

COMMITTEE ON TOXICITY OF CHEMICALS IN FOOD, CONSUMER PRODUCTS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Statement on the potential risks from high levels of vitamin A in the infant diet

Background

1. The Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition (SACN) is undertaking a review of scientific evidence that bears on the Government's dietary recommendations for infants and young children. The review will identify new evidence that has emerged since the Government's current recommendations were formulated, and will appraise that evidence to determine whether the advice should be revised. The recommendations cover diet from birth to age five years, but will be considered in two stages, focussing first on infants aged 0 – 12 months, and then on advice for children aged 1 to 5 years. SACN is examining the nutritional basis of the advice, and has asked that evidence on possible adverse effects of diet should be considered by other advisory committees with relevant expertise. In particular, SACN asked COT to review the risks of toxicity from chemicals in the infant diet.

2. This statement provides an overview of the potential risks from high levels of vitamin A in the infant diet. Evaluations of vitamin A in food have been conducted previously by the Scientific Committee on Food (SCF) (SCF, 2002), Expert Group on Vitamins and Minerals (EVM) (EVM, 2003), and the Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition (SACN) (SACN, 2005). This statement draws on information from those evaluations and from additional relevant studies published more recently. The statement considers the sources of vitamin A in the diet; its biological function, measurement, toxicokinetics and toxicity (with particular focus on those studies which would assist in the derivation of a tolerable upper level (TUL)); and estimated dietary exposures of infants via breast milk, infant formula and complementary foods.

Vitamin A

3. Vitamin A is a generic term referring to substances including retinol, retinyl esters (fatty acid derivatives of all-*trans* retinol) and retinal (all-*trans* retinol in its aldehyde form), that exhibit qualitatively the biological activity of all-*trans* retinol. In addition, metabolites such as all-*trans and cis*-isomeric retinoic acids can perform some, but not all, of the biological functions of vitamin A (EVM, 2003; SACN, 2005).

The term "retinoids" encompasses vitamin A and synthetic analogues with similar properties.

4. There are two sources of dietary vitamin A: preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoids. Retinol consists of a β -ionone ring with a polar terminal group and conjugated isoprenoid side chain (Figure 1) (EVM, 2003). Provitamin A carotenoids are precursors of vitamin A and can be converted to retinol in the body (SACN, 2005).

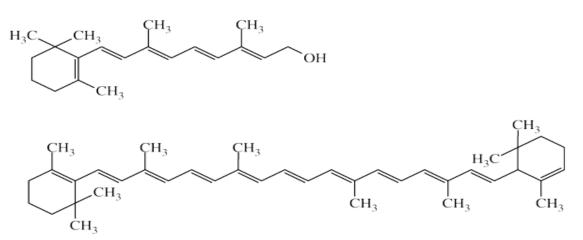


Figure 1: Structural formula of retinol ($C_{20}H_{30}O$) (top) and β -carotene ($C_{40}H_{56}$) (bottom).

Preformed vitamin A (retinol, retinal, retinyl esters and retinoic acid)

5. Preformed vitamin A (retinol, retinal, retinyl esters and retinoic acid) is only found in foods of animal origin, predominantly in the form of retinyl palmitate (Allen and Haskell, 2002). Retinyl esters are added to foods such as margarine (Perrotta et al., 2003). Both retinyl palmitate and retinyl acetate are used in dietary supplements (Perrotta et al., 2003). The highest concentration of preformed vitamin A is in carnivore liver (Allen and Haskell, 2002; Schulz et al., 2007).

Provitamin A carotenoids

6. Provitamin A carotenoids are present in a variety of fruits and vegetables. Over 600 carotenoids have been identified, of which approximately 50 can be converted to retinol and hence are referred to as provitamin A. The major provitamin A carotenoids in food are β -carotene, α -carotene and β -cryptoxanthin. β -Carotene is the most important provitamin A carotenoid because of its relative provitamin A activity and high content within the diet (SACN, 2005).

Function of vitamin A

7. Retinol is pivotal in embryonic development in mammals (Perrotta et al., 2003). It is involved in cell differentiation by acting as a ligand for nuclear retinoic

acid (retinol) receptors), converting them from transcriptional repressors to activators (Rhinn et al., 2012). The distribution and levels of retinol in embryonic tissues are tightly controlled by regulated synthesis through the action of specific retinol and retinaldehyde dehydrogenases and by degradation via specific cytochrome P450s (CYP26s) (EVM, 2003; Griswold et al., 2012; Rhinn et al., 2012). Retinol regulates the differentiation and patterning of various stem/progenitor cell populations (Rhinn et al., 2012).

8. Retinol also has a key function in the maintenance of normal differentiation of the cornea (IOM, 2001). In addition, retinal (11-cis-retinaldehyde) plays a crucial role in visual function, since it is fundamental for the transduction of light into neural signals within the eye (Bok, 1993), and retinol is essential for normal function of the immune system (SACN, 2005).

Quantification of vitamin A and reference values

9. Vitamin A is quantified either in international units (IU) or µg retinol equivalents (RE). The total vitamin A content of the diet is usually expressed as RE. RE takes into account the different activities and variable absorption of preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoids, and is a widely accepted unit. For consistency, RE is used throughout this statement. Corresponding IU values can be approximated by multiplying the RE by 3.33; however, this will be completely accurate only if the vitamin A is entirely in the form of retinol (see Table 1). RE can be calculated with certainty only if the relative amounts of the different forms of preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoids are known.

Retinoid compound		IU	RE		
	Conversion factor 1 RE in IU	Vitamin A activity in IU per mg compound	Conversion factor 1 RE in µg	Vitamin A activity in µg RE per mg compound	
Retinol	2.22	3330	1	1000	
Retinyl acetate	3.33	2900	1.15	870	
Retinyl palmitate		1830	1.78	550	
β-carotene		1667	6	167	
Other provitamin carotenoids	10	833	12	83	

Table 1: The vitamin A activity (in IU and RE) of the three main retinoid compounds and provitamin carotenoids

Sources: WHO (1965), Perrotta et al. (2003), Health Canada (2010).

