Original Article

- **Effects of exogenous melatonin supplementation on health outcomes: an umbrella review of meta-analyses based on randomized controlled trials**
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Abstract

 Various melatonin supplementations have been developed to improve health outcomes in various clinical conditions. Thus, we sought to evaluate and summarize the effect of melatonin treatments in clinical settings for health outcomes. We searched PubMed/Medline, Embase, and Cochrane Library from inception to 4 February 2021. We included meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials investigating the melatonin intervention for any health outcome. Based on the different effect sizes of each meta-analysis, we calculated random models' standardized mean differences or risk ratios. We observed robust evidence supported by statistical significance with non-considerable heterogeneity between studies for sleep-related problems, cancer, surgical patients, and pregnant women. Patients with sleep disorder, sleep 50 onset latency (SMD 0.33, 95% CI: $0.10 - 0.56$, P < 0.01) were significantly improved whereas no clear evidence was shown with sleep efficiency (1.10, 95% CI: -0.26 – 2.45). The first analgesic requirement time (SMD 5.81, 95% CI: 2.57 - 9.05, P < 0.001) of surgical patients was distinctly improved. Female patients under artificial reproductive technologies had 54 significant increase in the top-quality embryos (SMD 0.53, 95% CI: $0.27 - 0.79$, $P < 0.001$), but no statistically clear evidence was found in the live birth rate (SMD 1.20, 95% CI: 0.83 – 1.72). Survival at one year (RR 1.90, 95% CI: 1.28 – 2.83, P < 0.005) significantly increased with cancer patients. Research on melatonin interventions to treat clinical symptoms and sleep problems among diverse health conditions was identified and provided considerable evidence. Future well-designed randomized clinical trials of high quality and subgroup quantitative analyses are essential.

Keywords

Melatonin; Umbrella review; Randomized controlled trial; Clinical outcome

Chemical compounds studied in this article

- Melatonin (PubChem [CID:896\)](cid:896); Inositol (PubChem [CID:892\)](cid:892); Clozapine (PubChem
- [CID:135398737\)](cid:135398737); Olanzapine (PubChem [CID:135398745\)](cid:135398745); Risperidone (PubChem
- [CID:5073\)](cid:5073); Quetiapine (PubChem [CID:5002\)](cid:5002); Midazolam (PubChem [CID:4192\)](cid:4192); Oxazepam
- (PubChem [CID:4616\)](cid:4616); Alprazolam (PubChem [CID:2118\)](cid:2118)
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1. Introduction

 Melatonin is an antioxidant, functioning as a hormone in systemic circulation of mammals. It is synthesized in the suprachiasmatic nucleus of the anterior pituitary gland, released into the circulation stimulated by the onset of darkness. [1] The reduction in melatonin production induces insulin resistance, sleep disturbance, and metabolic circadian disorganizations.[2][3] Exogenous melatonin supplementation has been used for many medical and surgical diseases over the last decades,[4] while its clinical importance has been recognized, particularly relating to sleep.[5,6]

 It has demonstrated encouraging results for multiple health outcomes from appropriate administration. Low dosage of melatonin also has value as a sleep-promoting agent for children, whereas high doses have shown the hypnotic effects.[7,8] Moreover, evidence also supports the use as an anesthetic agent.[9] It has demonstrated encouraging results in surgical patients' preoperative anxiety score and postoperative pain score.[10] Melatonin has also 82 been observed to favorably affect blood pressure among those with metabolic disorders.[11] Additionally melatonin supplementation has been observed to decrease the 1-year mortality 84 and depressive symptoms of cancer. [12,13]

 Melatonin supplement also likely to be safe, only with mild adverse effects, such as dizziness, headache, nausea, and sleepiness.[14] On the other hand, while the stipulation of its 87 prescription or over-the-counter (OTC) availability varies by country, [15] it is widely used as a remedial measure for sleep disorders [16] and is the fourth most popular natural product taken by adults, and the second by children in the United States. Indeed, a significant increase in its use from 0.1% in 2007 to 0.7% in 2012 was reported.[17]

Despite several studies conducted on the effect of exogenous melatonin, considering that a

 sizable number of nonprofessional individuals can use melatonin autonomously as an OTC drug, we contemplated the need for comprehensive research about the tendency of effects by the specific conditions. We extracted available data on the association between a patient's specific health condition and the effects of exogenous melatonin. An umbrella review of the existing quantitative analyses is important to provide a comprehensive summary of the scientific literature,[18] and an overview of the methodology of melatonin supplementation in a single reference state.

 Therefore, this study aimed to summarize the meta-analyses to identify the effects of suitable administration of exogenous melatonin supplements on patients with various health conditions.

2 Methods

2.1 Literature search and eligibility criteria

analyses of interventional studies, only with randomized controlled trials, that pooled any

 combination of continuous variables, relative risk, or odds ratio comparing the same exposure with the same health outcome. For example, participants could be healthy, have a preexisting illness, or be pregnant. We included studies published in English only. The present study explored all health outcomes accessible through search inclusions. We excluded reviews that did not include a meta-analysis or did not present sufficient specific data (number of case and control, effect size, and 95% confidence intervals (CI)) for reanalysis, non-human studies, and meta-analyses that had melatonin analogs in the intervention but provided no independent quantitative analysis of melatonin.

