Drinking water disinfection by-products exposure and health effects on pregnancy outcomes. A systematic review

Funanani Mashau^{a*}, Esper Jacobeth Ncube^a, Kuku Voyi^a

^aSchool of health systems and Public health, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Pretoria, Private Bag x323, Pretoria, 0002, South Africa

^{*}To whom all correspondence should be addressed. Tell: +27 82 581 7418; e-mail: mashaufunanani@yahoo.com

Contents Pages

Ab	strac	ct	. 3
1.	Intr	roduction	. 4
2.	Met	thodology	. 5
2	2.1.	Study question	. 5
2	2.2.	Inclusion and exclusion criteria for this review	. 5
2	2.3.	Types of studies	. 6
2	2.4.	Type of participants	. 6
2	2.5.	Exposure assessment	. 6
2	2.6.	Outcomes assessment	. 6
	2.8.	Methods of review	. 7
	2.8.	.1. Data extraction	. 7
	2.8.	.2. Risk assessment of bias among included studies	. 7
	2.8.	.3. Data synthesis	. 7
3.	Res	sults	. 8
:	3.1.	Description of studies	. 8
:	3.2.	Quality assessment of included studies	14
;	3.3.	Outcomes	15
	3.3.	.1. Trihalomethanes (THMs)	15
	3.3.	.2. Haloacetic acids (HAAs)	15
	3.3.	.3. Haloacetaldehydes (HAs)	16
	3.3.	.4. Haloacetonitriles (HANs)	16
	3.3.	.5. Total Organic Halide (TOX)	17
4.	Disc	cussion	24
5.	Con	nclusion	27
ł	5.1. In	mplications for practice	27
ł	5.2. In	mplications for research	28
Re	feren	ices	29
Ар	pend	dix A. Search results for Medline	34
Ар	pend	dix B. Tool used for assessment of quality of included studies	35
Ар	pend	dix C. Results for risk of bias assessment of included studies	36

Abstract

Background: Epidemiological studies have found that maternal exposure to disinfection byproducts (DBPs) may lead to adverse pregnancy outcomes although the findings tend to be inconsistent. The objective of this study was to systematically review the evidence in association to drinking water disinfection by-products exposure in relation to adverse pregnancy outcomes.

Methodology: Peer-reviewed articles were identified using electronic databases searched for studies published in English language. Studies selected for review were evaluated for exposure assessment, confounders, and analyses risks of bias in the selection, outcomes assessment and attrition.

Results: A comprehensive search and screening has yielded a total of 32 studies, of which 12 (38%) reported a statistical association between maternal exposure to disinfection byproducts and adverse pregnancy outcomes. A maternal exposure to trihalomethanes (THMs) shows an increased risk of small for gestational age (SGA) and slightly increased risk of pregnancy loss. Risks of bias were low-moderate among the studies included in the review.

Conclusions and recommendations: Evidence on association relating to adverse pregnancy outcomes to disinfection by-products exposure is still less significant. There is a need for future robust research on this field, with the use of urinary TCAA biomarkers as a direct exposure assessment method for this field.

Key words: adverse pregnancy outcomes, disinfection by-products exposure, drinking water

1. Introduction

The use of disinfectants as a drinking water treatment step in developing countries has led to an effective decrease of waterborne diseases (World Health Organization (WHO). 2011). Since then, chlorine and other related compounds are being used globally because of successes and milestones in public health protection. It has been known for more than 20 years that chlorination of surface water produces chloroform and other toxic compounds that are health risks (Rook 1974). Identified disinfection by-products up to date are more than 700 (Nieuwenhuijsen *et al.* 2009a; Richardson *et al.* 2007). The most commonly studied DBPs are trihalomethanes (THMs) and haloacetic acids (HAAs) as they occur in higher concentrations in tap water compared to others.

The health effects of drinking water disinfection by-products on adverse pregnancy outcomes has been previously reviewed; however, the conclusions of these reviews varied broadly, from indicating association to suggesting no association of disinfection by-products on pregnancy outcomes (Bove *et al.* 2002; Hwang and Jaakkola 2003; Grellier *et al.* 2010; Nieuwenhuijsen *et al.* 2009b, 2010). Additionally, previous reviews that have been publishing on this subject did not assess the risk of bias among included articles studied.

The objective of this chapter was to systematically review the evidence on the risks of spontaneous abortion (miscarriage), preterm or premature birth (PTB), low birth weight (LBW) and small for gestational age (SGA) associated with exposure to different drinking water disinfection by-products.

2. Methodology

The current study followed Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Metal-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines and guidance of observational studies in epidemiology criteria (Moher *et al.* 2009) (**Form 1**). The study received ethical approval from the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Pretoria (reference no. 115/2016).

2.1. Study question

The pertinent question to this study was: evaluating the evidence/literature on risk of spontaneous abortion (miscarriage), preterm or premature birth (PTB), low birth weight (LBW) and small for gestational age (SGA) among women exposed to different drinking water disinfection by-products during pregnancy.

2.2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria for this review

Observational studies that measure the association of drinking water disinfection byproducts maternal exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes were included in this review. Published studies in peer reviewed journals from 1986 to 2016 formed part of the investigation. We limited ourselves to articles published in English with females as participants and articles conducted in communities or populations. Studies with information on 1) trihalomethanes (THMs) 2) haloacetic acids (HAAs) 3) haloacetonitriles (HAs) 4) haloketones (HANs) 5) bromate and 6) chlorate as selected drinking water disinfection byproducts were included: The studies which provide rational information on the method of measuring of the maternal exposure to disinfection by-products and their effects on selected adverse pregnancy outcomes were considered for inclusion in the review. Studies with less than 30 participants, and summarised publications and studies using chlorination and monochloramination in other matrices or contexts other than drinking water disinfection were excluded from this review.

2.3. Types of studies

Peer-reviewed observational studies, retrospective or prospective cohort studies, casecontrol studies, and cross-sectional studies were included in the review.

2.4. Type of participants

In this review, we included studies identifying the pregnant women exposed to various drinking water disinfection by-products during time of pregnancy (at any time of gestation).