10. Table 2 shows dietary reference values for vitamin A.

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Age	Lower Reference Nutrient Intake ^a	Estimated Average Requirement ^b	Reference Nutrient Intake [°]
0 - 12 months	150	250	350

1 - 6 years	200	300	400
7 - 10 years	250	350	500
11 – 14 years	250	400	600
Women including girls from 11 years	250	400	600
Pregnant women	250	400	700
Women during lactation	250	400	950
Men (including boys from 15 years)	300	500	700

^a The amount of a nutrient that is considered sufficient to meet the requirements of 2.5% of the population (from SACN, 2005),

^b The intake level for a nutrient at which the needs of 50 % of the population will be met (from Department of Health, 1991).

^c The amount of a nutrient that is considered sufficient to meet the requirements of 97.5% of the population (from SACN, 2005),

Current UK Government advice on maximum intakes in relation to infant diet

11. SACN (2005) reiterated the advice that pregnant women should not consume liver, liver products or supplements containing retinol. Current advice is "*do not take vitamin A supplements, or any supplements containing vitamin A, as too much could harm your baby*" (NHS Choices, 2012).

12. For infants it is advised that liver should be avoided if solid foods are introduced before 6 months (NHS Choices, 2013). For adults and children over the age of 6 months it is recommended not to have more than one portion of liver per week because the vitamin A content in the liver can be harmful in large amounts (SACN, 2005).

13. The Department of Health recommends that all children from six months to five years old be given supplements containing vitamins A, C and D, unless they are receiving 500 ml or more of formula a day (DH, 2009). In the UK, the statutory Healthy Start scheme provides a means-tested nutritional safety net to pregnant women and families with children under four years old in very low income and disadvantaged circumstances. It gives vouchers for fruit and vegetables, cow's milk and formula milk as well as coupons for Healthy Start vitamin supplements. The daily dose of vitamin A in the Healthy Start vitamin drops is 233 μ g RE. There is strong advice to keep to the dose recommended on the label and not to give two supplements at the same time. Healthy breastfed infants born at term, and over the age of 1 month, can be supplemented with vitamins if there is any doubt about the mother's vitamin status during pregnancy, as the infant may be born with low vitamin stores (DH, 2012).

Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion

Preformed vitamin A uptake and distribution

14. The absorption of retinol is around 80% if an individual consumes sufficient levels of fat (EVM, 2003; SACN, 2005). Dietary retinyl esters are hydrolysed to retinol in the intestinal lumen by the action of pancreatic triglyceride lipase and intestinal brush border phospholipase B (During and Harrison, 2007; Penniston and Tanumihardjo, 2006). Retinol is the form that is absorbed into the intestinal mucosal cells (During and Harrison, 2007). In the intestinal mucosa, re-esterification takes place to enable incorporation into chylomicra, which are secreted into the lymphatic circulation (EVM, 2003). The retinyl esters in chylomicra are then transported into the blood stream. Once in circulation, the chylomicra are broken down by serum lipases, resulting in release of the retinyl esters. Retinyl esters are subsequently stored in the liver (EVM, 2003). It has been suggested that retinol uptake is facilitated by proteins in the cell membrane (During and Harrison, 2007). The uptake and distribution of preformed vitamin A is illustrated in Figure 2.

15. Serum retinol concentrations are homeostatically controlled to remain constant despite variations in the dietary supply of retinol. Retinol is secreted from the liver bound to plasma retinol-binding protein (RBP) and subsequently distributed to peripheral tissues as a retinol-RBP-transthyretin complex (IOM, 2001). Once it reaches its target cells, retinol is converted to retinoic acid which binds to a specific receptor (SACN, 2005).

Provitamin A carotenoid uptake and distribution

16. For provitamin A carotenoids to be absorbed intestinally, they must be released from the food matrix and incorporated into micelles. Hence, carotenoid absorption requires the presence of fat in a meal. The proportion of β -carotene absorbed is constant for intakes of up to 20-30 mg, but is lower at higher intakes (SCF, 2000; Li and Tso, 2003). Provitamin A carotenoids are dissolved in lipid droplets in the stomach and pass into the duodenum, where they are taken up into micelles which have a finite capacity for carotenoid incorporation (Tanumihardjo, 2002). Like retinol, provitamin A carotenoids are then taken up by enterocytes (Tanumihardjo, 2002). Depending on the type of carotenoid, they can either be transported intact into the lymphatic circulatory system or converted into retinal or retinol through the actions of the enzymes β -carotene 15,15'-monooxygenase (BCMO1) and retinaldehyde reductase (During and Harrison, 2007; Tanumihardjo, 2002). Unhydrolysed carotenoids are transported to the liver in chylomicrons where they are stored (IOM, 2001). The uptake and distribution of provitamin A carotenoid is also illustrated in Figure 2.

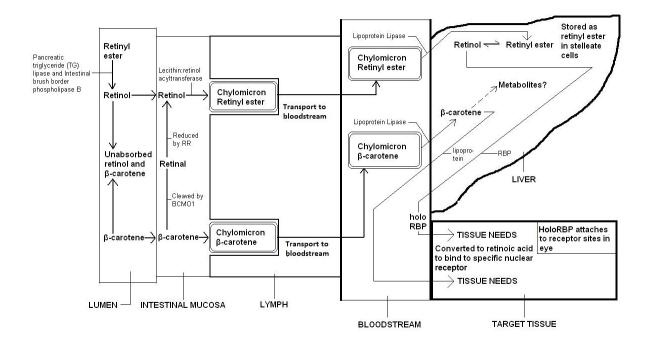


Figure 2: An overview of retinol and β -carotene absorption and distribution. Adapted from Parker (1996). Abbreviations: BCMO1 - β -carotene 15,15'monooxygenase; holo-RBP – retinol bound to retinol binding protein; RBP – retinol binding protein; RR - retinaldehyde reductase.

Metabolism

17. Retinol is oxidised to retinaldehyde by the action of cytosolic and microsomal retinol dehydrogenases (Rhee and Plutzky, 2012), which are members of the alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) families. These include ubiquitously expressed ADH3, as well as ADH1 and ADH4 in some tissues. All three isoforms can oxidize all-trans retinol to all-trans retinaldehyde. This in turn is oxidised irreversibly to retinoic acid through the action of the enzyme, retinaldehyde dehydrogenase. Retinoic acid is then metabolised by CYP26 to oxidative metabolites.