 If two or more meta-analyses studied a similar topic with the same patients' condition, we selected only one meta-analysis to avoid duplicate estimates. However, when the scope covered by the subject or the control condition in the study was different, it was classified and included. Finally, we included the latest article dealing with the same scope as the subject regardless of 137 the number of RCTs included.

2.2 Data extraction

 For each eligible study, two investigators (LSJ and PS) independently extracted the name of the first author, publication year, condition of the patient, number of subjects assigned to the intervention and control groups, or number of event/total each, and the metrics used in the original meta-analyses (e.g., Cohen's d, Hedges' g, the weighted mean difference [WMD], relative risk [RR] or odds ratio [OR]) along with the corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI) and quality of studies included in the meta-analyses, the interpretation under heterogeneity, and the publication bias. The dose of melatonin and comparative treatments was generally provided in mg/day, and we did not modify the original units of the data.

We extracted data from any study comparing melatonin exposure, including subgroup

 analysis of high versus low dose responses. If a study presented several meta-analyses for various conditions or outcomes, we considered each of these separately.

 Any disagreements between the two researchers (LSJ and PS) in extracted data were resolved by discussion with a third researcher (SJI).

2.3 Assessment of methodological quality of included studies

 To assess the methodological quality of the meta-analyses, two investigators (LSJ and PS) independently assessed each eligible study using the AMSTAR 2 (A Measurement Tool to Assess Systematic Reviews 2), and any disagreements were resolved by discussion.[19]

 AMSTAR 2 is a valid instrument to measure the construct validity and reliability of systematic reviews.[19] The assessment of quality scoring consists of 16 items, including critical domains of 7 items. It allows the critical judgment of the methodological of a systematic review. We recorded the total (A2) and the critical domain score (A2-CD) of each article by AMSTAR2. Criteria other than the main perspective of the AMSTAR 2 questionnaire were not included in the scoring.

2.4 Statistical Analysis

 We aimed to provide the metrics of estimates from meta-analyses with random-effect models or risk ratio based on random-effect models.

 We reanalyzed the data using the extracted individual study estimates using Comprehensive Meta-Analysis Software. We continued to use the data's original value correspondingly when standardized mean differences based on random effect models were provided. We converted a mean difference to standardized metrics and estimates of odds ratio to risk ratio, except for one association that provided insufficient data to reanalyze.[20] We calculated the summary effect estimates and P values of reanalyzed meta-analyses with random effect models.

 For continuous variables, we decided to organize consistent directional effect estimates. Regardless of the original direction of the outcomes provided, we decided to set the positive direction of the effect estimate to a beneficial direction. The positive direction of the effect size has converted to the helpful direction. We conserved the numerical estimates from previous studies in the same order if they were in the same direction as our aim. The effect size was converted to a positive value for calculations in the opposite direction to maintain consistent 177 orientation. We evaluated heterogeneity between studies using the I^2 statistics.[21] We also 178 performed Egger's test in order to detect publication bias.[22] Where I^2 exceeded 50% or 75%, heterogeneity was considered substantial or considerable, respectively.[23]

 We preserved the original summary data provided by the meta-analysis of the review when the measurement was available but when data in the meta-analysis could not be reanalyzed.

 We estimated the confidence interval in 95% prediction. We determined the statistical 183 significance by the boundary of P < 0.05 and further assessed P values below 10^{-2} , 10^{-3} , and 10^{-2} 184 4 .

2.5 Role of funding source

 There was no funding source for this study. All authors had full access to all studies, and the corresponding authors had final responsibility for submitting for publication.

3 Results

3.1 Study selection

 We identified 654 articles and excluded 595 after screening titles and abstracts (including duplicates). Of the 59 remaining articles, we excluded 35 articles after full-text screening for different reasons (Fig. 1). The 24 remaining articles reported data from 111 different meta- analyses. In addition, we included manually searched 11 articles to investigate supplementary studies for the systematic search.

The exclusion of thirty-five articles from systematic search was from the reasons provided.

We provided the list of the excluded articles and reasons for exclusion in Appendix 3 and 4.

3.2 Study characteristics

 The characteristics of the included studies are presented in Table. S3. These studies were published between 2010 and 2021. All studies were published in English.

After full-text screening, we independently assessed the total and critical domain score of

201 AMSTAR2 ($N = 35$). The mean total AMSTAR2 score was 5.5 ± 1.0 and the mean critical

202 domain section of AMSTAR2 score was 13.7 ± 1.3 .

 Twenty-two studies compared the effect of melatonin against, passive control including placebo, and thirteen studies of these studies used placebo controls alone. All the analyses included 3 to 30 randomized controlled trials, and the range of sample size was from 121 to . Two studies compared with active control of benzodiazepine.^[24,25] Four studies included children in the population,[25-28] and three of these conducted the meta-analyses only on children.[25,26,28]

 Psychiatric disorder and Alzheimer's disease patients were the studied population in seven studies, sleep disorders in seven studies, surgical patients in five studies, perimenopausal or females of pregnant women in three studies, and metabolic syndrome in two studies. Patients suffering from oxidative stress, cancer, or non-intensive treatment rooms were considered in one study each.

