are several limitations when the Bradford Hill causal criteria were applied, and these are
206 summarized in Supplementary Table S2[62] . Here we must mention the main limitations.

207 The strength of the association is modest, with at maximum, a 1.5 fold increase in odds of asthma in
208 paracetamol exposed children. One of the challenges in identifying an association between paracetamol
209 exposure, and the occurrence of asthma in later life, is the frequent prevalence of the risk factor, as well as
210 outcome. In such a situation, it is difficult to confidently attribute whether a statistically significant
211 association, could also be due to mere chance. Further, paracetamol usage could itself be a surrogate for
212 some other proximal risk factor such as fever, respiratory tract infections and other conditions with
213 inflammation during pregnancy and in early life. [19] Also, the issue of temporality is difficult to gauge in
214 such a situation. Since episodes of infantile wheezing are associated with viral infections(with fever),
215 paracetamol exposure could be after, rather than before, the outcome being measured. Thus, two of the
216 Bradford-Hill criteria viz. specificity and temporality, are challenged. This makes a strong case for
217 confounding by indication, and the reverse causality bias.[63,64]

218 Unmeasured confounders linked to both the exposure and the outcome, can give rise to an apparent
219 association between the drug and outcome. None of the included reviews, barring Cheelo et al, conducted
220 a sensitivity analysis for this. Systematic reviews of RCTs comparing the asthma incidence in children
221 with postnatal exposure to paracetamol or ibuprofen have not found any difference between the two,
222 again supporting confounding by indication. [65,66] One RCT comparing prenatal paracetamol and
223 ibuprofen exposure, enrolling children above 2 months of age, with a six year follow up is currently
224 underway .[67]

225 The association is biologically plausible by considering increased oxidative stress to the respiratory
226 system due to a paracetamol metabolite, and the dominant Th2 response by exposure to paracetamol in
227 the developing fetus. Other pathophysiological mechanisms that may explain the link are glutathione
228 depletion at paracetamol dose greater than 4g/day, Cyclo-oxygenase enzyme inhibition and the antigenic
229 effect of paracetamol leading to the upregulation of histamines and IgE. Experimental evidence from
230 animal and human studies is conflicting, and RCTs are lacking. [68, 69]

231 Strength and limitations of the study

232 The strengths of this umbrella review are a rigorous literature search and a meticulous appraisal of the
233 included studies. We followed the methods recommended by the Cochrane. The protocol was registered
234 in PROSPERO. As recommended, we used a validated tool, ROBIS, to assess the risk of bias in
235 systematic reviews. However, we were unable to pool the results because of significant heterogeneity and
236 variable confounders. Also, none of the reviews provided the certainty of evidence by the GRADE
237 approach. The inclusion of 2 reviews that were not peer reviewed and sourced from grey literature was
238 also done.[21,22]This was done to provide a more balanced perspective of the evidence and to decrease
239 the publication bias, bringing to light the “null” or negative results.[70] In conclusion, we suggest a
240 modest association between paracetamol exposure in pre-natal life and early infancy, with the occurrence
241 of wheezing and/or asthma in infancy and/or childhood. However, there are several limitations to this
242 conclusion and there is a need to generate higher quality evidence. Trials in pregnant women, while
243 desirable, will be difficult to conduct.

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447 **Tables:**

448 Table 1: Reviews included in this umbrella review

449 Table 2: Risk of bias assessment in the included reviews using the ROBIS tool

450 Table 3: Characteristics of primary studies included in this review

451 **Supplementary material**

452 Supplementary Document S1: Search strategy for Systematic Reviews

453 Supplementary Document S2a: Search strategy for Primary Studies (PubMed)

454 Supplementary Document S2b: Search strategy for Primary Studies (EMBASE)

455 Supplementary Document S2c: Search strategy for Primary Studies (Ovid MEDLINE)

456 Supplementary Document S2d: Search strategy for Primary Studies (Cochrane)

457 Supplementary Table S1: Details of included reviews in this overview

458 Supplementary Table S2: Hills causal criteria applied to the association between prenatal and early
459 infancy paracetamol exposure and asthma

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461 **Figure Legends:**

462 Figure 1: PRISMA flow diagram for systematic review selection for this umbrella review

463 Figure 2: PRISMA flow diagram for primary studies selection from the last 5 years

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