2.5. Exposure assessment

Data regarding maternal exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products obtained via three sources were eligible for inclusion; (1) measurement of participants' urine TCAA levels as a biomarker; (2) measuring of disinfection by-products from drinking water source (i.e. residential tap water); (3) linking data obtained from municipal or national monitoring database on water quality measurements, follow-on estimated value for women's exposure during time of pregnancy.

2.6. Outcomes assessment

We included studies that reported data on either four of the following outcomes: (1) pregnancy loss or spontaneous abortion (miscarriage); (2) Premature/preterm birth or premature delivery (PTB or PTD), defined as gestational age of less than 37 weeks; (3) Low birth weight (LBW), defined as birth weight of less than 2.5 kg; and (4) Small of gestational age (SGA), defined as birth weight below the 10th percentile for gestational age.

2.7. Search strategy

Searches were performed using PubMed, Medline and Google scholar electronic database using the terms and key words and a combination of the key words. Additional data were extracted from grey literature which include but is not limited to World Health Organisation, ProQuest dissertations as well as Theses database and conference proceedings. Water industry such as the South African Water Research Commission (WRC) were also used to search for data. The phrases and keys used were based on the terminology commonly used in this subject which include: "drinking water disinfection by-products", "chlorination of water", "monochloramination of water", "chlorination disinfection by-products", "chloramination disinfection by-products", "chloramination by-products", "exposure to disinfection by-products", "disinfection by-products health effects", "haloacetonitriles", "haloketones", "trihalomethanes", "haloacetic acids", "bromate", "chlorate", chlorination disinfection by-products", "chloramination disinfection by-products", "birth outcomes", "adverse pregnancy outcomes", "gestational age", "premature birth or preterm birth", "birth weight" (**Appendix A**). The searched articles were screened from their titles and abstracts to select the eligible studies.

2.8. Methods of review

2.8.1. Data extraction

Two reviewers independently evaluated each of the full texts of eligible studies and any disagreement was resolved via discussion, with the help of a third reviewer. Data extracted from each were piloted on to data collection form without modifying its origin. Lists of confounders were also collected before being adjusted for in the analysis in the studies. The included articles were then assessed for quality (**Table 2**).

2.8.2. Risk assessment of bias among included studies

The tool to assess the quality was adopted from Shah and Zao (2009) (**Appendix B**) with the scale from none to high bias. The table includes the following characteristics: selection, exposure assessment, outcome assessment, confounding factor, analytical and attrition bias.

2.8.3. Data synthesis

A systematically review of these was made rather than to perform meta-analyses, as heterogeneities were recognized in previous reviews. We did not assess statistical heterogeneity and publication bias, as the meta-analyses were not performed. However, studies were assessed for methodological differences and data were reported.

3. Results

3.1. Description of studies

Search results and the number of studies are summarized in **Figure 1** with the reasons for exclusion of the studies from this review. Detailed characteristics of all included studies are reported in **Table 1**.