 All studies administered melatonin doses in the range of 1 to 20 mg per day for adults and 0.05mg/kg to 9mg for children. Overall, the duration of melatonin administration ranged from 3 to 3.5 years, or preoperative temporarily.[24,25,29] Diagnostic criteria for reported mental illness also varied, using NINCDS-ADRDA, ICD-10, or DSM-IV. [20,30-32]

 The most frequently performed subgroup analysis was high versus low dose of melatonin. Six studies conducted such comparisons,[7,25,33-36] and the high-low dose boundary was considered 5 mg for adults and 0.2 mg/kg for children.

3.3 Psychiatric disorder, dementia, Alzheimer's disease

 Based on patients with a psychiatric disorder, the health outcomes according to the underlying disorder or the sleep condition were comprehensively summarized. Overall, the 224 analyzed meta-analysis outcomes had non-significant heterogeneity $(I^2 < 50\%)$.

 Table 1 Summary estimates of the associations between psychiatric disorder, dementia, Alzheimer's disease outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus passive control.

 AD: Alzheimer's disease, ADAS-cog: Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale cognitive subscale, ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, MMSE: Mini-Mental State

 As shown in Table 1 and Fig. 2, six reviews were included and meta-analysis of the psychiatric patients. We subdivided psychiatric disorders into specific conditioned of Alzheimer's disease, dementia, and other psychiatric disorders, including neurodevelopmental disorders, such as schizophrenia, autistic spectrum disorder, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

257 Three studies analyzed the associations between melatonin and the psychiatric patients' 258 improvement of health outcomes. Diastolic blood pressure (SMD = 0.76, 95% [CI]: 0.30 to1.22, 259 $P < 0.005$; 3 trials, N = 80, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) and systolic blood pressure (SMD = 0.42, 95% [CI]: 0.05 260 to 0.79, P < 0.05; 4 trials, N = 118, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) decreased favorably in low heterogeneity.[37] 261 The association between melatonin and the variables related to sleep problems was estimated 262 only in children. Specifically, associations were on total sleep time $(SMD = 0.33, 95\%$ [CI]: 263 0.05 to 0.61, P < 0.05; 3 trials, N = 199, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) and sleep onset latency (SMD = 0.66, 95%) 264 [CI]: 0.36 to 0.96, P < 0.001; 3 trials, N = 183, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) of children with neurological 265 disorders, [26] reaching significant effects at $P < 10^{-3}$ with non-substantive heterogeneity except 266 for total sleep time of autistic spectrum children (SMD = $1.00, 95\%$ [CI]: 0.28 to 1.73, P < 0.01; 267 4 trials, $N = 213$, $I^2 = 79.3\%$). For patients with schizophrenia, there was no clear evidence of 268 improvement in abnormal involuntary movement scales (SMD = 0.66, 95% [CI]: -1.49 to 2.81, 269 $P > 0.05$; 4 trials, N = 130, $I^2 = 93.2\%$.[38]

270 Two studies including dementia patients, showed either $P < 0.05$ or $P > 0.05$ in outcomes 271 related to sleep problems. Daytime/nighttime sleep ratio (SMD = 0.33, 95% [CI]: 0.02 to 0.64, 272 $P < 0.05$; 3 trials, N = 184, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), total sleep time duration during 10 days to 10 weeks 273 (SMD = 0.25, 95% [CI]: 0.01 to 0.49, P < 0.05; 8 trials, N = 491, $I^2 = 40.2\%$), more than 4 274 weeks (SMD = 0.32, 95% [CI]: 0.05 to 0.60, P < 0.05; 6 trials, N = 426, I^2 = 46.9%), sleep 275 efficiency during 10 days to 8 weeks (SMD = 0.29, 95% [CI]: 0.04 to 0.53, P < 0.05; 4 trials, 276 $N = 375$, $I^2 = 32.0\%$) showed significant improvements (P < 0.05) with low heterogeneity (I^2 < 50%).[30,31]

 No clear evidence was found for improvements in cognitive evaluations in measurements of 279 MMSE (SMD = 0.26, 95% [CI]: -0.28 to 0.80, P > 0.05; 3 trials, N = 162, $I^2 = 52.1\%$), ADAS-280 $\cos(SMD = 0.19, 95\%$ [CI]: -0.14 to 0.52, P > 0.05; 3 trials, N = 162, I² = 0.0%), the incidence 281 of adverse events (SMD = 0.25, 95% [CI]: -0.10 to 0.60, P > 0.05; 2 trials, N = 151, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), 282 and activities of daily living (SMD = 0.12, 95% [CI]: -0.21 to 0.45, P > 0.05; 3 trials, N = 162, 283 $I^2 = 0.0\%$).[30,31]

 Two studies were specifically on Alzheimer's disease patients. Outcomes related to sleep 285 problems showed conflicting results, either $P < 0.05$ or $P > 0.05$ and overall low heterogeneity $(I^2 < 50\%)$. No clear evidence was shown in terms of improvement of the cognitive evaluations.[31,39]

3.4 Sleep disorder

 As shown in Table 2 and Fig. 3, we included patients with sleep disorders or patients with other conditions having sleep problems. Seven reviews with sleep problems as the major outcome were identified in the meta-analysis based on randomized controlled trials.[26,28,29,32,34,40-43] We analyzed the comprehensive range of patient conditions, including insomnia, shift work sleep disorder, secondary sleep disorder, and delayed sleep phase disorder.

