

1 **Pre-conceptional maternal vitamin B12 supplementation improves offspring**
2 **neurodevelopment at 2 years of age: PRIYA trial**

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34 **Abstract**

35 **Background:** Nutritional interventions during the first 1000 days of life improves lifelong
36 health. Better pre-conceptual maternal nutrition improves the nutrition of the early embryo.
37 Vitamins B12 and folate are important for fetal neural development. Vitamin B12 deficiency
38 is common in India.

39 **Methods:** In the Pune Rural Intervention in Young Adolescents (PRIYA) adolescents (N=557,
40 226 females) were provided with vitamin B12 (2µg/day) with or without multiple
41 micronutrients, or a placebo, from preconception until delivery. All groups received mandatory
42 iron and folic acid. We used the Bayley's Scale of Infant Development (BSID-III) at 24-42
43 months of age to investigate effects on offspring neurodevelopment. We examined cord blood
44 concentrations of brain-derived neurotropic factor (BDNF).

45 **Results:** Participants in the three groups had similar baseline B12 levels. These improved in
46 the B12 supplemented groups at pre-conceptual and pregnancy (28 weeks gestation)
47 measurements, reflected in higher cord holo-TC levels compared to the placebo.
48 Neurodevelopmental outcomes are available for 74 children. Offspring in the B12 alone group
49 (n=21) performed better than the placebo (n=27) on cognition (p=0.044) and language
50 (p=0.020) domains (adjusted for maternal baseline B12 levels). There were no differences
51 between the B12+MMN (n=26) and placebo group. Cord blood BDNF levels were highest in
52 the B12 alone group (not statistically significant).

53 **Conclusion:** Pre-conceptual vitamin B12 supplementation improved maternal B12 status
54 and offspring neurodevelopment at 2 years of age. The usefulness of cord BDNF as a marker
55 of brain development needs further investigation. Our results highlight the importance of
56 intervening in the pre-conceptual period.

57 **Key words:** Vitamin B12, pre-conception, supplementation, neurodevelopmental outcome,
58 offspring

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73 1.0 Introduction

74 The developing fetus is dependent on its mother for its nutrition. Maternal undernutrition before
75 and during pregnancy affects fetal growth and development, the effects of which may predispose
76 an individual to undesirable outcomes in later life. This concept is called ‘fetal programming’.
77 This is the backbone for the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) paradigm
78 (1,2). Pregnancy and the first two years of life (1000 days) are considered the most crucial window
79 for programming (3).

80 Maternal nutritional factors (both macro and micronutrients) influence neurodevelopmental
81 processes *in utero*, such as neurogenesis, myelination, synaptogenesis, and cortical brain growth
82 (3). Vitamins B12 and folate are of special interest due to their effects on cellular growth (DNA
83 synthesis, and epigenetic regulation by methylation) mediated by the one carbon metabolism
84 pathway (4). Offspring of mothers with low maternal vitamin B12 and folate during pregnancy
85 have a higher risk of neural tube defects and neurodevelopmental disorders (autism, ADHD),
86 poorer cognitive development and smaller brain volumes in childhood (5–8). In animal models
87 (rats), offspring of mothers exposed to a high folate and low vitamin B12 diet show lower levels
88 of the neurotrophic factor Brain Derived Neurotrophic Factor (BDNF) in the brain, and poorer
89 cognitive function (9,10).

90 In India, vitamin B12 deficiency is widely prevalent in pregnant women (50-70%) (11,12) and
91 is attributable to the socio-cultural practice of vegetarianism and poor economic status (13–
92 16). This deficiency is associated with a range of adverse pregnancy and offspring health
93 outcomes (17). In prospective birth cohorts (the Pune Maternal Nutrition study and the IAEA
94 B12 study) from western India, we have earlier shown that exposure to low maternal vitamin
95 B12 *in utero* is associated with poorer cognitive functioning at the age of 2 and 9 years in the
96 offspring (18,19). However, public health policy in India mandates only iron and folic acid
97 supplementation to women in the reproductive age group, and during pregnancy and lactation.
98 A randomized controlled trial in South India showed that supplementing 50 µg/day oral B12
99 from 14 weeks of pregnancy until 6 weeks postpartum improved B12 concentrations in breast
100 milk, the vitamin B12 status of infants at 6 weeks and infant cognitive function at 30 months
101 of age (20,21).

102 Important milestones in fetal neural development such as neural tube closure are completed by
103 26-28 days of gestation (22). The majority of pregnancies in India are unplanned, and by the
104 time pregnancy is detected (typically between 10-14 weeks gestation) this early developmental
105 window is lost. Pre-conceptional intervention will ensure that the mother has improved vitamin
106 stores during the early neurodevelopmental period. The success of pre-conceptional folic acid
107 supplementation in preventing neural tube defects is well known (23–25). Few studies have
108 examined the effects of pre-conceptional maternal micronutrient supplementation on offspring
109 neurodevelopment in India. This approach will expand the 1000 days concept to include the
110 pre-conceptional period.