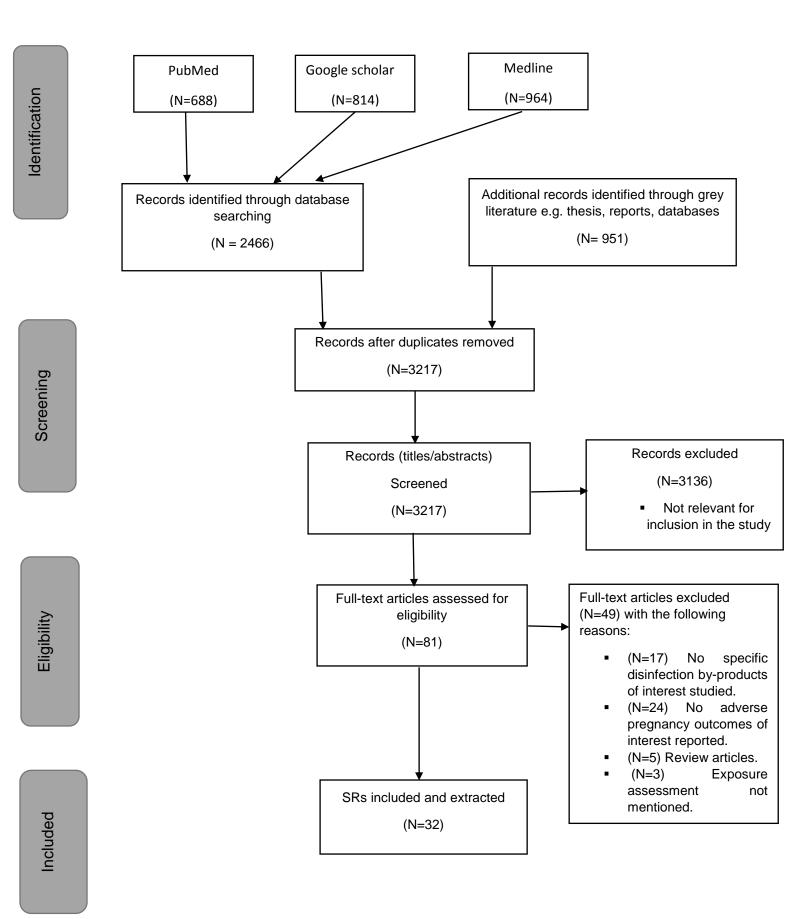


Figure 1 Flow diagram of search, screening and study selection

Table 1: Characteristics of included studies

Author (year)	Study details	Exposure measurement details	DBPs studied	Outcome studied	Outcome assessment details
Aggazzotti <i>et al.</i> (2004)	1999-2000; case-control study in Italy; n= 1194.	Collection of water and Questionnaire on mother's personal habits.	THM, chlorite and chlorate	Preterm birth (PTB) and small for gestational age (SGA).	Interviews and Medical records
Botton <i>et al.</i> (2015)	2003-2008; prospective cohort study in Gipuzkoa, Sabedell, Valencia, Spain and and 2007-2008; cohort study in Crete (Greece RHEA study); n=2216.	Interviews at recruitment. Collection of water sample in the tap covering the study areas and data abstracted from monitoring program.	ТНМ	Birth weight (BW).	Medical records and log books.
Bove <i>et al.</i> (1995)	1985-1988; Cross-sectional study; n=80 938 live births and n= 598 fetal deaths.	Water quality data obtained from monitoring program run by companies.	ТНМ	SGA, Low Birth Weight (LBW), PTB, BW	Birth databases and medical records.
Ca <i>et al</i> . (2016)	2011-2013; prospective Cohort in Wuhan and Xiagan, Hubei, China; n=1184	Questionnaires used.	TTMs	BW, Birth length (BL) and SGA.	Clinical birth records.
Costet <i>et al.</i> (2011)	2002-2006; PELAGIE cohort in France; n= 3,421	National database was used to estimate individual exposure to THMs together with the measuring the maternal urinary TCAA exposure.	THMs and HAAs	Fetal growth restrictions (FGR), PTB	Midwives, paediatricians and medical records.
Danileviciute et al. (2012)	2007-2009; Nested–control study part of Kaunas (Lithuania) cohort in European. n=682	Water-use questionnaire and residential exposure index were used. Blood samples were also used to measure the internal dose of individual exposure.	THMs, HAAs, HANs, HAs, chloropicrin and choral hydrate	LBW, SGA.	Medical records.
Doods <i>et al.</i> (1999)	1988-1995; retrospective cohorts study in Canada; n= 93 295.	Water quality data obtained from monitoring program.	ТТНМ	LBW, SGA.	Medical records and database.
Gallagher <i>et al.</i> (1998)	1990-1993; retrospective cohorts study in Colorado, USA; n=1893	Data obtained from monitoring program	TTHM	LBW, SGA and preterm delivery (PTD).	Medical records and database
Grazuleviciene <i>et al.</i> (2011)	2007-2009; prospective cohort study in Kaunas (Lithuania); n=4161	Questionnaire was used to interview the participants on water use activities.	THMs	LBW, SGA and BW.	Medical records.
Hinckley et al. (2005)	1998-2003; retrospective cohorts study in Arizona, USA; n=48119.	Water quality data obtained from monitoring program.	THMs and HAAs	LBW, PTB.	Vital records and birth records.
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)a	2000-2004; prospective cohorts study in US; n= 2039.	Water samples collected in each site. Interviews conducted from the participants.	TTHM and HAAs	РТВ	Medical records, vital records and self-reports.

Table 1. (Continue)

Author (year)	Study characteristics	Exposure assessment details	DBPs studied	Outcome	Outcome assessment details
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)b	2000-2004; US communities Cohort study; n=2766	Water samples were collected at a respective location in the distribution system. Self-reporting information on water-use was also collected.	TTHMs, HAAs and TOX)	SGA.	Medical records.
Horton <i>et al.</i> (2011)	2000-2004; US Community cohort study consist of two sites: Chlorinated DBP site (n=27 062 birth); Brominated DBP site(n=3946)	Weekly collections of water samples from representative location sites (i.e. Chlorinated-Brominated containing DBP) were used.	TTHMs, HAAs and (TOX)	SGA, PTB.	Birth records.
Ileka-Priouzeau et al. (2015)	2006-2008; Quebec, Canada case-control study; cases (n=330); controls (n=1100)	Water Samples were measured for HANs and HAs combined with the previous data on THMs and HAAs.	HANs, HAs, THMs and HAAs	SGA.	Birth certificates and medical records.
Iszatt <i>et al.</i> (2014)	2000-2005 and 2005-2007; Case -control study in UK;n= 472,526 live births and n=2631 stillbirths	National water quality data base was used to assign the individual exposure.	THMs	LBW.	Birth records.
Kogevinas <i>et al.</i> (2016)	2002-2010; prospective cohorts study in France Greece, Lithuania, Spain and UK; n=14 0005.	Water samples collected and additional data from regulatory monitoring program. Questionnaire administered to the participants.	ТНМ	SGA, LBW, PTB.	Birth records.
Kumar <i>et al.</i> (2014)	1998-2003; Cross-sectional study in New York state; n=1,528,681 singleton live births.	Exposure data obtained from public water system were maternal residence at the time of child birth.	TTHMs	LBW, SGA, PTB.	Birth certificate records.
Levallois et al. (2012)	2006-2008; Quebec, Canada case-control study; cases (n= 571); controls (n= 1925)	Chlorination by-products concentration were measured in the tap water at the participant's residence.	THMs and HAAs	SGA.	Birth certificates and medical records.
Lewis <i>et al.</i> (2006)	1999–2001; retrospective cohort study in Massachusetts; n= 40,514 records of singletons birth.	Water sampling for total trihalomethanes were used to estimate the exposure on maternal residence at birth and gestational age.	THMs	LBW	Registry of vital records
Lewis <i>et al.</i> (2007)	1999–2001; retrospective cohort study in Massachusetts; n=39,593 records of singletons birth.	Water sampling for total trihalomethanes were used to estimate the exposure on maternal residence at birth and gestational age.	TTHMs	PTB.	Birth certificates
Maclehose <i>et al.</i> (2008)	2000-2004; prospective cohorts study in US; n=2506.	Sampling of water at respective points. Questionnaires were administered to the participants.	THMs, HAAs, TOX	Pregnancy loss	Medical records.