 Table 2 Summary estimates of the associations between sleep disorder outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus passive control.

- DSPD: delayed sleep phase disorder, MLT: melatonin
- † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis
- †† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis
- 301 $* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, ** P < 0.005$
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 Fig. 3. Summary estimates of the associations between sleep disorder outcomes, and melatonin treatment

- Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.
- A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, DSPD: delayed sleep
- phase disorder, MLT: melatonin, NA: not available, SMD: standardized mean difference
- Diamond indicates significant difference from control, p < 0.05; Circle indicates non-
- significant effects.
- † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis
- †† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis
- 313 $\ast P < 0.05$, $\ast \ast P < 0.01$, $\ast \ast \ast P < 0.005$
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315 Among children and adolescents with sleep-onset insomnia, sleep onset latency (SMD =
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316 0.92, 95% [CI]: 0.48 to 1.36, P < 0.001; 6 trials, N = 326, $I^2 = 70.5\%$), total sleep time (SMD

- 317 = 0.46, 95% [CI]: 0.21 to 0.71, P < 0.001; 5 trials, N = 262, $I^2 = 3.4\%$), and sleep onset time
- 318 (SMD = 0.79, 95% [CI]: 0.54 to 1.04, P < 0.001; 6 trials, N = 323, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) were significantly
- 319 improved, commonly reaching $P < 10^{-3}$. The effect of dim light melatonin onset, wake-up time,
- 320 and light-off time showed no clear evidence $(P > 0.05)$.[28]

321 In patients with sleep disorders including, shift work, overall data had non-significant 322 heterogeneity (I^2 < 50%). Total sleep time either next day or night and nocturnal sleep time was 323 significantly improved, presenting $P < 0.05$. No statistically distinct difference was found 324 between sleep onset latency, sleep quality, and nocturnal awakening frequency assessed 325 subjectively and physiologically.[32,34]

326 Outcomes of patients with a secondary sleep disorder showed significantly improved sleep 327 onset latency (SMD = 0.33, 95% [CI]: 0.10 to 0.56, P < 0.01; 7 trials, N = 304, $I^2 = 2.9$ %) and 328 total sleep time (SMD = 0.54, 95% [CI]: 0.06 to 1.02, P < 0.05; 3 trials, N = 142, $I^2 = 32.6\%$) 329 reaching $P < 0.05$ but there was no clear evidence on sleep efficiency (SMD = 1.10, 95% [CI]; 330 -0.26 to 2.45, P > 0.051-; 3 trials, N = 142, $I^2 = 88.3\%$.)[38]

331 Outcomes of patients with delayed sleep phase disorder showed substantial or considerable 332 heterogeneity ($I^2 > 50\%$ or $I^2 > 75\%$). Analyses demonstrated distinct improvement on dim 333 light melatonin onset (SMD = 1.66, 95% [CI]: 1.20 to 2.12, P < 0.001; 6 trials, N = 238, I^2 = 334 51.3%), sleep onset latency (SMD = 1.34, 95% [CI]: 0.74 to 1.95, P < 0.001; 8 trials, N = 317, 335 $I^2 = 80.7\%$), sleep onset time (SMD = 0.98, 95% [CI]: 0.60 to 1.36, P < 0.001; 9 trials, N = 304, 336 $I^2 = 54.2\%$), all P < 10⁻³, and wake-up time (SMD = 0.58, 95% [CI]: 0.07 to 1.09, P < 0.05; 5 trials, $N = 195$, $I^2 = 59.5\%$). No clear evidence was shown for total sleep time (SMD = 0.93, 338 95%CI]: -0.02 to 1.88, P > 0.05; 6 trials, N = 235, $I^2 = 88.6\%$.[42]

339 Children with neurodevelopmental disorders also experienced significantly improved total sleep time (SMD = 0.82, 95% [CI]: 0.37 to 1.24, P < 0.001; 9 trials, N = 541, $I^2 = 80.1\%$) and sleep onset latency (SMD = 0.82, 95% [CI]: 0.45 to 1.17, P < 0.001;11 trials, N = 581, I^2 = 342 $\,$ 73.9%), reaching P < 10⁻³ both with a high level of heterogeneity ($I^2 > 50$ %). No clear evidence 343 was demonstrated for nocturnal awakening frequency (SMD = 0.75, 95% [CI]: -0.38 to 1.89, 344 $P > 0.05$; 5 trials, N = 277, $I^2 = 91.2\%$.[26]

3.5 Perioperative status

 As shown in Table 3 and Fig. 4, we included surgical patients in this subdivision, considering postoperative pain as an outcome of significant interest. Four quantitative reviews presented meta-analyses on randomized controlled trials with postoperative pain, pre-and postoperative anxiety level, and postoperative course as the outcomes.