18. Carotenoids can be converted into retinaldehyde through the action of BCMO1, which carries out a central cleavage of the carotene. Retinaldehyde is then metabolised as described in paragraph 17. Alternatively, carotenoids can be converted to apocarotenal by BCMO2 through an asymmetrical cleavage. Subsequently, apocarotenal is converted into apocarotenoic acid and, finally, into retinoic acid. Retinoic acid is transported into cells by cellular retinoic acid binding protein and interacts with the nuclear receptor (D'Ambrosio et al., 2011; Rhee and Plutzky, 2012). As well as in the intestinal mucosa (Figure 2), BCMO1 and 2 are expressed in the liver, lungs and kidneys. They may be important for local synthesis

of vitamin A, but to date no quantitative estimates have been made of extra-intestinal enzymatic bioconversion of provitamin A (Erdman et al., 2012).

19. Vitamin A and derivative compounds can be conjugated in the liver with glucuronic acid or taurine (EVM, 2003; IOM, 2001).

Factors that affect provitamin A carotenoid bioavailability and bioconversion

20. A number of factors have been identified that affect the bioavailability and bioconversion of provitamin A carotenoids to retinol in the gut (Bender, 2003; Lietz et al., 2010; Tang, 2010). These include:

Species of carotenoid Linkages to alkyl groups Amount in a meal Matrix properties of the plant in which the carotenoid is contained Nutritional status Genetic factors/predisposition Food preparation method

21. When vitamin A status is adequate, approximately 50% to 85% of the total body retinol is stored in the liver (Ross, 1999). Retinol returning to the liver is reesterified before storage in the form of retinyl esters in hepatic stellate cells along with droplets of lipid (Groff et al., 1995). Stellate cells have the property to increase storage capability linearly with increasing retinol levels. However, hypervitaminosis can result once storage capacity is saturated (Ross, 1999). β -carotene is stored in adipose cells in fat depots throughout the body (Bucci, 1998). However, due to its slow release from adipose cells, serum levels of β -carotene are principally indicators of recent intake and not of body stores (Ross, 1999).

Excretion

22. The excretion of vitamin A metabolites has been reported to be about 60% in urine and 40% in faeces (Gropper et al., 2005). The amount of excreted vitamin A compounds in bile increases if the level of vitamin A in liver exceeds a critical concentration, suggesting a protective mechanism (IOM, 2001). The oxidised products of vitamin A metabolism, conjugated to glucuronic acid or taurine, are excreted into the bile for further elimination in the faeces (Gropper et al., 2005). Faecal metabolites include retinoic acid glucuronide and 4-oxoretinoic acid glucuronide, which can be absorbed and returned to the liver through enterohepatic circulation. No information was found on excretion specifically in infants or children.

Toxicity

23. An excess of vitamin A in the body is termed hypervitaminosis A, and is associated with various adverse effects. The most frequent cause of

hypervitaminosis A in infants is overdosage with vitamin A supplements because parents are unaware of the risks (where supplements are prescribed, this may be because the physician has failed to emphasise the dangers of excessive vitamin A intake) (Perrotta et al., 2003). Hypervitaminosis A from natural food sources is less frequently reported (Perrotta et al., 2003). Toxicity appears to occur when the amount of vitamin A in plasma exceeds the capacity of RBPs, leading to a change in the ratio of free retinol to retinol-RBP complexes (Bendich and Langseth, 1989). In this situation, free retinol binds to lipoproteins (Bendich and Langseth, 1989). While high intakes of preformed vitamin A can be acutely toxic, high intakes of β -carotene and other provitamin A carotenoids from food alone have not been found to cause toxicity, although they can lead to a yellow appearance (Allen and Haskell, 2003). Penniston and Tanumihardjo (2006) have proposed that regulation of the cleavage of vitamin A precursors to retinal makes it almost impossible to develop hypervitaminosis A from high intake of provitamin A carotenoids.

24. Acute vitamin A toxicity is rare and more likely to occur following ingestion of high dose supplements than following high intakes of vitamin A from food (EVM, 2002). Commonly observed clinical features of acute toxicity in children include anorexia, bulging fontanelles, drowsiness, lethargy, irritability and vomiting (Perrotta et al., 2003) which may be associated with raised intracranial pressure. The bulging of fontanelles is a consequence of increased cerebrospinal fluid volume, but in most cases, this has no significant effect on intracranial pressure and resolves spontaneously within 72 hours once the source of high exposure is eliminated (WHO, 2011). Other symptoms of acute toxicity usually resolve within a week (Perrotta et al., 2003), and full recovery normally takes less than a month (Perrotta et al., 2003). Weight, dietary factors (fat content) and general health are all crucial factors in determining the dose of vitamin A that leads to acute toxicity (Bendich and Langseth, 1989). Clinical features of acute vitamin A toxicity in adults include blurred vision, hypercalcaemia and peripheral neuropathy.

25. Chronic vitamin A toxicity is reported more commonly than acute toxicity (Perrotta et al., 2003). Clinical manifestations are variable, but often include bulging fontanelles (in infants), alopecia, anorexia, bone and joint pain, thickening and fissuring of the lips, photophobia, conjunctivitis, hepatoxicity, enlarged spleen, skin desquamation and anaemia (EVM 2003; Perrotta et al., 2003).

Reports of vitamin A toxicity in infants

26. Marie and Sée (1951) described four cases of acute vitamin A toxicity. Three infants aged 3, 3½ and 7 months all rapidly developed a bulging fontanelle and nausea, leading to hospitalisation. In the past 12 to 24 hours, all three had received the same vitamin supplement containing approximately 105,000 µg RE. The intake was equivalent to a single dose of 18,750 µg RE/kg bw for the 3½ month old based on a reported weight of 5.6 kg, and to 15,000 µg RE/kg bw for the 7 month old based on a reported weight of 7 kg. No weight was provided for the infant aged 3 months. In the fourth case, a 2 month old infant rapidly developed a prominent bulge of the fontanelle after receiving approximately 15,000 µg RE per day for six days through prescribed nose drops, and was subsequently hospitalised. The intake was

equivalent to 3,200 μg RE/kg bw/day for the 2 month old based on a reported weight of 4.7 kg.

27. A randomised, double-blind placebo-controlled trial was carried out in Nepal to assess the safety of vitamin A supplementation in early infancy. A total of 10 cases of bulging fontanelle were diagnosed in the group aged one to six months, which had received a single dose of 30,000 μ g RE (n=1349; prevalence = 0.7%) (West et al., 1992). Exposure on a body weight basis could not be calculated since infants' weights were not reported in the study.