111 The Pune Rural Intervention in Young Adolescents (PRIYA) is a pre-conceptional vitamin B12
112 and multi micronutrient supplementation trial in adolescent participants of the Pune Maternal
113 Nutrition Study. We report neurodevelopmental outcomes at 2 years of age in the offspring of
114 female participants of the trial. We hypothesised that pre-conceptional B12 supplementation in
115 the mothers would contribute to better neurodevelopmental outcomes in their offspring.

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119 2.0 Material and Methods

120 2.1 *PRIYA* trial

121 The *PRIYA* trial methods have been previously published (26). Briefly, The Pune Maternal
122 Nutrition Study (PMNS) is a pre-conceptional observational birth cohort set up in 1993 (Figure
123 1). Non-pregnant women were recruited from six villages around Pune and those who became
124 pregnant were followed through pregnancy. Seven hundred and sixty-two children were born
125 and followed up serially. At age ~17 years, 690 participants from the PMNS cohort (11) were
126 screened for inclusion in the *PRIYA* trial. Of these, 133 were excluded due to severe vitamin
127 B12 deficiency or systemic illnesses. Five hundred and fifty-seven (266 females) participants
128 were randomized (Figure 1) to receive either a placebo, B12 (2µg/day) + multiple
129 micronutrients (MMN) or B12 alone (2µg/day). The composition of the MMN tablet was
130 guided by the WHO/UNICEF/UNU international multiple micronutrient preparation
131 (UNIMMAP), excluding folic acid because the mandated IFA tablets (100 mg elemental Iron
132 and 500 µg folic acid once a week) were given to all participants as per Government of India
133 recommendations. Female participants in the trial received supplementation daily until their
134 first delivery. They and the study team were blinded to the vitamin/micronutrient
135 supplementation.

136 Participants were followed up regularly for any health problems, and marriages were recorded.
137 Married women were monitored to detect pregnancy which was confirmed by a urine
138 pregnancy test. At 28 weeks gestation, mothers visited the Diabetes Unit, KEM Hospital
139 Research Center, Pune for evaluation. This included socio demographic information (assessed
140 using the Standard of Living Index questionnaire of the NFHS of India), anthropometry,
141 physical examination and blood measures of circulating vitamins B12, folate, B2 and B6. At
142 birth, delivery details and the baby's size were recorded. Maternal and cord blood samples were
143 collected.

144 These measurements were conducted in participants at baseline, 6-12 months after the start of
145 the intervention (at ~18 years of age), at 28 weeks gestation, and in cord blood. A Hemogram
146 was measured on a Beckman Coulter analyzer (Miami, Florida, USA) on the day of the
147 collection. Plasma vitamin B12 and folate were measured using a microbiological assay and
148 total homocysteine, vitamin B2 and B6 by HPLC as described in the *PRIYA* trial methods
149 publication (26). Plasma BDNF was measured in cord blood using ELISA (XpressBio)
150 (Frederick, USA)

151 2.2 *Neurodevelopmental assessments*

152 The offspring born in the trial were followed up every 6 months until 2 years of age, for
153 measurements of their growth. Once they reached 24 months of age, the parents were
154 approached regarding participation in the neuro-cognitive study, and their written informed
155 consent was obtained. An appointment was scheduled for the neurodevelopmental assessment
156 at the Child Development Center (TDH center), KEM Hospital, Pune. The child and mother
157 were transported to the center from their home on the morning of the assessment.

158 The neurodevelopmental assessment was performed using the Bayley's Scale of Infant
159 Development (BSID-III) (27). The BSID-III assesses the developmental status of infants from
160 1 to 42 months of age. The scales assess five domains across three main subscales: 1) cognitive
161 - which includes items such as attention to familiar and unfamiliar objects, looking for a fallen
162 object, and pretend play, 2) language - which assesses receptive and expressive language, via
163 recognition of objects and people, following directions, and naming objects and pictures, and
164 3) motor - which assesses gross and fine motor skills such as grasping, sitting, stacking blocks,

165 and climbing. The assessment was performed by trained clinical psychologists certified to
166 perform the BSID-III. Testing was carried out in a quiet room, with a parent or guardian
167 present, and instructions were provided in a language that was comfortable for the child. All
168 children were assessed within a time window of 24 to 42 months of age. Each test protocol was
169 independently reviewed and scored by two raters.

170 The BSID-III test yields raw scores based on the performance of the child on test items for
171 cognitive, expressive, and receptive communication, and fine and gross motor skills. The raw
172 scores were converted into age standardized scaled scores as recommended in the manual.
173 Summation of the scaled scores yields 3 composite scores for the cognitive, language and motor
174 skills domains. We used the composite scores in our analysis. Composite scores were
175 categorized into average, below or above average performance, based on standardized criteria
176 provided in the manual, where average is 100 with SD of 15 and a score of <85 is considered
177 to be below average (27).