 Table 3 Summary estimates of the associations between postoperative pain, surgical anxiety, postoperative course outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus passive control.

 A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, h: hour/hours, SMD: standardized mean difference, STAI: state-trait anxiety inventory, VAS: visual analogue scale

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

357 $* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, ** P < 0.005$

 Fig. 4. Summary estimates of the associations between postoperative pain, surgical anxiety, postoperative course outcomes, and melatonin treatment

 Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

 A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, h: hour/hours, SMD: standardized mean difference, STAI: state-trait anxiety inventory, VAS: visual analogue scale

365 Diamond indicates significant difference from control, $p \le 0.05$; Circle indicates non-

366 significant effects.

367 † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

368
$$
* P < 0.05
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, $* P < 0.01$, $** P < 0.005$

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370 For overall surgical patients, the first analgesic requirement time was distinctly reduced (SMD = 5.81, 95% [CI]: 2.57 to 9.05, P < 0.001; 2 trials, N = 100, $I^2 = 92.2\%$). Furthermore, 372 post-, intraoperative opioid consumption (SMD = 1.23, 95% [CI]: 0.43 to 2.04, P < 0.005; 7 373 trials, $N = 517$, $I^2 = 93.9\%$) and postoperative chronic pain (SMD = 0.65, 95% [CI]: 0.34 to 374 0.96, P: NR(not recorded); 5 trials, $N = NR$, $I^2 = 39.4\%$) also was significantly reduced.[20,44] 375 Two tools of measurement, STAI (state-trait anxiety inventory) and VAS (visual analog scale) 376 were used to quantify anxiety. Preoperative (SMD = $0.87, 95\%$ [CI]: 0.56 to 1.19, P < 0.001; 377 18 trials, $N = 1264$, $I^2 = 85.2\%$) and postoperative anxiety (SMD = 0.59, 95% [CI]: 0.08 to 378 1.09, P < 0.05; 7 trials, N = 524, $I^2 = 86.5\%$) measured by VAS were distinctly reduced with 379 considerable heterogeneity, while anxiety measured by STAI was also reduced significantly 380 (SMD = 0.70, 95% [CI]: 0.23 to 1.18, P < 0.005; 2 trials, N = 73, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) with non-381 substantive heterogeneity.[24]

 Postoperative pain had different outcomes depending on the postoperative time. For 1 hour 383 and 3 hours after the surgery, no clear evidence of improvement was observed $(P > 0.05)$ [29], but 24 hours showed a significant improvement in pain (SMD = 1.94, 95% [CI]: 1.09 to 2.78, $P < 0.001$; 9 trials, N = 728, $I^2 = 96.0\%$) with considerable heterogeneity.[20]

386 We found no clear evidence on postoperative course, including sleepiness after three days, sleep quality, and well-being (P > 0.05) with non-substantive heterogeneity (I^2 < 25%).[29]

388 Data on pain classified according to the type of anesthesia used was also available.[44]

389 Postoperative pain (SMD = 0.82, 95% [CI]: 0.25 to 1.40, P: NR; 11 trials, N = NR, $I^2 = 93.0\%$) 390 and post-, intraoperative opioid consumption (SMD = 2.76, 95% [CI]: 1.53 to 4.00, P: NR; 7 trials, $N = NR$, $I^2 = 96.3\%$) with acute pain in general anesthesia were significantly reduced. 392 Opioid consumption for acute procedural pain was also significantly reduced (SMD = 1.44, 95%CI: 0.53 to 3.44, P: NR; 3 trials, $N = NR$, $I^2 = 97.5\%$), but acute pain in local/epidural 394 anesthesia did not show clear evidence in terms of postoperative pain $(P > 0.05)$ with substantial 395 heterogeneity.

396 In addition, except for drowsiness, quality of sleep, and measurement of well-being, 397 subgroup analysis of surgical patients showed high level of heterogeneity in terms of 398 postoperative course $(I^2 > 75\%)$.[29]

399 **3.6 Pregnancy, metabolic disease**

400 Five reviews contained the meta-analyses of in patients under ART (assisted reproductive 401 technology), COS (controlled ovarian stimulation), and patients with metabolic disease (Table 402 5, Fig. 5).[33,35,45-49] The number of mature oocytes (SMD = 0.56, 95% [CI]: 0.27 to 0.85, 403 P < 0.001; 7 trials, N = 738, I² = 66.0%) and top-quality embryos (SMD = 0.53, 95% [CI]: 0.27 404 to 0.79, P < 0.001; 3 trials, N = 232, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) was significantly increased (P < 10⁻³) in the 405 population of females under ART.[47] The number of oocytes retrieved was estimated in two 406 types of populations (under COS or ART), both with substantial heterogeneity. Patients under 407 ART showed significant improvements (SMD = 0.34 , 95% [CI]: 0.01 to 0.67, P < 0.05; 7 trials, $N = 738$, $I^2 = 75.0\%$, [47] and although patients under COS had similar estimates (SMD = 0.30, 409 95% [CI]: -0.02 to 0.63, P > 0.05; 5 trials, N = 680, $I^2 = 73.0\%$), this did not reach statistical 410 significance.[48]