28. In a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial assessing the safety of vitamin A supplementation in early infancy, participants (n=167) received doses of either 7,500 μ g RE/day of vitamin A or a placebo at about 6.5, 11.8 and 17.0 weeks of age. Twelve infants supplemented with vitamin A were recorded to have bulging fontanelles at some stage. Other side-effects, including drowsiness, anorexia and vomiting, were associated with the occurrence of bulging fontanelles (Bacqui et al., 1995). Exposure on a body weight basis could not be calculated since infants' weights were not reported in the study.

29. A case of bulging fontanelles, dry skin, hepatosplenomegaly, thrombocytopenia and severe anaemia was reported in a 3 month old infant who had been prescribed an aqueous solution of retinyl palmitate from 10 days after birth for approximately 80 days. The infant had been mistakenly given a dose of 20,000 µg RE/day (Perrotta et al., 2002). The intake was equivalent to 3,800 µg RE/kg bw/day based on a reported weight of 5.2 kg at 3 months.

30. Myhre et al. (2003) undertook a meta-analysis of case reports of bulging fontanelles suspected of being induced by excessive intakes of retinol. Cases of hypervitaminosis A (100 in total) in the age range, 0-2 years, were identified through a search of the scientific literature (50 chronic and 50 acute). The COT concluded that most relevant among the cases described were those meeting the following criteria: 1) 0-2 years old, 2) oral exposure and 3) intake of vitamin A at levels \leq 1,000 µg RE/kg bw/day. Table 3 lists these cases.

Total dose RE (μg RE/kg bw/day)	Number of subjects	Source of vitamin A	Reference
300	3	Chicken liver	Carpenter et al., 1987
600	1	Supplement - Em/w-misc	Lippe et al., 1981
800	2	Supplement - Em/w-misc	Persson et al., 1965
800	1	Supplement - Em/w-misc	Scherl et al., 1992
800	1	Supplement - In oil	Berrey, 1950
900	1	Supplement - Em/w-misc	Eid et al., 1990
1,000	1	Unknown	Siegel and Spackman, 1972
800 900	1 1 1 1	Supplement - In oil Supplement - Em/w-misc Unknown	Berrey, 1950 Eid et al., 1990

Table 3. List of case reports of hypervitaminosis A meeting the specified criteria.

Em/w-misc. Emulsified/water-miscible.

31. The COT considered that the reports of effects at doses below 800 μ g RE/kg bw/day related to unusual circumstances (Pierre Robin syndrome and other possible genetic disorders), and that overall, a dose of 800 μ g RE/kg bw per day should be viewed as the LOAEL.

Toxicity of vitamin A in population groups other than infants

32. The SCF (2002) identified four other adverse effects of vitamin A that had been observed in population groups other than infants. These were hepatotoxicity, changes in lipid metabolism, changes in bone density, and teratogenicity.

33. The lowest dose associated with documented hepatotoxicity was a daily intake of 7,500 μ g RE/day for six years in a 45 year old woman from an over-the-counter dietary supplement (Kowalski et al., 1994).

34. The SCF also identified 7,500 μ g RE/day as the lowest dose associated with changes in lipid metabolism, based on the results of a placebo-controlled trial involving 2,297 subjects with a median age of 63 years old (Cartmel et al., 1999). Administration of 7,500 μ g/RE per day for four years resulted in a 2-3% increase in blood cholesterol concentration, which could lead to an increased risk of cardiovascular disease.

35. As regards changes in bone density, the SCF identified a study by Melhus et al. (1998), in which intakes greater than 1,500 μ g RE/day were associated with reduced bone density and increased rates of fracture in women aged 40-76 years in comparison with intakes of less than 500 μ g RE/day. The SCF commented that it was likely that middle aged and elderly women were the group most sensitive to such effects. It was not known whether the same dose-response relationship would apply in men or in children.

36. Retinoids are teratogenic in animal studies, and isotretinoin, a synthetic retinoid (also known as 13-cis-retinoic acid), was identified as a human teratogen in 1985, at which time it was prescribed for severe forms of acne (EVM, 2002). Major malformations of the heart, thymus, face, jaw, ears, palate and brain were among the congenital anomalies that occurred in 94 confirmed cases in the US (EVM, 2002). An elevated risk of isotretinoin-related malformations was observed if the maternal oral dose exceeded 8,300 µg RE/day (EVM, 2002; Hendrickx et al., 2000).

37. The SCF (2002) identified 3,000 μ g/RE/day as the lowest dose that had been associated with teratogenicity. This was in a study by Rothman et al. (1995) involving 22,748 pregnant women whose retinol intakes from food and dietary supplements were assessed by questionnaire. The percentages of babies with cranial-neural-crest defects were 0.52%, 0.62% and 1.06% in women with intakes from food of 0-1,500 μ g RE/day, 1,500-3,000 μ g RE/day and \geq 3,000 μ g RE/day, respectively. The EVM concluded that a precise threshold for teratogenic effects was uncertain, but that it was prudent to assume it could be 3,000 μ g RE/day based on the Rothman et al. (1995) study (EVM, 2002).

Allergenicity

38. Vitamin A plays an integral role in the function of the immune system. Currently available evidence does not indicate a hazard of allergenicity associated with consumption of vitamin A.

Tolerable Upper Level

39. The SCF (2002) noted that the critical adverse effects of high intakes of vitamin A were different at different stages of life. For example, bulging fontanelles were the critical outcome in infants, decreased bone density and increased bone fracture in middle aged and elderly women, and teratogenicity in women of childbearing age. Hepatotoxicity and altered lipid metabolism were also relevant for adults. The lowest doses of preformed vitamin A identified by SCF as causing these adverse effects are shown in table 4.

Effect	Lowest dose (per person)			
Bulging fontanelles	7,500 µg RE, single dose			
Hepatotoxicity	7,500 µg RE/day			
Altered lipid metabolism	7,500 µg RE/day			
Decreased bone density/increased bone fracture	1,500 µg RE/day			
Teratogenicity	>3,000 µg RE/day			

Table 4: Lowest doses identified as associated with adverse effects (SCF, 2002)

40. Table 5 shows the tolerable upper intake levels (ULs¹) for preformed vitamin A that were established by the SCF for different age groups. The UL of 3,000 μ g RE/day for adults was based on the teratogenicity data of Rothman et al. (1995), but was considered to be relevant also to adults other than pregnant women since it was only 2.5-fold less than the lowest chronic daily intake that had been associated with hepatotoxicity. The ULs for infants and children were extrapolated from the 3,000 μ g RE/day for adults, on the basis of body weight and differences in basal metabolic rate (SCF, 2002). Using this scaling (body weight^{0.75}), the SCF set a UL of 800 μ g/RE day for children aged 1-3 years. A UL for the age group below one year was not proposed.