178 As part of ongoing assessments in the PMNS cohort, maternal IQ was assessed in some of the
179 mothers at age 22~24 years using the Weschler's Adult Intelligence Scale-IV (WAIS-IV).

180 *2.3 Ethical considerations*

181 Details of community participation in the planning of this trial has been described earlier (26).
182 The trial was approved by the KEM Hospital Research Centre Ethics committee (no 1242) and
183 monitored by a Data Safety Monitoring Board (DSMB) and a Scientific Advisory Committee
184 (SAC). The trial was registered with the CTRI (2012/12/003212) and ISRCTN (32921044).
185 Neurodevelopmental assessment of the offspring was also approved by the Institutional ethics
186 committee of the KEM Hospital research center and registered in (clinical trials.gov ID:
187 NCT03088189).

188 *2.4 Statistical Analysis*

189 The purpose of our analysis was to see if pre-conceptual B12 and micronutrient
190 supplementation in the mothers led to improvement in offspring neurodevelopmental
191 performance (composite BSID-III scores) at 2 years of age. We also investigated the effect of
192 intervention on circulating vitamin levels in the mother and cord blood, and on cord blood
193 BDNF levels.

194 We first examined whether randomization had equally distributed potential confounders such
195 as parental education and standard of living index, and maternal age, IQ, and anthropometry,
196 across the three intervention groups.

197 All data were represented as either mean and standard deviation (for normally distributed
198 variables) or median inter-quartile range (IQR, for skewed variables). All right skewed
199 variables were log transformed. We used t-tests or ANOVA to test the significance of
200 differences in outcomes between the intervention groups, and ANCOVA to test the significance
201 of differences in outcomes between the intervention groups after adjusting for maternal B12
202 levels at screening. We used the Mann-Whitney U test to the significance of difference in cord
203 BDNF values between the intervention groups.

204

205 **3.0 Results**

206 Of the 266 women randomized in the trial, 182 were married, 166 became pregnant, and 149
207 delivered a live baby. Between May 2017 and February 2020, we approached the parents of 85
208 children who had attained the age of 2 years of age, for participation in the neurodevelopmental

209 study. Further assessments after February 2020 had to be halted due to the COVID-19
210 pandemic. None of the children had significant neurodevelopmental disorders (cerebral palsy,
211 seizure disorders, or neural tube defects). Seven children who were above the inclusion age of
212 42 months as per the BSID norms, were excluded from analysis after confirming that they had
213 achieved appropriate neurodevelopment for 42 months of age. Assessment could not be
214 completed in 4 children. Our analysis is based on the remaining 74 children. The median age
215 of the children at the time of performing the BSID was 29 months (Table1). There were 42
216 boys and 32 girls; of these, 27 were in the placebo group, 26 in the B12+MMN and 21 in the
217 B12 alone group. There were no differences in gestational age at delivery, birth weight, length
218 or head circumference amongst the offspring in the three intervention groups. Similarly, there
219 were no differences in parental education, standard of living index, maternal age, or IQ. (Table
220 1)

221 The children who were not invited for the study because they were below 24 months of age
222 differed from those studied; they had higher socio-economic status and parental education,
223 higher maternal and cord B12 and holotranscobalamin (holo-TC) and lower cord homocysteine
224 compared to the study group. (Supplementary Table 1).

225 *3.1 Effect of supplementation on maternal and newborn micronutrient status, and birth* 226 *measures*

227 At baseline, maternal B12 and holo-TC levels were similar across the three intervention groups
228 (Table 1). Fifty one percent of the females had vitamin B12 deficiency at screening (B12<150
229 pM), and this reduced to 22% at 6-12 months after starting intervention. There was a rise in
230 vitamin B12 and holo-TC levels in the B12 supplemented groups compared to the placebo
231 group, both pre-conceptionally (18 years of age) and at 28 weeks of gestation. Cord blood
232 levels of holo-TC were significantly higher in the B12 supplemented groups compared to the
233 placebo group, though B12 levels were similar.

234 Plasma homocysteine concentrations which were high but similar at baseline in the three
235 groups of mothers, fell substantially in the vitamin B12 supplemented groups pre-
236 conceptionally. During pregnancy, as expected, plasma homocysteine concentrations fell in all
237 groups and were similar in the three groups during pregnancy as well as in cord blood.

238 Circulating folate concentrations were similar at baseline in the three groups and increased
239 during pregnancy (due to supplementation). Folate levels were significantly lower at 28 weeks
240 gestation in the B12+MMN group as compared to the placebo. Folate levels were similar in the
241 cord blood across the groups. Circulating vitamin B2 and B6 concentrations increased from
242 baseline in the B12 +MMN group before and during pregnancy and in cord blood.

243 Hemoglobin concentrations were similar in the mother and the baby across all the groups.

244 *3.2 Comparison of BSID scores and cord BDNF between supplementation groups*

245 Age standardized composite scores in the domains of cognition, motor and language
246 development were obtained on 74 children. There was no difference in performance between
247 males and females (supplementary Table 3). No significant developmental delays were
248 observed in any of the children (score < 69). Few children showed a below average
249 performance on the cognitive (4.0%, n=3), motor (4.0%, n=3), and language domain (8.1%,
250 n=6) (score < 85) (supplementary table 2).