411 Two articles analyzed about the insulin level and HOMA-IR (homeostasis model assessment

412 of insulin resistance)[35,46] (0.56, 95%CI: 0.24 to 0.89, P = 0.001; $I^2=22.0\%$) and level of 413 insulin (1.84, 95%CI: 1.13 to 2.56, $P < 0.001$; $I^2=0.0%$) were also significantly improved in patients with a metabolic syndrome with a low heterogeneity. Quantitative analyses also 415 showed significant improvements in fasting glucose (0.30, 95%CI: 0.04 to 0.55, $P \le 0.05$; 2 416 trials, $N = 504$, $I^2 = 36.7\%$) and QUICKI (quantitative insulin sensitivity check index) (0.46, 417 95%CI: 0.09 to 0.83, P < 0.05; 2 trials, N = 114, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), whereas a slight non-significant 418 improvement was observed for hemoglobin A1c estimates (0.27, 95%CI: -0.02 to 0.55, P > 419 0.05 ; $I^2 = 0.0\%$).[46]

 Table 4 Summary estimates of the associations between pregnancy, tinnitus, metabolic syndrome outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus passive control.

 A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, ART: artificial reproductive technologies, COS: controlled ovarian stimulation, HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance, QUICKI: quantitative insulin sensitivity check index, SMD: standardized mean difference

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

†† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis

430 $\ast P < 0.05$, $\ast \ast P < 0.01$, $\ast \ast \ast P < 0.005$

Fig. 5. Summary estimates of the associations between pregnancy, tinnitus, metabolic

- syndrome outcomes, and melatonin treatment
- Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.
- A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, ART: artificial
- reproductive technologies, COS: controlled ovarian stimulation, HOMA-IR: homeostasis
- model assessment of insulin resistance, QUICKI: quantitative insulin sensitivity check index,
- SMD: standardized mean difference
- 440 Diamond indicates significant difference from control, $p \le 0.05$; Circle indicates non-
- significant effects.
- † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis
- †† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis
- 444 $\ast P < 0.05$, $\ast \ast P < 0.01$, $\ast \ast \ast P < 0.005$
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446 Diastolic (SMD = 0.87, 95% [CI]: 0.38 to 1.36, P < 0.001; 9 trials, N = 510, $I^2 = 84.3\%$) and 447 systolic blood pressure (SMD = 0.85, 95% [CI]: 0.51 to 1.20, P < 0.005; 9 trials, N = 510, I^2 = 448 68.7%) were also improved in patients with metabolic disease ($P < 0.005$) with substantial heterogeneity (Fig. 5).[33] Quantitative analyses also showed significant improvements in 450 fasting glucose (SMD = 0.30, 95% [CI]: 0.04 to 0.55, P < 0.05; 2 trials, N = 504, I^2 = 36.7%) and QUICKI (quantitative insulin sensitivity check index) (SMD = 0.46, 95% [CI]: 0.09 to 452 0.83, P < 0.05; 2 trials, N = 114, I^2 = 0.0%), whereas a slight non-significant improvement was 453 observed for hemoglobin A1c estimates (SMD = 0.27, 95% [CI]: -0.02 to 0.55, P > 0.05; 4 454 trials, $N = 182$, $I^2 = 0.0\%$).[46]

455 No clear evidence $(P > 0.05)$ was found for HOMA-IR (homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance) and level of insulin.[42]

3.7 Oxidative stress

 Two reviews[27,50] provided quantitative analyses regarding health conditions associated with oxidative stress but data on the range of P values or the total number of participants were not available (Table 5, Fig. 6). Melatonin treatment in patients under oxidative stress was associated with significantly improved SOD (superoxide dismutase) activity (SMD = 1.38, 95% 462 [CI]: 0.13 to 2.62; 3 trials, $I^2 = 86.9\%$), Gpx (glutathione peroxidase) (SMD = 1.36, 95% [CI]: 463 0.46 to 2.30; 5 trials, $I^2 = 89.3\%$), GR (glutathione reductase) (SMD = 1.21, 95% [CI]: 0.65 to 464 1.77; 2 trails, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), MDA (malondialdehyde) (SMD = 0.79, 95% [CI]: 0.39 to 1.19; 8 465 trials, $I^2 = 73.1\%$), and TAC (total antioxidant capacity) (SMD = 0.76, 95% [CI]: 0.30 to 1.21; 466 8 trials, $I^2 = 80.1\%$), and GSH (glutathione) (SMD = 0.57, 95% [CI]: 0.32 to 0.83; 5 trials, $I^2 =$ 15.1%).