Table 5: Tolerable Upper Intake Levels for various age groups established by SCF (2002)

Age (years) Tolerable Upper Intake Level for preformed vitamin A

¹ The *Tolerable Upper Intake Level* (UL) refers to the highest level of daily nutrient intake that is likely to pose no risk of adverse health effects for almost all individuals in the general population. As intake increases above the UL, the potential risk of adverse effects increases.

	(retinol and retinyl esters) (µg RE/day)
1-3	800
4-6	1,100
7-10	1,500
11-14	2,000
15-17	2,600
Adults	3,000

41. A UL for infants aged 0-12 months has, however, been proposed by the Institute of Medicine (IOM, 2001). This was 600 µg RE/day of preformed vitamin A, derived by applying an uncertainty factor of 10 to a LOAEL of 6000 µg RE (identified by the IOM as the lowest dose associated with bulging fontanelles (Persson et al., 1965)). The factor of 10 was "to account for the uncertainty of extrapolating a LOAEL to a no observed adverse effect level (NOAEL) for a non-severe and reversible effect (i.e., bulging fontanelle) and the interindividual variability in sensitivity" (IOM, 2001). The IOM also noted that there was plenty of evidence to support the reversibility of bulging fontanelles in infants if supplementation ceased.

42. The COT concluded that a tolerable upper intake for infants should not be derived by metabolic scaling from an effect (teratogenicity) that is not relevant to this age group. Also, the relevance of hepatotoxicity, bone effects and lipid changes to this age group was uncertain. Therefore, the tolerable upper level should be based on the most clearly relevant endpoint, bulging fontanelles – for which the LOAEL was 800 µg/RE kg/bw per day (see paragraph 31).

43. An uncertainty factor of 4 was agreed to allow for the small number of case studies that were available, and the limited duration of exposure in those studies. A larger factor was not required because the estimation of the LOAEL on a body weight basis was conservative as it was based on body weight at the time of diagnosis (which would have been higher than when the supplementation commenced), and did not take into account non-supplemental intake. This gave a tolerable upper level (TUL) of 200 μ g/RE kg/bw per day (obtained by dividing the LOAEL of 800 μ g/RE kg/bw per day by the uncertainty factor of 4).

Occurrence of vitamin A

Breast Milk

44. Current UK government advice is that infants should be exclusively breastfed for "around the first six months of life" (DH, 2003, NHS Choices, 2012). No data could be found on the occurrence of vitamin A in colostrum in the UK or Europe, but vitamin A levels in the mature breast milk of well-nourished women in Europe are reported to be 40-70 μg RE/100 mL, the higher levels generally being seen in women whose diet included a higher intake of fats, and particularly animal fats (Ross and Harvey, 2003).

45. Only limited information is available about the impact of vitamin A supplementation on levels of vitamin A in breast milk. Bezerra et al. (2009) assessed

the effect of maternal supplementation with a single dose of 200,000 IU as retinyl palmitate immediately postpartum in a cohort of healthy Brazilian women aged 18 to 40 years in the municipality of Natal. The mean vitamin A concentrations in the breast milk of supplemented women 24 h and 30 days after dosage were 165 and 51 μ g RE/100 mL, as compared with 93 and 37 μ g RE/100 mL in control women who received no supplementation. Data provided to the EVM (2003) indicated that the highest supplemental dose available on the UK market was 2,400 μ g RE per day (i.e. 8000 IU) which is substantially lower than that used in the study of Bezerra et al. (2009). It follows that supplementation in the UK would be expected to increase the level of vitamin A in breast milk less than two-fold.

Infant formula

46. Infant formula typically contains a higher concentration of several micronutrients than breast milk, partly to account for lower absorption of nutrients from infant formula than from breast milk, but also to allow for losses during storage (Bender, 2003). Four major brands of infant formula, including whey- and casein-based, were reported to contain 63-82 μ g RE/100 mL (Leaf 2007). Information on a pack of follow-on formula for infants aged 6-12 months specified that it contained 75 μ g vitamin A (RE)/ 100 mL and that infants should be given 500-600 mL per day. The Infant Formula and Follow-on Formula (England) regulations set out the vitamin A compositional requirements in infant and follow on formula. The minimum content is 60 μ g RE/100 mL and the maximum is 180 μ g RE/100 mL (European Commission, 2006).

Food

47. In the Western diet, >70% of vitamin A is derived from preformed vitamin A whereas <30% is derived from provitamin A carotenoids (Tang, 2010). Examples of concentrations of preformed vitamin A (retinol and retinyl esters) and provitamin A carotenoids (for example β -carotene) in different foods are shown in table 6.

Food type	Concentration (µg RE/100g)	Form of vitamin A
Liver (calf, fried)	25200	Preformed vitamin A
Soft margarine (not polyunsaturated)	745	Preformed vitamin A
Boiled carrots	13402	Provitamin A carotenoids
Boiled spinach	6604	Provitamin A carotenoids
Melon, cantaloupe-type	1765	Provitamin A carotenoids
Boiled broccoli	475	Provitamin A carotenoids

Table 6: Approximate concentrations of preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoids in foods (FSA, 2002)

Supplements

48. Numerous multivitamin supplements are marketed in the UK for pre-term infants and infants aged 0-12 months. Most contain vitamin A in the form of retinyl palmitate, but some as retinyl acetate. The amount of vitamin A in daily doses of multivitamin supplements recommended by manufacturers varies between 200 and 757 μ g RE/ day (Leaf, 2007). The vitamin supplement provided under the UK government's "Healthy Start" scheme² provides 233 μ g RE/day.

Exposure

Infants exclusively fed on breast milk or infant formula

49. In calculating exposure to vitamin A, values of 800 mL and 1200 mL have been assumed for average and high-level daily consumption of breast milk or infant formula before introduction of solid foods. Bodyweight data for infants aged >4 to 6 months are from the Diet and Nutrition Survey of Infants and Young Children (DNSIYC) (DH, 2013), with an average of 7.8 kg. Since DNSIYC did not include infants younger than 4 months, a value of 5.9 kg for infants aged 0-3 months, from an older survey (DH, 1994), is applied to infants aged 0-4 months. This approach is consistent with that adopted in other COT statements related to dietary recommendations for infants.