251 The offspring of mothers in the B12 alone group performed the best in the cognitive and
252 language domains, and significantly better than the placebo group (Table 2). This difference
253 persisted after adjusting for the baseline plasma vitamin B12 concentrations, the latter were not

254 related to neurodevelopmental outcomes. There was a 5 -7% increase in cognition and language
255 composite scores in the B12 alone group over the placebo group.

256 There were no significant differences between the B12+MMN group and the placebo group on
257 any of the neurodevelopmental subscales.

258 The two intervention groups had higher cord BDNF values than the placebo group, the B12
259 alone group had the highest values, however the difference was non-significant (Table 1). Cord
260 blood BDNF values did not show significant associations with any of the BSID-III composite
261 scores.

262

263 **4.0 Discussion**

264 In this rural Indian population with a substantial prevalence of B12 deficiency, we found that
265 supplementation of adolescents with 2 µg /day of B12 significantly improved their own B12
266 status (total B12 and holo-TC) and cord blood holo-TC. Offspring whose mothers received
267 vitamin B12 alone performed better than offspring of mothers in the placebo group in
268 neurodevelopmental assessments (cognitive and language domain of the BSID-III test at 24-
269 42 months of age). Offspring whose mothers received B12+MMN performed similarly to the
270 placebo group.

271 The role of pre-conceptional folic acid supplementation in preventing NTDs is well established,
272 especially in western (mainly non-vegetarian) populations (23,24). In vegetarian populations
273 like India, vitamin B12 is likely to play a similar role, probably because both folate and B12
274 act as cofactors for the enzyme methionine synthase, in methylation reactions. Studies in India
275 have highlighted an association of both maternal vitamin B12 and folate with different
276 outcomes in the offspring including neurodevelopmental performance. Studies in Pune showed
277 an association of low maternal vitamin B12 status (low holo-TC concentrations and TCN2
278 polymorphisms) with risk of NTD, and a positive association between maternal vitamin B12
279 status during pregnancy and offspring neurocognitive performance at 2 and 9 years of age
280 (5,18,19). A study in North Indian children aged 12–18 months found that both vitamin B12
281 and folate status had significant associations with cognitive performance (28) while a study in
282 Mysore found that higher maternal folate concentrations, but not vitamin B12, during
283 pregnancy were associated with better cognitive ability in children at 9-10 years of age (29).
284 Adequate status of both vitamins is likely to be important for brain development and function.
285 Recent systematic reviews, including both observational and interventional studies, support a
286 moderate level of evidence for a role of maternal B12 status in determining offspring cognitive
287 function, and highlight a need for more studies from developing countries (17,30). Studies in
288 Mexico and Singapore have also reported an association between maternal dietary intake of
289 vitamin B12 and offspring cognitive abilities (31,32). Observations in the ALSPAC cohort in
290 the UK suggests a weak association of maternal a genetic determinant of circulating vitamin
291 B12 concentrations (*FUT2*) and offspring IQ at 8 years of age (33). On the other hand, a cohort
292 study in Canada, showed no significant associations between maternal vitamin B12
293 concentrations and BSID-III outcomes in their offspring at 18 months (32). This may be due
294 to a lack of significant variation in maternal vitamin B12 status, given the low prevalence of
295 vitamin B12 deficiency in their population (34).

296 Our findings from this pre-conceptional maternal micronutrient supplementation trial fills an
297 important gap in the literature. Our observations are supported by a maternal B12
298 supplementation study from south India, which supplemented mothers with 50 µg vitamin B12
299 from the 1st trimester of pregnancy until 6 weeks postpartum. Supplementation improved

300 maternal B12 levels in the third trimester (20) and offspring showed a better
301 neurodevelopmental outcome (language domain) at 30 months of age (21). Vitamin B12 (1.8
302 µg) and/or folic acid (150 µg) supplementation in 6–30-month-old children for a period of 6
303 months showed improvement in their neurocognitive performance. The B12 alone group
304 showed improvement in gross motor functioning and the B12 + folic acid group in gross motor
305 as well as problem-solving functioning compared to the placebo; folic acid alone had no effect
306 (35).