 Table 5 Summary estimates of the associations between oxidative stress outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus placebo control.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, NR: not recorded, SMD:

- standardized mean difference
- º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed
- † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

 Fig. 6. Summary estimates of the associations between oxidative stress outcomes, and melatonin treatment. Melatonin treatment versus placebo control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

 A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, NR: not recorded, SMD: standardized mean difference

481 Diamond indicates significant difference from control, $P < 0.05$; Circle indicates non-significant effects.

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

 Overall estimates commonly had substantial or considerable heterogeneity, except for GR 486 and GSH $(I^2 < 50\%)$.

 No clear evidence was found for CAT (catalase) activity (SMD = 1.38, 95% [CI]: -1.42 to 488 4.18 ; 3 trials, $I^2 = 96.6\%$) and NO (nitric oxide) (SMD = 0.24, 95% [CI]: -0.14 to 0.61; 2 trials, 489 $I^2 = 0.0\%$).

3.8 Health outcomes of discrete variables

 As shown in Table 6 and Fig. 7, fifteen reviews provided meta-analyses consisting of discrete variables.[7,20,25,28,29,39,43,47,48,51-56] Health outcomes related to cancer were associated with distinct benefits. Remission of cancer had significantly increased (RR = 1.95, 95% [CI]: 494 1.49 to 2.54, P < 0.0001; 8 trials, N = 761, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), and survival at one year also had 495 significantly improved (RR = 1.90, 95% [CI]: 1.28 to 2.83, P < 0.005; 5 trials, N = 490, I^2 = 61.9%). Side effects of radiochemotherapy of cancer also improved with consumption of 497 melatonin, reducing the relative risk of fatigue ($RR = 0.37, 95\%$ [CI]: 0.28 to 0.48, $P \le 0.0001$; \leq 5 trials, N = 568, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), neurotoxicity (RR = 0.19, 95% [CI]: 0.09 to 0.40, P < 0.0001; 5 499 trials, N = 568, $I^2 = 0.0\%$), and thrombocytopenia (RR = 0.13, 95% [CI]: 0.06 to 0.28, P < 500 0.0001; 5 trials, N = 568, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) with low heterogeneity ($I^2 < 50\%$).[52] **Table 6** Summary estimates of the association between multiple health outcomes, and melatonin treatments made up of discrete variables. Melatonin treatment versus passive control. A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, AD: Alzheimer's disease, ART: artificial reproductive technologies, COS: controlled ovarian stimulation, ICU: intensive care unit, OR: odds ratio, RR: risk ratio, SMD: standardized mean difference † Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis †† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis ‡ Indicates that the obtained effect size is the odds ratio of the fixed effect model and the original value of the study 511 [§] Indicates that active control is used for the comparison 512 * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005 **Fig. 7.** Summary estimates of the association between multiple health outcomes, and melatonin treatments made up of discrete variables Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

539 placebo, but no clear evidence was found when compared with midazolam $(RR = 0.48, 95\%$ 540 [CI]: 0.15 to 1.52, P > 0.05; 3 trials, N = 31, $I^2 = 36.8\%$).[25]

Perioperative patients' need for analgesics was significantly reduced (RR = 0.50, 95% [CI]:

542 0.30 to 0.82, P < 0.0001; 5 trials, N = 411, $I^2 = 53.5\%$) with non-substantive heterogeneity (I^2

543 $<$ 50%).[20]

 Other health outcomes (e.g., in-hospital mortality, discontinuations of all-cause of AD,[39] drop-out for adverse effects/all causes of children/adolescents with sleep-onset insomnia,[28,43] side effects including headache, nausea, dizziness, or depression among 547 surgical patients [29], incidence of delirium [7,36,55]) indicated no clear evidence (P > 0.05) for the effect of exogenous melatonin.

4 Discussion

 The present study is the first quantitative umbrella review based solely on randomized controlled trials to estimate the association between the exogenous melatonin supplementation and general health conditions as well as 84 different health outcomes. A significant proportion of the included meta-analyses examined psychiatric patients, pregnancy patients, and surgical patients.

 Most summary estimates supported the notion that exogenous melatonin may provide a solution to sleep problems, oxidative parameters, pregnancy rate, postoperative pain, and anxiety.

 We observed robust evidence, supported by a P-value less than 0.001 with non-considerable heterogeneity, for studies on sleep-promoting effect, surgical outcomes (e.g., anxiety- preoperative VAS, need for analgesic requirements), pregnancy (e.g., number of oocytes retrieved, top-quality embryos), metabolic disease (diastolic blood pressure), and cancer (e.g., remission rate, 1-year survival rate, and side effects of fatigue and neurotoxicity).

 We observed suggestive evidence supported by a P-value of less than 0.001 in surgical patients with postoperative pain and metabolic disorders.

 Exogenous melatonin overall did not affect the cognitive functions measured by MMSE and ADAS-cog assessments of patients with psychiatric disorders or dementia, unlike the effectiveness over sleep problems. Additionally, they had no improvement in the activities of daily living in patients with dementia.