50. Table 7 shows the estimated vitamin A intake of exclusively breastfed infants, based on the upper end of the reported range of vitamin A concentrations in breast milk from developed countries (70 μ g RE/100 mL). As discussed in paragraph 45, current levels of supplementation in the UK would be expected to increase the level of vitamin A in breast milk less than two-fold. Thus, the estimated vitamin A intake of an infant breastfed by a mother taking vitamin A dietary supplements would be less than twice the highest value of 142 μ g RE/kg bw/day in Table 7 – i.e. less than 284 μ g/kg bw/day.

51. Table 7 also shows the estimated vitamin A intake of exclusively formula fed infants, based on a vitamin A concentration at the upper end of the reported range (82 μ g RE/100 mL) (Leaf, 2007) and the maximum amount that can be added to infant formula (180 μ g RE/100 mL). For the former, all estimates are less than the TUL of 200 μ g RE/kg bw/day, whereas there are small exceedances for the latter.

	Age in months (consumption volume)					
	0-4 0-4 >4-6 >4-6 (800 mL) (1200 mL) (800 mL) (1200 mL)					
Breast milk (70 µg RE/100 mL)	95	142	72	108		
Formula milk	111	167	84	126		

Table 7. Vitamin A exposure (μ g RE/kg bw/day) from exclusive feeding on breast milk or formula milk

² http://www.healthystart.nhs.uk/

(82 µg RE/100 mL)				
Formula milk (180 µg RE/100 mL)	244	366	185	277

Infants also consuming complementary foods

52. DNSIYC collected data on 2683 4-18 month old infants whose mothers completed a 4-day food diary on their infant's diet. The total preformed vitamin A intakes from breast milk, infant formula and complementary food sources combined at ages 4-<7, 7-<10, 10-<12 and 12-<19 months, corresponding to average bodyweights of 8.1, 9.1, 9.8 and 10.9 kg, respectively, are shown in Table 8 (DH, 2013).

Table 8: Total daily intakes of preformed vitamin A (µg RE/kg bw/day) from breast milk, infant formula and complementary food sources combined, excluding supplements (DH, 2013)

		Age group (months)				
	4-<7	7-<10	10-<12	12-<19		
Mean	116	116 108 95 62				
Median	106	99	88	55		
Standard deviation	52	48	46	32		
97.5th percentile	253	253 219 203 140				

53. The contribution of infant formula to the total average vitamin A daily intake decreased from 39% at 4-<7 months to 12% at 12-<19 months. Likewise, the contribution of breast milk decreased from 15% at 4-<7 months to 2% at 12-<19 months. Commercially available infant foods provided approximately 24% throughout the first year. Other major contributors to the total intake were foods not specific to infants such as vegetables and potatoes, and milk and milk products – see Table 9 (DH, 2013).

54. DH recommends that infants should be introduced to solid foods at around six months of age. Cooked vegetables (such as parsnip, potato, sweet potato or carrot), mashed banana, avocado, cooked pear or apple, or baby rice or cereal mixed with the baby's usual milk, are recommended as suitable first complementary foods, with progression to other foods such as meat, fish, pasta, noodles, bread, chapatti, lentils, mashed rice, and full fat dairy products like cheese, yoghurt and fromage frais. By 8-9 months, the infant should be eating a wide variety of soft foods, and by 10-12 months, chopped family food can be introduced (NHS Choices, 2013). The data in Table 9 demonstrate that in fact, complementary foods are commonly introduced before 6 months, but are broadly consistent with the types of foods recommended for older infants.

		Age grou	o (months)	
Food group ^a	4-<7	7-<10	10-<12	12-<19
	%	%	%	%
Foods not specific to infants				
Cereals and cereal products	0	2	2	5
Milk and milk products	2	5	9	25
Eggs and egg dishes	0	1	1	2
Fat spreads ^a	0	2	3	6
Meat and meat products and dishes, total	3	5	6	8
Fish and fish dishes	0	1	1	1
Vegetables, potatoes	16	18	18	21
Savoury snacks	0	0	0	0
Fruit	0	0	0	1
Sugar preserves and confectionery	0	0	0	0
Beverages	0	0	0	1
Miscellaneous	1	2	2	3
Infant specific foods:				
Infant formula	39	33	30	12
of which:				
'First milk'	16	8	6	0
'Hungrier babies milk'	11	3	1	0
Follow-on milk	12	20	20	5
'Growing up milk'	0	0	1	6
Other milk products ^b	0	2	1	1
Breast milk ^c	15	8	3	2
Commercial infant foods:	23	25	23	12
of which:				
Meat and fish based products and dishes	11	14	12	7
Other savoury based foods and dishes	7	6	7	2
Fruit based foods and dishes	1	1	1	0
Cereal based foods and dishes	3	3	2	1
Snacks (sweet and savoury)	1	1	1	1
Commercial infant beverages	0	0	0	0
Average daily vitamin A intake (food sources) μg RE	943	982	931	676

Table 9: Percentage contribution of food sources to daily vitamin A intake, by age group – taken from DNSIYC (DH, 2013)

^a Some oils which are used as a condiment on bread or salads are included in this food group; however, this food group does not include cooking oils.

^b Includes hypoallergenic, goats and 'goodnight' milks.

^c A typical volume of breast milk for a full feed was estimated from MRC data (Paul et al., 1988) to be approximately 135g for infants aged 4-7 months and 100g for those aged 8 months or older. It was assumed that a feed of 10 minutes or longer was equivalent to a full feed. For a feed of less than 10 minutes duration, weights were calculated proportionately at 13.5g/min for 4-7 months and at 10g/min for 8 months and older.

55. DNSIYC was also used to estimate the intake of vitamin A from liver, based on all types of liver. Liver pate, which tends to be eaten in smaller portions than liver itself, was not included in the data (Table 10). The highest intakes averaged over the four days of the survey were evident in the 7-<10 (143 μ g/kg bw/d) and 10-<12 months old (349 μ g/kg bw/d) age categories. In most instances the intakes arose

from a single eating occasion during the survey. These data are based on very small numbers of consumers, but indicate that some infants do eat liver and the possible vitamin A intakes from this source.