307 The wide prevalence of B12 deficiency is unique to the Indian context due to the socio-cultural
308 practice of vegetarianism. Severe absorption defects (i.e. pernicious anaemia) are rare and
309 vitamin B12 deficiency is largely a low dietary intake problem (15–18). This offers a unique
310 opportunity to control a modifiable risk factor at the public health scale to improve
311 neurodevelopment and human capital in the next generation. Our choice of a near-
312 recommended dietary allowance (RDA) dose of B12 (2 µg/day) was based on our earlier
313 studies showing adequate absorption of oral B-12 (36) in this population and the demonstration
314 in a pilot study of improvement in B-12 and homocysteine status after oral supplementation for
315 1 year (37). In another study of severely B12 deficient girls, (plasma B12 <100 pmol/l) we
316 demonstrated an improvement in haematological parameters and peripheral and autonomic
317 nerve functions after supplementing 2 µg/day of vitamin B12 for 11 months (38). Thus, we
318 believe that our current study fills an important gap to help public health policy to supplement
319 a physiological dose of vitamin B12 to adolescents and reproductive age women to improve
320 not only their own health but also that of the next generation. Being aware of the difficulties of
321 achieving long term compliance with tablet supplementation in relatively asymptomatic
322 individuals, we have recently reported the efficacy of commonly eaten vitamin fortified food
323 items (nutrient bar and yogurt) to achieve better vitamin B12 status (39). All these approaches
324 are usable in the national programmes to improve micronutrient nutrition of children,
325 adolescents and pregnant mothers.

326 The improved cognitive outcomes were seen specifically in the B12 alone supplemented group
327 and not in the B12+MMN group. The B12 alone group achieved higher cord B12, holo-TC and
328 BDNF levels compared to the B12+MMN group, despite a similar daily dose of B12. Though
329 we are unsure about the reason for this difference, the possibilities include differences in
330 compliance and absorption. Evidence for the effects of maternal multiple micronutrient
331 supplementation on offspring outcomes is inconsistent. A systematic review from 9 trials (6 of
332 which used UNIMAP micronutrient composition) did not find favourable effects on child
333 mortality, birth size, or offspring cognition (40).

334 Vitamins B12 and folate participate in the one-carbon metabolism pathway to 1) stimulate
335 synthesis of precursor nucleotides for DNA synthesis, and 2) generate the universal methyl
336 donor S-Adenosyl methionine (SAM) which is involved in methylation of DNA (an important
337 epigenetic mechanism), proteins and lipids and generating neurotransmitters(41,42). These
338 mechanisms are reputedly involved in fetal growth and differentiation and a deficiency or
339 imbalance of these may result in permanent change in the structure and function of developing
340 tissues which may manifest as disorders in later life ('fetal programming') (1). We have
341 demonstrated alterations in adiposity and insulin resistance in children whose mothers had an
342 imbalance of these vitamins (low B12 – high folate) during pregnancy (11). Animal studies
343 have shown differences in the expression of neurotrophic factors such as BDNF in the brains
344 of fetuses whose mothers were exposed to low vitamin B12 status (9). In our study, though we
345 did not find significant differences in cord blood BDNF concentrations between intervention
346 groups, the values tended to be higher in the B12 alone group. Further studies are required to
347 understand the utility of cord BDNF levels as a neurodevelopmental marker in human beings.

348 Neurodevelopment is a dynamic process that involves neurogenesis, neuronal migration,
349 cortical growth and gyrification, starting in early pregnancy and lasting until infancy (first 1000
350 days). The pre- and periconceptional period is an important window within this broader
351 window because of ‘epigenetic reprogramming’ of the conceptus which happens within 48-72
352 hours of conception(43). The majority of pregnancies are unplanned, and women approach the
353 healthcare system after this window. Our intervention was specifically started in adolescence
354 to ensure adequate micronutrient stores in the mother from before conception, in time to
355 support gametogenesis, conception, embryogenesis, organogenesis, and placentation. (42,44).
356 The success of pre-conceptional folic acid supplementation in preventing NTDs is well known
357 (23–25). Thus, we propose that the 1000-day window should be expanded to include the
358 preconception period. This would shift the action from the clinic to the community and will fit
359 well into a multitude of adolescent and reproductive age programs across the world.

360 Additional strengths of our study include a trial within a cohort in which original observations
361 were made, the RCT design which ensured that potential confounders were similarly
362 distributed between allocation groups. For example, home environmental factors that can
363 influence child neurodevelopment - parental education, maternal IQ and socio-economic
364 status- were similar across intervention groups. High rates of participation in the trial, high
365 rates of follow up, and of sample collection at delivery are also noteworthy. Exclusion of
366 women with severe B12 deficiency (<100pM) from a placebo-controlled trial on ethical
367 grounds reduced the power of the study because they and their offspring could have benefited
368 the most with B12 intervention. The COVID pandemic also interfered with our ability to test
369 more children for neurodevelopment and meant that we missed the children of women who
370 became pregnant later and at older ages. Despite these limitations we were able to see the
371 beneficial effects of the intervention. We expect that the performance on the Bayley’s scale,
372 will reflect in neurodevelopment indices at a later age. This will be tested in subsequent follow
373 ups.

374 **5.0 Summary and Conclusion**

375 We found that pre-conceptional maternal supplementation with a near RDA dose (2 µg/day) of
376 vitamin B12 exposed their offspring to higher vitamin B12 status peri-conceptionally and
377 during pregnancy. This was associated with better neurodevelopmental performance in the
378 children, in cognitive and language domains, between 24-42 months of age. Our study
379 highlights an important role for maternal vitamin B12 on offspring neurodevelopment. We urge
380 that the first 1000 days window be extended to include the pre-conceptional period. Our
381 findings have strong implications for public health policy to improve vitamin B12 status of
382 young adolescents and reproductive age women in populations with a sizable vitamin B12
383 deficiency. We foresee benefits of such a policy to many national nutrition programmes in
384 India.