 Differently, on add-on prolonged-release melatonin (PRM) in moderate Alzheimer's disease 572 was found to have improvement on cognitive performance measured by MMSE (P=0.044) and Instrumental Activities of Daily Living (P=0.004) compared with placebo.[57] The range of the duration of psychiatry patients included in our study is 1 week to 3.5 years, as shown in Table. S3. The contrary result of the mentioned study suggests that the effectiveness of exogenous melatonin may vary depending on the duration of melatonin release.

 Our results on neurodegenerative diseases may be explained by the antioxidant and neuroprotector role of melatonin. A direct regulatory effect of melatonin on the activities of protein kinases and protein phosphates was reported.[58] Specifically the capacity of melatonin to ameliorate β-amyloid pathology may play a role in the treatment of Alzheimer-like neurodegeneration.[59]

 The clinical pregnancy and biochemical pregnancy rates on women with ART have also shown improvement with melatonin intervention. Melatonin supplementation can relate this effect with its effect of reducing oxidative stress, as we summarized in Fig. 6. Oxidative stress is known as a major contributing factor negatively affecting oocyte quality of development after fertilization.[60,61] In the same context, our meta-analyses of oxidative stress reduction may support the association with the effectiveness in human pregnancy. We can also explain this association base on the ability of melatonin to correct the pathophysiology during pregnancy due to abortion.[62]

 Concerning cancer, melatonin as an anti-cancer agent is actively studied, which may involve biochemical and molecular mechanisms,[63] including inhibition mechanisms of cancer metastasis.[64] Specifically, melatonin may alter the adhesion and gap junctional intracellular communication or induce apoptotic cell death.[63]

5 Conclusion

 Present umbrella review provides a comprehensive summary of the published meta-analyses concerning the effect of exogenous melatonin supplementation on various health outcomes. To date, the randomized controlled trials have provided robust evidence for overall sleep problems, pregnancy rate and progression, postoperative course and pain, metabolic syndrome, and remission/side effects of cancer.

 Relationships between exogenous melatonin and different health outcomes likely exist but are supported by still limited evidence. We could not specify the effect of melatonin on specific types of cancer. Well-designed randomized controlled studies with a large sample size are needed to supplement the considerable heterogeneity of surgical patients and the deficient number of studies. This information can further provide more in-depth knowledge on what types of cancer should be targeted with melatonin.

 Future studies adopting detailed population reporting, attempting the subgroup analysis based on the duration of exogenous melatonin are needed. Through the investigation, the quantified association between health outcomes and the precise method of melatonin supplementation would have resulted.

Author contribution

 All authors made substantial contributions to all the following: (1) the conception and design of the study, or acquisition of data, or analysis and interpretation of data, (2) drafting the article or revising it critically for important intellectual content, (3) final approval of the version to be submitted. This manuscript has been reviewed and approved by all authors.

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Tables

Table 1 Summary estimates of the associations between psychiatric disorder, dementia, Alzheimer's disease outcomes, and melatonin treatment

Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, AD: Alzheimer's disease, ADAS-cog: Alzheimer's Disease Assessment Scale cognitive subscale, ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, d: day/days, MMSE: Mini-Mental State Examination, NA: not available, NR: not recorded, SMD: standardized mean difference, w: week/weeks

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.005

Table 2 Summary estimates of the associations between sleep disorder outcomes, and melatonin treatment

Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, DSPD: delayed sleep phase disorder, MLT: melatonin, NA: not available, SMD: standardized mean difference

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

†† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.005

Table 3 Summary estimates of the associations between postoperative pain, surgical anxiety, postoperative course outcomes, and melatonin treatment

Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, h: hour/hours, SMD: standardized mean difference, STAI: state-trait anxiety inventory, VAS: visual analogue scale

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.005

Table 4 Summary estimates of the associations between pregnancy, tinnitus, metabolic syndrome outcomes, and melatonin treatment

Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, ART: artificial reproductive technologies, BMI: body mass index, COS: controlled ovarian stimulation, HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance, QUICKI: quantitative insulin sensitivity check index, SMD: standardized mean difference

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

†† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.005

Table 5 Summary estimates of the associations between oxidative stress outcomes, and melatonin treatment

Melatonin treatment versus placebo control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, NR: not recorded, SMD: standardized mean difference

º Indicates that the direction of positive effect size has been reversed

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

Table 6 Summary estimates of the association between multiple health outcomes, and melatonin treatments made up of discrete variables

Melatonin treatment versus passive control. Positive direction of the effect size has converted to the beneficial direction.

A2: AMSTAR 2 total score, A2-CD: AMSTAR 2 critical domain score, AD: Alzheimer's disease, ART: artificial reproductive technologies, COS: controlled ovarian stimulation, ICU: intensive care unit, OR: odds ratio, RR: risk ratio, SMD: standardized mean difference

† Indicates the effect size obtained by reanalysis

†† Indicates that the original study designed network meta-analysis

‡ Indicates that the obtained effect size is the odds ratio of the fixed effect model and the original value of the study

§ Indicates that active control is used for the comparison

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.005