Table 1. (Continue)

UK; n=1 million health statistics at UK Villanueva et al. (2011) 2000-2008; prospective cohort in Spain; n= 2074 Interviews were conducted from the participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and additional water quality data were obtained from local authorities and water companies. THM SGA, LBW, PTD Birth outcomes red trained midwives at de trained midwives at de Waller et al. (1998) 1989-1991; prospective cohorts study Water quality data was obtained from water THM Spontaneous abortion Hospital discharge,	Author (year)	Study characteristics	Exposure assessment details	DBPs studied	Outcome	Outcome assessment details
Rivera-Nurnez and 1996-2004: retrospective cohort study in Massachusetts; n=12,394 live infants. Public water systems have been used and participants have been used and manicipants have been used and manicipants have been used and manicipants in area. THMs and HAAs BW, SGA, PTD. Birth certificates Savitz <i>et al.</i> (1995) 1988-1991; case-control study in Centra North Carolina. Miscarriage, case 418 and controls 341; Low birth weight 464; Pretern delivery 586; controls 782. Water quality data obtained from regulatory monitoring program. Telephone interviews and person questionnaire were conducted to the participants. THM. Miscarriage, PTD, LBW Medical records. Savitz <i>et al.</i> (2006) 2000–2004; prospective cohort study in three US; n=2,409 women. Water samples were analysed from three US inclations, one referred to choinnated DBP site. THM, HAA and TOX Spontaneous abortion. Medical records. Summethayes <i>et al.</i> (2004) 1998 -2004; retrospective cohort study in three US; n=314,982. THM data were obtained from the water supply database were participants residue. THM SGA. Midwives data records. Villanueva <i>et al.</i> (2011) 2000-2008; prospective cohort study in UK; n=1 million Inferviews were conducted from the and principants. THM LBW National birth regit health statistics at UK Villanueva <i>et al.</i> (2011) 2002-2008; prospective cohort study (Pregnancy Outcome Study) in Califormia: n=144 Interviews were conducte	Patelarou <i>et al.</i> (2011)		samples were also collected in representative mother homes for DBPs	THMs	SGA, LBW, PTB.	Interview after birth.
North Carolina. Miscarniage; case 418 and controls 31; Low birth weight 464; Pretern ellivery 586; controls 782monitoring program. Telephone interviews and person to person on questionnaire were conducted to the participants.THM, HAA and TOXSpontaneous abortion.Savitz et al. (2006)2000–2004; prospective cohort study in three US; n=2,409 women.Water samples were analysed from three US locations, one referred to chlorinated DBP site, one referred to chlorinated DBP site, one referred to chlorinated DBP site.THM, HAA and TOXSpontaneous abortion.Medical records.Summerhayes et al. (2012)1998 -2004; retrospective cohort study in births.THM data were obtained from the water supply database were participants residing.THMSGA.Midwives data records.Toledono et al. (2004)1992-1998; retrospective cohort in Spain; n= 2074Collection of water samples for quality.TTHMLBWNational birth regi health statistics at UKVillanueva et al. (2011)2000-2008; prospective cohort in Spain; n= 2074Interviews were conducted from the participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and additional water quality data were obtained from local autorities and water companies.THMSGA, LBW, PTDBirth outcomes red trained midwives at de from local autorities were conducted from local autorities and water companies.Wight et al. (2004)1995-1991; prospective cohorts study in Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645Water quality data were abstracted from department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collectedTHM and HAAsSGA, BW, PTDBirth certificates.			Public water systems have been used and participants have been assigned the exposure together with collection of water samples in area.	THMs and HAAs		Birth certificates
three US; n=2,409 women.locations, one referred to chlorinated DBP site, one referred to brominated DBP site.Image: Comparison of the state of the st	Savitz <i>et al.</i> (1995)	North Carolina. Miscarriage; case 418 and controls 341; Low birth weight 464; Preterm	monitoring program. Telephone interviews and person to person questionnaire were	ТНМ	Miscarriage, PTD, LBW	Medical records.
(2012)New South Wales, Australia; n=314,982 births.supply database were participants residing.records.Toledono et al. (2004)1992-1998; retrospective cohorts study in UK; n=1 millionCollection of water samples for quality.TTHMLBWNational birth regi health statistics at UKVillanueva et al. (2011)2000-2008; prospective cohort in Spain; n= 2074Interviews were conducted from the participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and 	Savitz <i>et al.</i> (2006)		locations, one referred to chlorinated DBP site, one referred to brominated DBP site	THM, HAA and TOX	Spontaneous abortion.	Medical records.
UK; n=1 millionNealth statistics at UKVillanueva et al. (2011)2000-2008; prospective cohort in Spain; n= 2074Interviews were conducted from the participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and additional water quality data were obtained from local authorities and water companies.THMSGA, LBW, PTDBirth outcomes red trained midwives at de trained midwives at deWaller et al. (1998)1989-1991; prospective cohorts study (Pregnancy Outcome Study) in California; n=5144Water quality data was obtained from water utilities. Questionnaires were conducted from the participants.THMSpontaneous abortionHospital discharge, records, birth registry up interviewsWright et al. (2004)1995-1998; retrospective cohorts study Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645Water quality data were abstracted from department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collectedTTHM and HAAsSGA, BW, PTDBirth certificates.		New South Wales, Australia; n=314,982		ТНМ	SGA.	
207420742074participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and additional water quality data were obtained from local authorities and water companies.THMSource and campaignstrained midwives at de trained midwives at de trained midwives at de trained midwives at de additional water quality data were obtained from local authorities and water companies.THMSpontaneous abortionHospital discharge, records, birth registry up interviewsWaller et al. (1998)1989-1991; prospective cohorts study (Pregnancy Outcome Study) in California; n=5144Water quality data was obtained from water utilities. Questionnaires were conducted from the participants.THMSpontaneous abortionHospital discharge, records, birth registry up interviewsWright et al. (2004)1995-1998; retrospective cohorts study in Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645Water quality data were abstracted from department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collectedTHM and HAAsSGA, BW, PTDBirth certificates.	Toledono <i>et al.</i> (2004)		Collection of water samples for quality.	ТТНМ	LBW	National birth registers and health statistics at UK
(Pregnancy Outcome Study) in California; n=5144utilities. Questionnaires were conducted from the participants.records, birth registry up interviewsWright et al. (2004)1995-1998; retrospective cohorts study in Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645Water quality data were abstracted from department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collectedTTHM and HAAsSGA, BW, PTDBirth certificates.	Villanueva <i>et al</i> . (2011)		participants. THMs were ascertained based on sampling campaigns program and additional water quality data were obtained	ТНМ	SGA, LBW, PTD	Birth outcomes recorded by trained midwives at delivery.
Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645 department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collected	Waller <i>et al.</i> (1998)	(Pregnancy Outcome Study) in California;	utilities. Questionnaires were conducted	ТНМ	Spontaneous abortion	Hospital discharge, medical records, birth registry and follow- up interviews
	Wright <i>et al.</i> (2004)	1995-1998; retrospective cohorts study in Massachusetts, Boston, USA; n=282 645	department of environmental protection records. Water samples were also collected	TTHM and HAAs	SGA, BW, PTD	Birth certificates.