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386 **Figure 1 Consort depicting the recruitment of study participants**

387 **Figure 2 Bar graph showing comparison between placebo and treatment groups on BSID-**
388 **III domains**

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392 **Authors contributor statement**

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394 CSY and RVB designed the neurocognitive follow-up study. ND and RVB analysed the data
395 and wrote the first draft. BP and MD performed and reported the neurocognitive assessments.
396 DB performed the biochemical measurements. AB contributed to the statistical analysis. SS
397 and RS conducted the follow-up of the participants. KK, RL, and PY contributed to conducting
398 the PRIYA trial. CSY and CF designed the original PRIYA trial. CSY and CF edited the final
399 manuscript. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

400 **Conflicts of Interest**

401 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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403

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591 **Table 1.** Maternal characteristics at baseline and pregnancy, and child characteristics

Variables	n	Placebo Group	n	B12+MMN Group	n	B12 Group	p values	
Parental sociodemographic characteristics								
Maternal age at 28 weeks gestation (years)	25	19.8 (1.0)	25	19.4 (1.1)	21	19.7 (1.1)	0.555	
Maternal education (years)	26	12.5 (11.0,13.0)	26	12.0 (10.0, 13.0)	21	12.0 (11.0, 13.5)	0.639	
Maternal height (cms)	25	158.2 (5.2)	25	158.7 (5.0)	21	157.8 (4.8)	0.852	
Maternal weight at 28 weeks gestation (kgs)	25	55.4 (48.6, 59.3)	25	51.2 (49.4, 54.4)	21	52.9 (47.0, 60.7)	0.656	
Maternal IQ	21	76.6 (9.5)	15	74.4 (8.8)	17	75.8 (7.2)	0.751	
Standard of Living Index	26	36.0 (30.5, 40.5)	26	38.0 (31.0, 40.0)	21	37.0 (32.0, 40.0)	0.923	
Paternal Education (years)	25	14.0 (10.5, 15.0)	24	12.0 (10.0, 15.0)	19	12.0 (10.0, 15.0)	0.656	
Maternal Micronutrients							p values (B12+MMN vs Placebo)	p values (B12 vs Placebo)
At screening								
Vitamin B12 (pM)	27	151.0 (122.0, 193.0)	26	159.5 (134.0, 219.0)	21	138.0 (125.0, 190.0)	0.350	0.860
Folate (nM)	27	20.9 (15.3, 24.6)	26	15.7 (11.3, 26.6)	21	20.8 (15.3, 29.1)	0.357	0.698
Homocysteine (µmol/L) At 18 years	27	20.1 (15.1, 38.0)	26	18.6 (15.3, 30.3)	21	27.5 (17.0, 39.6)	0.646	0.434
Vitamin B12 (pM)	25	162.0 (125.9, 192.5)	26	285.0 (205.8, 368.7)	18	274.7 (224.7, 388.2)	<0.001***	<0.001***
Folate (nM)	26	23.0 (17.2, 29.8)	26	21.2 (15.3, 28.8)	18	20.4 (14.9, 28.3)	0.734	0.925
Homocysteine (µmol/L)	27	16.7 (11.7, 28.3)	26	9.60 (8.30, 13.4)	18	10.6 (9.22, 16.0)	<0.001***	0.013*
At 28 weeks gestation								
Hemoglobin (gm/dl)	25	10.4 (9.5, 11.0)	25	10.2 (9.4, 11.0)	21	10.4 (9.1, 10.7)	0.491	0.638
Vitamin B12 (pM)	25	134.0 (95.5, 163.0)	25	164.0 (149.0, 218.5)	21	204.0 (173.5, 261.0)	0.007**	<0.001***
Holo-TC (pM)	25	14.8 (8.85, 25.1)	25	21.9 (15.3, 36.5)	21	21.3 (16.9, 36.8)	0.027*	0.012*
Folate (nM)	25	47.9 (18.0, 71.5)	25	20.6 (10.2, 49.7)	21	28.5 (16.6, 51.4)	0.043*	0.302
Vitamin B2 (pM)	25	244.0 (210.5, 273.0)	25	276.0 (229.5, 304.5)	20	244.0 (221.7, 269.5)	0.028*	0.852
Vitamin B6-pyridoxal-5-phosphate (pM)	24	3.5 (2.3, 4.6)	25	4.6 (3.3, 7.4)	21	3.1 (2.6, 4.8)	0.117	0.357
Vitamin B6-pyridoxal (pM)	15	1.0 (0.8, 1.6)	12	1.1 (0.9, 1.3)	12	1.3 (1.0, 1.7)	0.786	0.922
Homocysteine (µmol/L)	25	7.0 (5.0, 9.2)	25	6.3 (4.3, 8.1)	21	5.1 (3.9, 7.2)	0.559	0.550