Liver consumption	Age group in months				Vitamin A	Age group in months (number of consumers)			
Eiver consumption	(number of consumers)				Intake				
	4-<7 (3)	7-<10 (4)	10-<12 (5)	12-<19 (3)		4-<7 (3)	7-<10 (4)	10-<12 (5)	12-<19 (3)
Mean (g/kg bw/day)	0.34	0.91	0.73	0.19	Mean (µg/kg bw/d)	52	143	113	21
Max (g/kg bw/d)	0.44	1.73	1.81	0.39	Max (µg/kg bw/d)	77	316	407	43

Table 10: Intake of vitamin A from liver averaged over the four days of DNSIYC records.

Dietary supplements

56. Potential exposure from vitamin supplements alone at ages 0 to 12 months, based on the brand providing the highest dose of vitamin A (757 μ g RE/day), could be 128, 93, 83 and 77 μ g RE/kg bw/day for ages 0 – 4, 4 – <7, 7 – <10 and 10 – <12 months respectively. For the 0-4 month age group this could lead to total intakes of 223 and 270 μ g RE/kg bw/day respectively, at the mean and high level of consumption of breast milk. For formula fed infants the total intakes could be 239 and 295 μ g RE/kg bw/day respectively, at the mean and high level of milk consumption and the upper end of the reported range of vitamin A in formula milk, or 372 and 494 μ g RE/kg bw/day respectively, for mean and high level consumption at the maximum permitted level of vitamin A in formula milk. Together with vitamin A intake from milk and food sources (Table 8), this supplement could lead to total intakes of 209, 191 and 172 μ g RE/kg bw/day for ages 4 – <7, 7 – <10 and 10 – <12 months, respectively, at the mean and 346, 302, and 280 μ g RE/kg bw/day, respectively, at the high level of milk consumption.

57. At the dosage provided under the Healthy Start scheme (233 µg/day), the corresponding exposures could be 39, 29, 26 and 24 µg RE/kg bw/day for ages 0 – 4, 4 – <7, 7 – <10 and 10 – <12 months respectively. For the 0-4 month age group this could lead to total intakes of 134 and 237 µg RE/kg bw/day respectively, at the mean and high level of consumption of breast milk. For formula fed infants, the total intakes could be 150 and 206 µg RE/kg bw/day respectively, at the mean and high level of consumption of the reported range of vitamin A in formula milk, and 283 and 405 µg RE/kg bw/day respectively, for mean and high level milk consumption at the maximum permitted level of vitamin A in formula milk. Together with vitamin A intake from milk and food sources (Table 8), this supplement could lead to total intakes of 145, 134 and 119 µg RE/kg bw/day for ages 4 – <7, 7 – <10 and 10 – <12 months, respectively, at the mean and 282, 235, and 227 µg RE/kg bw/day, respectively, at the high level of milk consumption.

Risk characterisation

58. Based on the upper end of the reported range of vitamin A concentrations in breast milk from developed countries (70 μ g RE/100 mL), estimated exposures of exclusively breastfed infants (average and high consumers) range from 72 to 142 μ g RE/kg bw/day, depending on the age of infant, and are below the TUL of 200 μ g RE kg/bw per day.

59. It is possible that maternal use of dietary supplements containing vitamin A could increase the total exposure in breastfed infants. Based on a study in Brazilian mothers (see paragraph 45), the increase from supplements sold in the UK is likely to be less than two-fold, i.e. it would lead to intakes of less than 284 μ g RE/kg bw/day. Whilst high level consumption might cause exceedance of the TUL, it would be only by a small amount and only for a short period.

60. For infant formula containing vitamin A at the upper end of the range reported in the literature (82 μ g RE/100 mL), estimated exposures of exclusively formula fed infants (average and high consumers) range from 84 to 167 μ g RE/kg bw/day, depending on the age of infant, and are below the TUL. However, if vitamin A were present at the maximal level which is legally permitted in formula (180 μ g RE/100 mL), exposures could exceed the TUL in the age group 0 – 4 months for both average (244 μ g RE/kg bw/day) and high intake (366 μ g RE/kg bw/day) and at >4 to 6 months for high intake (277 μ g RE/kg bw/day). Average intake in the >4 to 6 months age group could give an estimated exposure slightly below the TUL at 185 μ g/RE kg/bw per day.

61. DNSIYC provided data on the total preformed vitamin A intakes of infants aged 4-18 months from several sources (breast milk, infant formula and complementary foods) with and without dietary supplements. The mean estimated exposure in the absence of supplements was approximately half the TUL (range 62 to 116 µg RE/kg bw/day). However, the 97.5th percentile intakes exceeded the TUL for some age groups (range from 140 to 253 µg RE/kg bw/day). This exceedance of the TUL is small. Moreover, the data are adjusted using average bodyweights for each age group, and it is possible that higher consuming infants have higher than average bodyweights. Thus, while the possibility of adverse effects cannot be excluded, they would not be expected to occur in other than a very small proportion of infants, if at all.

62. The available data specifically on consumption of liver by infants indicate that those consuming large amounts could exceed the TUL by about 75%. In these data the vitamin A intake, primarily from a single eating occasion is averaged over the 4 reporting days of DNSIYC, and it is unclear if the TUL would be exceeded if the intake were averaged over a longer period of time. However, this assessment suggests that the current Government recommendation that infants over the age of 6 months should not have more than one portion of liver per week is appropriate.

63. Some supplements marketed for infants could lead to large increases in vitamin A intake if taken at the highest recommended doses. The brand with the highest recommended dosage could provide an intake that is more than half of the TUL at age 0-4 months (128 μ g RE/ kg bw/day). This could result in total intake above the TUL for exclusively breastfed infants, and increase the potential for

exceedance of the TUL for formula-fed infants, and high consumers of complementary foods rich in vitamin A. The recommended dosage provided under the Healthy Start scheme (233 μ g/day), would provide a lower exposure (39 μ g RE/day at age 0-4 months), and any resultant exceedances of the TUL are likely to be minor.

Conclusions

64. There are two dietary sources of vitamin A – preformed vitamin A in foods of animal origin, and provitamin A carotenoids in fruit and vegetables. The food with the highest concentration of vitamin A is liver.