Table 1. (Continue)

Author (year)	Study characteristics	Exposure assessment details	DBPs studied	Outcome	Outcome assessment details
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2004)	1994-1996; retrospective cohort study in Taiwan; n= 182, 796; 128 municipalities	Water quality data obtained from authorities (TWSC).	THMs	LBW, PTD.	Registration of births and vital records.
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2007)	200-2002; cross-sectional study in Taiwan; n=90,848 women residing in the 65 municipalities			LBW, SGA, PTD.	Birth registry.
Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2012)	2008-2009; cross-sectional study in Wuhan, China; n=398	Face-to-Face interviews were conducted. Collection of urine samples were also collected from the participants.	HAA (TCAA)	BW	Birth records.

3.2. Quality assessment of included studies

Risks of bias assessment of the included studies were studied. Of 32 studies included, 26 (81%) had an overall low risk of bias, whereas 6 (19%) had an overall moderate risk of bias. In exposure assessment, moderate risks of bias were assigned to the studies due to indirect use of exposure methods employed. Most studies had no risk of bias for outcome assessment, confounder adjustments and participants' selection (see **Appendix C**. for details).

3.3. Outcomes

Adverse pregnancy outcomes according to various drinking water disinfection by-products were assessed. Studies included in the review reported various drinking water disinfection by-products; however, the majority of studies reported on THMs followed by HAAs or both. The results below are classified according to individual disinfection by-products. The details of level of exposure, time of exposure and birth outcomes are reported in **Tables 2-1** to **2-5**.

2.3.1. Trihalomethanes (THMs)

Twenty-nine studies reported data on adverse pregnancy outcomes following THMs exposure (**Table 2-1**). Studies reported on various levels of exposure, ranging from 0-108.8 µg/L. 16 studies were investigating the association between THMs exposure and SGA, and 13 studies reported on either PTB, PTD, LBW and pregnancy loss or both. Ten studies reported on exposure to THMs during third trimester, 13 studies during entire pregnancy, five studies reported on either both (first trimester and entire pregnancy) or (second trimester and third trimester) or only second trimester's maternal exposure. One study reported on either both (first, second, third trimesters and entire pregnancy) THMs exposure. Nine studies reported on evidence of association between maternal THMs exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes (Aggazzotti *et al.* 2004; Cao *et al.* 2016; Dodds *et al.* 1999; Grazuleviciene *et al.* 2011; Iszatt *et al.* 2014; Kumar *et al.* 2014; Levallois *et al.* 2012; Maclehose *et al.* 2008; Rivera-Nu⁻nez and Wright 2013). These studies were conducted in countries like US, UK, Canada, China, Italy and Europe. Twenty studies reported no association between THMs exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes-see Table 2-1.

2.3.2. Haloacetic acids (HAAs)

The exposure to HAAs and adverse pregnancy outcomes were explored in 12 studies (**Table 2-2**). The levels of exposure to HAAs were ranging from 0.1-75.9 μ g/L among studies. Five studies reported on exposure to HAAs and SGA, four studies reported on

exposure to HAAs and PTB/PTD, five studies on either LBW, BW or BWT. Two studies reported on exposure to HAAs and pregnancy loss. Hoffman *et al.* (2008b), Hinckley *et al.* (2005), Wright *et al.* (2004) and Zhou *et al.* (2012) reported exposure to HAAs during (third trimester); six studies reported on exposure during entire pregnancy (Costet *et al.* 2011; Danileviciute *et al.* 2012; Grazuleviciene *et al.* 2011; Horton *et al.* 2011; Savitz *et al.* 2006; Maclehose *et al.* 2008), Hoffman *et al.* (2008a) reported on (first trimester and entire pregnancy) and Rivera-N'u"nez and Wright (2013) reported on (second and third trimester). Eight studies were conducted in US, two in Europe, one in China and one in France. A slightly positive association between adverse pregnancy outcomes and high level of HAAs exposure were reported among the studies- see **Table 2-2**.

2.3.3. Haloacetaldehydes (HAs)

Two studies (Danileviciute *et al.* 2012; Ileka-Priouzeau *et al.* 2015) reported on adverse pregnancy outcomes following HAs exposure (**Table 2-3**). The levels of exposure to HAs were ranging from 1.0-9.00 μ g/L. Both articles studied HAs exposure and SGA or LBW or both. Studies were conducted in Europe and Canada respectively. No association between HAs exposure and SGA or LBW were reported.

2.3.4. Haloacetonitriles (HANs)

Three studies (Aggazzotti *et al.* 2004; Danileviciute *et al.* 2012; Ileka-Priouzeau *et al.* 2015) reported on pregnancy outcomes following chloropicrin and chloral hydrate exposure (**Table 2-4**). The levels of exposure were \geq 200 µg/L for chlorate or chlorite concentrations. Two studies reported on exposure to HANs during the entire pregnancy and one during third trimester. Studies reported on (SGA and PTD), (SGA and LBW), and SGA respectively. Studies were conducted in Italy, Europe and Canada. None of the studies reported an association.

2.3.5. Total Organic Halide (TOX)

Four studies (Hoffman *et al.* 2008b; Horton *et al.* 2011; Savitz *et al.* 2006; Maclehose *et al.* 2008) reported data on TOX and pregnancy outcomes (**Table 2-5**). The levels of exposure to TOX were ranging from 18.7-186 μ g/L. Three studies were conducted during entire pregnancy and one during the third trimester. The adverse pregnancy outcomes reported were either pregnancy loss, SGA or PTB. A slightly positive association between pregnancy loss with an increased TOX exposure were reported- see **Table 2-5**.