Child Characteristics										
Child age at assessment (months)	27	27 (26, 34)	26	29 (27, 36.2)	21	29 (26, 32)	0.623	0.901		
Gender	27	Boys=18 (66.7%)	26	Boys=13 (50%)	21	Boys=11 (52.3%)				
Birth Anthropometry										
Gestation age (weeks)	27	39.0 (38.0, 40.2)	26	39.0 (38.0, 40.2)	21	39.4 (38.8, 40.2)	0.920	0.936		
Birth weight (gm)	27	2908.6 (412.5)	26	2809.2 (458.6)	21	2788.9 (315.9)	0.411	0.277		
Birth length (cm)	27	49.1 (46.8, 49.8)	26	48.2 (47.4, 49.8)	20	48.5 (47.2, 49.3)	0.990	0.328		
Head circumference (cm)	27	33.4 (1.0)	26	33.1 (1.0)	20	33.0 (0.9)	0.237	0.142		
Cord Micronutrients										
Vitamin B12 (pM)	27	226.0 (138.0, 289.0)	26	275.5 (181.7, 313.7)	21	289.0 (167.0, 446.0)	0.240	0.200		
Holo-TC (pM)	27	40.7 (23.3, 81.9)	26	79.4 (39.2, 125.0)	21	96.1 (39.4, 125.0)	0.021*	0.048*		
Folate (nM)	27	55.9 (37.9, 70.8)	26	52.0 (36.8, 68.1)	21	42.7 (31.3, 80.0)	0.473	0.278		
Vitamin B2 (pM)	26	357 (73.7)	25	316 (73.5)	20	314 (67.3)	0.053	0.924		
Vitamin B6-pyridoxal-5-phosphate (pM)	12	29.3 (18.6, 42.7)	13	25.0 (19.1, 39.5)	13	17.5 (11.6, 43.9)	0.494	0.298		
Vitamin B6-pyridoxal (pM)	26	4.80 (3.6, 7.9)	25	5.70 (4.6, 8.3)	21	4.80 (3.2, 6.9)	0.187	0.806		
Homocysteine (μmol/L)	27	8.30 (6.8, 11.6)	26	6.30 (4.8, 9.8)	21	6.60 (4.6, 11.9)	0.134	0.342		
BDNF (pg/ml)	27	70.0 (31.0, 299.0)	26	106.0 (31.0, 412.2)	21	195.0 (31.0, 512.0)	0.620	0.364		

592 Values represented as Mean (SD), Median (25th, 75th) or n (%)

593 *p<0.05, **p<0.01 ***p<0.001 p-values calculated by t-test

594 Holo-TC, holotranscobalamin; BDNF, Brain Derived Neurotrophic Factor

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606 **Table 2.** Comparison between placebo and supplemented groups on BSID-III domains

BSID-III domains	Placebo Group	B12+MMN Group	B12 Group	#p value		\$p value	
				Group (B12+MMN vs Placebo)	Group (B12 vs Placebo)	Group (B12+MMN vs Placebo)	Group (B12 vs Placebo)
Cognitive	90.0 (85.0, 95.0)	90.0 (85.0, 96.2)	95.0 (90.0, 100)	0.969	0.034*	0.781	0.044*
Motor	94.0 (91.0, 100.0)	95.5 (90.2, 100.0)	97.0 (91.0, 107.0)	0.687	0.818	0.522	0.384
Language	92.2 (7.8)	93.7 (9.87)	98.6 (10.1)	0.556	0.020*	0.633	0.020*

607 Values represented as Mean (SD) or Median (25th, 75th)

608 *p<0.05

609 #P value calculated by t test

610 \$P value calculated by ANCOVA; value adjusted for maternal baseline B12 levels