65. Preformed vitamin A is more active biologically than provitamin A carotenoids. Vitamin A in the form of retinol has various biological functions in the body, relating among other things, to cell differentiation, particularly during embryonic development, vision and the immune response.

66. Retinyl esters are hydrolysed in the lumen of the intestine to retinol, which crosses the intestinal mucosa. Retinol is then re-esterified to retinyl esters which are transported into the lymph and bloodstream and stored in the liver. Provitamin A carotenoids can either be converted to retinol or remain intact and stored in fat depots. Retinol is released from the liver bound to retinol binding protein (RBP) and delivered to target tissues where it is converted to oxidised metabolites or retinoic acid, which can modulate transcription factors. Excretion in the form of various metabolites (4-oxoretinol, retinyl β -glucuronide and 14-hydroxy-4,14-retro-retinol) is mostly via the kidneys and, to a lesser extent, via the bile.

67. Toxicity of vitamin A is related to high intake of preformed vitamin A, and does not result from high intakes of provitamin A carotenoids. It is most often reported after chronic exposure. Important adverse effects include bulging fontanelles in infants, hepatotoxicity, changes in bone density, changes in lipid metabolism and teratogenicity.

68. The COT concluded that derivation of a TUL for infants should be based on bulging fontanelles as the most relevant adverse effect in that age group. A LOAEL of 800 μ g RE/kg bw/day was identified as a point of departure, based on a number of case reports of infants developing bulging fontanelles following vitamin A supplementation at this level. An uncertainty factor of 4 was applied to allow for uncertainties relating to the small number of case studies that were available, and the limited duration of exposure in those studies. A larger factor was not required because the estimation of the NOAEL on a body weight basis was conservative as it was based on body weight at the time of diagnosis, and related to supplemental intake. Thus, a TUL of 200 μ g RE/kg bw/day was established.

69. Where mothers are not taking vitamin A supplements, the estimated exposure of exclusively breastfed infants is below the TUL and not a health concern. Maternal use of dietary supplements could increase the exposure. Whilst available data do not allow precise prediction of effects on breast milk in mothers taking supplements on

the UK market, the increase in vitamin A concentrations is likely to be less than twofold. Thus, any resultant exceedance of TUL would only be minor. Moreover, it would be for only a short period of time.

70. Estimated exposures based on reported concentrations of vitamin A in infant formula are below the TUL and not a health concern. However if vitamin A were present in formula at the maximum legally permitted level (180 μ g RE/100 mL), resulting exposures could exceed the TUL by up to about 80 %.

71. Data on total exposures to vitamin A from breast milk, infant formula and complementary foods in UK infants aged 4-18 months indicate that the TUL could be exceeded by up to about 25% at high levels of consumption. This exceedance is small. Moreover, adjustments were made using average body weight data for each age group, and it is possible that higher consuming infants have higher than average bodyweights. Thus, while the possibility of adverse effects cannot be excluded, they would not be expected to occur in other than a very small proportion of infants, if at all.

72. Limited data on liver consumption by infants indicate that frequent consumption of liver could lead to exceedance of the TUL, and that the current Government recommendation that infants over the age of 6 months should not have more than one portion of liver per week is appropriate.

73. Dietary multivitamin supplements marketed for infants in the UK were also evaluated. The brand with the highest recommended dosage could produce an estimated exposure of more than half the TUL. This could result in total intake above the TUL for exclusively breastfed infants, and increase the potential for exceedance of the TUL for formula-fed infants, and high consumers of complementary foods rich in vitamin A. The recommended dosage provided under the Healthy Start scheme would provide a lower exposure, and any resultant exceedances of the TUL are likely to be minor.

74. Overall the COT concluded that there is potential for some infants to exceed the TUL under the following circumstances:

- if exclusively breastfed by mothers taking dietary supplements containing high levels of vitamin A,
- if fed with infant formula at the upper limit of the retinol content allowed by regulation,
- if given high dose vitamin A supplements
- if consuming liver more than once per week

The possibility of adverse effects from such exceedances cannot be excluded, but if they do occur, it is likely to be in only a very small proportion of infants.

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Abbreviations

ADH BCMO1/2 COMA COT	Alcohol dehydrogenase β-carotene 15, 15' monooxygenases Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy Committee on Toxicity of Chemicals in Food, Consumer Products and the Environment
CYP	Cytochrome P450
DH	Department of Health
DNSIYC	Diet and Nutrition Survey of Infants and Young Children
EVM	The UK Expert Group on Vitamins and Minerals
IU	International Unit
LOAEL	Lowest Observed Adverse Effect Level
NHS	National Health Service
NOAEL	No Observed Adverse Effect Level
RBP	Retinol Binding Protein
RE	Retinol Equivalent
RR	Retinaldehyde reductase
SACN	Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition
SCF	The European Union Scientific Committee on Food
TUL	Tolerable Upper Level
UL	Upper Level
WHO	World Health Organization of the United Nations

Search Strategy

General Vitamin A exposure search Websites interrogated –

- EFSA
- COT
- FSA

Scientific publications literature search through Pubmed

Specific search terms:

Vitamin A AND breast milk

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable. **Exclusion Criteria** –

- Supplementation research in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Deficiency related research

Vitamin A AND infant formula

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable. **Exclusion Criteria** –

- Supplementation studies in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Infant formulas in non-EU countries

Vitamin A AND hypervitaminosis

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable. **Exclusion Criteria** –

- Supplementation studies in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Hypervitaminosis in adults

Vitamin A AND infant diet

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable.

Exclusion Criteria –

- Supplementation studies in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Infant diet in undeveloped countries
- Children's diet (above >2 years) in developed countries

Vitamin A AND weaning

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable. **Exclusion Criteria** –

- Supplementation studies in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Infant weaning in undeveloped countries
- Children's diet (above >2 years) in developed countries

Retinol AND exposure

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable.

Exclusion Criteria –

- Supplementation studies in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries
- Adult retinol exposure
- Deficiency related research

The above mentioned search terms were also used in google. It identified latest government advice and opinions.

Vitamin A AND Supplementation

Search Dates (From/To) - From January 2002 to present*

*Some papers pre-2002 were included if it felt they added value to the paper, particularly with regards to papers which identified previous cases of chronic and acute vitamin A toxicity and where a dose which lead to toxicity was identifiable. **Exclusion Criteria** –

- Supplementation research in undeveloped countries
- Supplementation programs in undeveloped countries