Table 2-1: Exposure to THMs and adverse pregnancy outcomes

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Aggazzotti <i>et al.</i> (2004)	10µg/L to 30µg/L	Third trimester	PTD, SGA	OR=1.38; (95% CI: 0.92-2.07) for term SGA
				OR= 0.84; (95% CI: 0.59-1.19) for preterm birth
Bove et al. (1995)	>100ppb	First trimester	LBW, SGA, PTB	OR= 1.42; (50% CI: 1.22-1.65) for LBW
		Entire pregnancy		OR =1.50; (50% Cl: 1.36-1.65) for PTB.
				Mean decrease in BW 70.4g (50% Cl: -58.2 to -82.6)
Ca et al. (2016)	5.3 to 52.3 ng/L	Third trimester	BW, SGA	Mean birth weight decrease (-60.9 g; 95% CI: -116.2, -5.6)
				OR= 2.25; (95% CI: 1.01-5.03) for SGA
Danileviciute et al. (2012)	1.3 to 21.9 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA	OR= 4.37; (95% CI: 1.36–14.08) for LBW
				OR= 5.06; (95% CI: 1.50–17.05) for SGA
Dodds et al. (1999)	0-49 μg/L, 50-74 μg/L,75-99	Third trimester	LBW, SGA, PTB	RR=1.8; (95% CI: 0.99-1.18) for SGA.
	μg/L and ≥ 100 μg/L			RR=1.04; (95% CI:0.92-1.18) for LBW.
				RR=0.97; (95% Cl: 0.87-1.09) for PTB.
				RR=0.89; (95% CI: 0.64- 1.23) for VLBW.
Gallagher et al. (1998)	Low (0-49 ppb) and high (≥ 50	Third trimester	LBW, PTD, term LBW	OR=1.5; (95% Cl: 0.8-3.0) for LBW.
	ppb)			OR=2.6; (95% Cl: 1.1-6.1) for term LBW.
				OR=0.9; (95% Cl: 0.4-2.0) for PTD.
Grazuleviciene et al.	1.3 to 21.9 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA	AOR= 2.17; (95% CI: 1.19-3.98) for LBW
(2011)				AOR=1.19; (95% CI: 0.87-1.163) for SGA
Hinckley et al. (2005)	≥ 53 µg/L for TTHMs	Third trimester	Term LBW	OR=1.11; (95% Cl: 0.94-1.31)
Hoffman <i>et al</i> . (2008)a	33.1-55.0, 55.1-66.3, 66.4-74.8	First trimester	PTB	OR range from 0.5 to 1.25 with 95% CI ranging from (0.3-0.8) and (0.96-1.64),
	and 74.9-108.8 µg/L	Entire pregnancy		respectively.
Hoffman <i>et al</i> . (2008)b	< 80 µg/L and ≥80 µg/L	Third-trimester	SGA	RR= 2.0; (95% CI: 1.1-3.6)

SGA= Small for gestational age; PTB= premature or preterm birth; PTD=premature or preterm delivery; LBW= low birth weight; BWT= mean birth weight; BW= birth weight; HR= Hazard ratio; RR=

relative risk; OR= odds ratio; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Table 2-1 (continue)

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Horton <i>et al.</i> (2011)	60.7 to 75.9 μg/L (chlorinated site). 58.9 to 67.4 μg/L (brominated site)	Entire pregnancy	SGA, PTB	AOR=1.02; (95% CI: 0.91-1.15) for SGA and AOR=0.93; (95% CI: 0.84-1.04) for PTB in chlorinated site. AOR= 0.81; (95% CI: 0.53-1.24) for SGA and AOR= 1.16; (95% CI: 0.77-1.74) for PTB in brominated site.
Iszatt <i>et al.</i> (2014)	27.6 to 55.2 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	Still birth, LBW	Decrease in chloroform from 30 to 65 µg/l shows percentage decrease in low birth weight by -9% (-12, -5) and very low birth weight -16% (9-24, -8) rates.
Kogevinas <i>et al.</i> (2016)	≥ 10 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	SGA, LBW, PTB	OR= 10 µg/L = 1.02; (95% CI: 0.95, 1.10) for LBW, OR = 0.99; (95% CI: 0.94, 1.03) for SGA and OR = 0.98; (95% CI: 0.9, 1.05) for PTB
Kumar <i>et al.</i> (2014)	0 to 40 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA, PTB	OR= 1.14; (95% CI: 1.08–1.21) for LBW; OR= 1.14; (95% CI: 1.08–1.20) for PTB and OR= 1.10; (95 % CI 1.04–1.16) for SGA
Levallois et al. (2012)	>80 µg/L and < 80 µg/L	Third trimester	SGA	AOR= 1.5; (95% CI: 1.1–1.9)
Lewis et al. (2006)	≥70 µg/L	Second trimester	LBW	OR= 1.50; (95% CI: 1.07-2.10)
Lewis <i>et al.</i> (2007)	≥60 µg/L	Third trimester	РТВ	HR= 1.13; (95% CI: 0.95-1.35)
Maclehose et al. (2008)	3.7 to 67.3µg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	AOR = 1.2; (95% Cl :1.0–1.4)
Patelarou <i>et al.</i> (2011)	0.39 to 8.74 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	SGA, LBW, PTB	OR= 0.7; (95% CI 0.4 - 1.4) for LBW. OR= 1.1; (95% CI 0.6 -2.2) for SGA. OR= 0.8; (95% CI 0.5 -1.3) for PTD.
Rivera-N'u"nez and Wright (2013)	37.5 to 38.1 μg/L	Second and third trimester	BWT, SGA, PTD	AOR=1.02; (95% Cl 0.97 -1.07) for SGA. AOR= -17; (95% Cl: -24 to -11) for BWT. AOR =1.02; (95% Cl: 0.96 to 1.08) for PTD.