611 Language performance was normally distributed, and Mean (SD) are reported

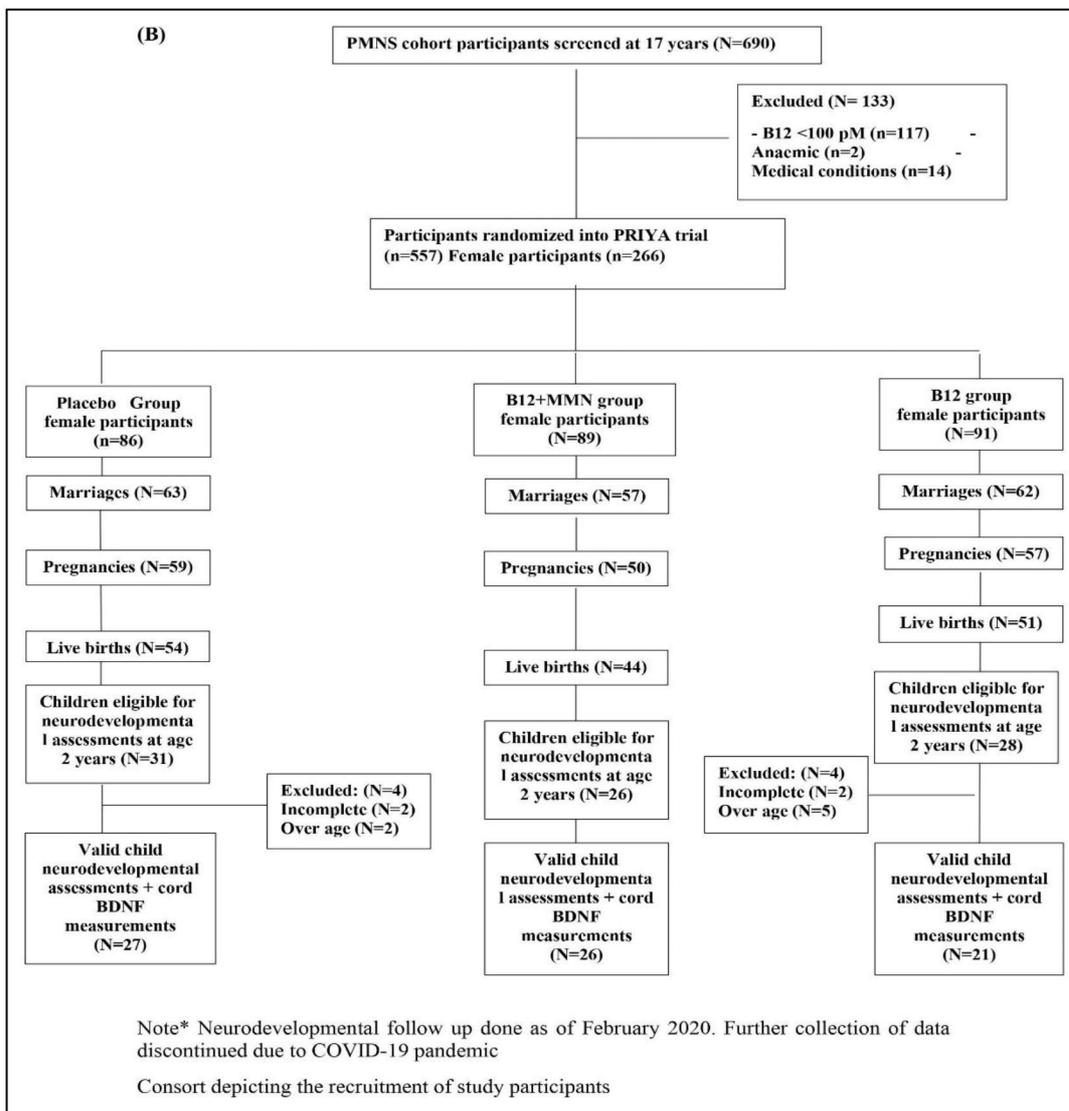
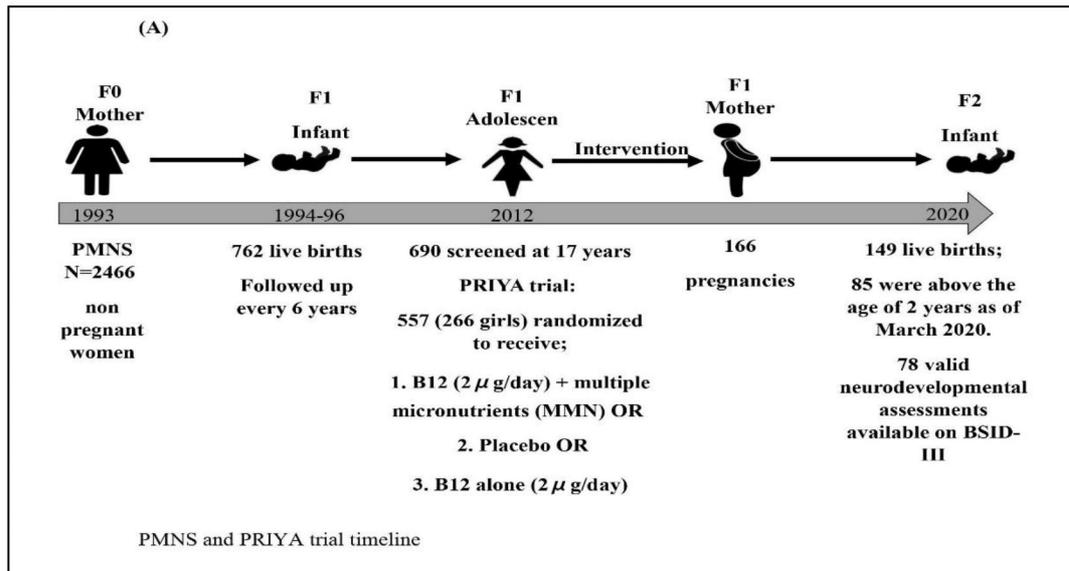


Figure 1 Study timeline and consort