SGA= Small for gestational age; PTB= premature or preterm birth; PTD=premature or preterm delivery; LBW= low birth weight; BWT= mean birth weight; BW= birth weight; HR= Hazard ratio; RR= relative risk; OR= odds ratio; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Table 2-1 (continue)

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Savitz <i>et al.</i> (1995)	≥ 40.8ppb	Entire pregnancy	Miscarriage, PTD, LBW	AOR = 2.8; (95% Cl: 1.1–2.7) for miscarriage.
				AOR= 1.2; (95% Cl: 0.8-1.7) for preterm birth.
				AOR=1.3; (95% CI: 0.8-2.1) for LBW.
Savitz et al. (2006)	≥75 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	OR= 1.1; (95% CI: 0.7-1.7)
Summerhayes et al. (2012)	≥0.3 µg/L	Third trimester	SGA	RR=1.04; (95% CI:1.02– 1.06)
Toledono et al. (2004)	(< 30 µg/L), (30–59 µg/L), (≥	Entire pregnancy	LBW	OR = 1.09; (95% CI: 0.93-1.27) for LBW and OR = 1.05; (95% CI: 0.82-1.34)
	60 µg/L)			for VLBW.
Villanueva et al. (2011)	5.9 µg/L to 114.7 µg/L	First, second, third trimester and the	SGA, LBW, PTB	OR= 1.005; (95% CI: 0.97-1.032) for PTB.
		Entire pregnancy		OR= 1.003; (95% CI: 0.990-1.017) for SGA.
				Birth weight was reduced 0.45 g; (95% CI: -1.36 to 0.45) for total residential
				chloroform uptake and increased 0.16 g; (95% CI: -1.38 to 1.70) for total
				brominated THM uptake.
Waller et al. (1998)	≥120 µg/L	First trimester	Spontaneous abortion	AOR=1.8; (95% CI: 1.1-3.0)
Wright <i>et al.</i> (2004)	> 40 µg/L.	Third-trimester	SGA, BW, PTD	OR = 1.25; (95% CI:1.04-1.51) for SGA and mean birth weight –27 g; (95% CI:
				–54 to –1).
Yang <i>et al</i> . (2004)	Not mentioned	Entire pregnancy	LBW, PTD.	AOR = 1.37; (95% Cl: 1.20-1.56) for PTD and 1.05; (95% Cl: 0.94–1.18) for
				LBW.
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2007)	0–4.93 mg/L, 4.93–13.11	Entire pregnancy	SGA, LBW, PTD	AORs in medium versus low and high versus low exposure categories were
	mg/L, >13.11 mg/L			0.98; (95% CI :0.90-1.08) and 1.03; (95% CI: 0.94-1.13). respectively. for term
				LBW; 1.02; (95% CI: 0.93–1.13) and 1.09; (95% CI: 0.99–1.19), respectively.
				for PTD; they were 0.99; (95% CI: 0.94-1.05) and 0.99; (95% CI: 0.94-1.04),
				respectively. for SGA

SGA= Small for gestational age; PTB= premature or preterm birth; PTD=premature or preterm delivery; LBW= low birth weight; BWT= mean birth weight; BW= birth weight; HR= Hazard ratio; RR= relative risk; OR= odds ratio; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Table 2-2: Exposure to HAAs and adverse	pregnancy outcomes
---	--------------------

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Costet et al. (2011)	7.4 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	РТВ	AOR= 0.8; (95% CI: 0.3-2.6)
Danileviciute et al. (2012)	0.1 to 0.5 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA	Not mentioned
Grazuleviciene et al. (2011)	0.1 to 0.5 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA	Not mentioned
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)b	21.2 to 5.9 µg/L	Third-trimester	SGA	RR=1.3; (95% CI: 0.7-2.4)
Horton <i>et al.</i> (2011)	58.9 to 75.9 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	SGA, PTB	Not mentioned
Rivera-N'u nez and Wright (2013)	20.0 to 20.1 µg/L	Second- and third- trimester	BWT, SGA, PTD	AOR=1.10; (95% CI: 0.94 -1.29)
Savitz et al. (2006)	45.2 to 45.9 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	Not mentioned
Hinckley et al. (2005)	≥ 19 µg/L	Third trimester	Term LBW	
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)a	17.9 to 22.0, 22.1-31.5, 31.6-40.4 and 40.5 to 52.8 μg/L	First trimester Entire pregnancy	РТВ	OR= 0.5 and 1.1; 95% CI: (0.3- 0.8) and (0.8-1.7), respectively.
Maclehose et al. (2008)	1.7 to 12.3 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	OR= 1.2; (95% CI: 1.0–1.4)
Wright <i>et al.</i> (2004)	≤ 58 μg/L	Third trimester		OR=–0.9 days; (95% CI: –1.7 to –0.1) for SGA OR = 1.48; 95% CI, 0.84 to 2.61). for PTD
Zhou <i>et al</i> . (2012)	0.9 μg/g Cr to 123.3 μg/g Cr and 2 μg/L to 57.7 μg/L, respectively	Third-trimester	BW	AOR= 20.6g; (95% CI: −84.1, 125.3).

SGA= Small for gestational age; PTB= premature or preterm birth; PTD=premature or preterm delivery; LBW= low birth weight; BWT= mean birth weight; BW= birth weight; HR= Hazard ratio; RR= relative risk; OR= odds ratio; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Table 2-3: Exposure to HAs and adverse pregnancy outcomes

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Danileviciute et al. (2012)	1.0 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW and SGA	Not mentioned
Ileka-Priouzeau <i>et al.</i> (2015)	8.78 to 9.00 μg/L	Third trimester	SGA	OR=1.4; (95% CI: 0.9 -2.1)

SGA= Small for gestational age; LBW= low birth weight; OR= odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Table 2-4: Exposure to HANs (chloropicrin and chloral hydrate) and adverse pregnancy outcomes

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Aggazzotti <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Chlorites=216.5 µg/L; chlorates = 76.5 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	PTD, SGA	AOR: 1.38; (95% CI: 0.92–2.07)
Danileviciute et al. (2012)	< 1.0 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	LBW, SGA	Not mentioned
lleka-Priouzeau et al. (2015)	1.80-1.86 µg/L	Third trimester	SGA	OR= 1.1; (95% CI 0.7–1.6)

SGA= Small for gestational age; LBW= low birth weight; PTD=premature or preterm delivery; OR= odds ratio; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; CI= confidence interval.

Author (year)	Level of exposure	Time of exposure	Birth outcomes	Results (statistical)
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)b	≤ 173.8 μg/L	Third-trimester	SGA	RR= 1.3; (95% Cl: 0.7–2.3)
Horton <i>et al.</i> (2011)	170.8 to 186.1 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	SGA and PTB	AOR= 1.01; (95% CI: 0.90-1.13) for SGA AOR= 0.96; (95% CI: 0.87-1.05) for PTB
Savitz et al. (2006)	173.7 to 182.3 μg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	AOR= 1.2; (95% CI: 0.8-1.8)
Maclehose et al. (2008)	18.7 to 178.8 µg/L	Entire pregnancy	Pregnancy loss	AOR= 1.5; (95% CI:1.2–1.8)

 Table 2-5: Exposure to TOX and adverse pregnancy outcomes

SGA= Small for gestational age; PTB= premature or preterm birth; AOR= adjusted odds ratio; RR= relative risk; CI= confidence interval

3. Discussion

We used a systematic review of 32 studies to assess the associations between exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products and adverse pregnancy outcomes. We identified various disinfection by-products on adverse pregnancy outcomes of spontaneous abortion (miscarriage), preterm or premature birth (PTB), low birth weight (LBW) and small for gestational age (SGA). Various disinfection by-products include THMs, HAAs, HANs and TOX found in drinking water.

In this review, 38% of the studies included in the review reported on evidence of association between maternal exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products and adverse pregnancy outcomes. This was consistent with the findings from Grellier *et al.*'s (2010) review, were 40% of studies included were statistically associated with birth outcomes. THMs were associated with SGA and slightly with LBW or pregnancy loss. Higher concentrations of HAAs and TOX exposures were slightly associated with SGA and pregnancy loss respectively. The evidence of any association between other drinking water disinfection by-products (HAs, HANs) and adverse pregnancy outcomes is still inconclusive. The examination of drinking water disinfection by-products and adverse pregnancy outcomes or birth outcomes is still a challenge in most epidemiological studies.

Our reviewed articles demonstrated different exposure assessments methods used, of which, 31% of the studies used exposure data obtained from national or local database housed-by water utilities/industries whereas, 34% of the studies used water sampling campaigns to measure the disinfection by-products concentrations around the residential areas while 22% studies used both water sampling campaigns and national or local database from water utilities/industries to assign the exposure to the participants wherein some instance relies on questionnaire for personal habits. The indirect approach of measuring exposure assessments is still the most common applied methodology because it is less costly.

Recently, other methods of measuring exposures in epidemiological studies have been explored. For instance, the use of blood samples to measure the internal exposure was reported by Danileviciute *et al.* (2012) in this review. Blood THMs decrease within minutes to hours after exposure; however, slower partitioning out of adipose tissue and the relatively high (e.g. daily) frequency of exposure events such as showering/bathing are thought to produce steady-state blood concentrations (Savitz 2012). Costet *et al.* (2011) and Zhou *et al.* (2012) also explore the use of urine samples to measure the Trichloroacetic acid (TCAA) levels. Trichloroacetic acid is one of major haloacetic acid (HAAs) and is being used as a biomarker because it is stable, unmetabolized in urine and is not readily degraded through the collection and storage processes (Smith *et al.* 2013). The eradication half-life of TCAA is between 2-6 days which gives enough information on urinary concentration (Savitz 2012). Both studies show a positive evidence of using a biomarker for exposure assessment.

In this review, included studies were performed in well developed countries and the effects of exposure on adverse pregnancy outcomes can vary according to the country in which the study is being conducted as the regulatory standards differs. Countries like European Union, the US, the UK, Australia, China and others (e.g., Canada, Italy) have set their standards which benchmark against the WHO drinking water quality guidelines of 2011. For instance, European Communities (EC) has set the drinking water quality standard for total THMs to $100\mu g/l$ (WHO. 2011). The United States have set a regulatory standard for THMs to $80 \mu g/L$ and $60 \mu g/L$ for five haloacetic acid and $10 \mu g/L$ for bromate and $1000 \mu g/L$ for Chlorite (USEPA. 2011). Canada has set a limit of $80 \mu g/L$ level for THMs with provisional maximum acceptable concentrations (MACs) of $100 \mu g/L$ level of the THMs according to the guidelines for Canadian drinking water quality of 2003 (Rodriguez *et al.* 2004).

Previous review by Bove *et al.* (2002) found moderate association between THMs exposure and birth outcomes (SGA and spontaneous abortions). Their results correlate with the findings from the review conducted by Grellier *et al.* (2010), where SGA was associated with exposure to total trihalomethanes, of which, 9 Studies included in Grellier *et al.* (2010)

review, none found statistical significant on associations of disinfection by-products with preterm birth (Dodds *et al.* 1999; Gallagher *et al.* 1998; Hoffman *et al.* 2008a; Kramer *et al.* 1992; Lewis *et al.* 2007; Savitz *et al.*1995; Wright *et al.* 2003, 2004; Yang *et al.* 2007). Our results have both similarities and differences compared with the previous reviews. However, none of the previous reviews have used the PRISMA guidelines. In addition, impact based on individual drinking water disinfection by-products was not observed from previous reviews.

This review has demonstrated several strengths. To our knowledge this marks the first review to assess associations of adverse pregnancy outcomes using PRISMA guidelines. The method of reviewing also assesses the maternal exposure to individual drinking water disinfection by-products. Risk assessment of biases in the included studies and analyses of exposure-outcome measurement also gives strength to this review. However, the review has limitations also. We did not retrieve the raw data for studies included in the review. We also limit our searches strategies to English language publications only. The scope was that they may be low possibility of different results in non-English language articles.

Health determinants factors that contribute to adverse pregnancy outcomes should be considered when interpreting the results. Therefore, our data in most studies included in the review were extracted after adjusting the confounders. Another limitation, like other reviews, is that the adverse pregnancy outcomes definitions are not the same across the studies. These limitations are important to consider when considering the conclusions of this review. The purpose for this article was to assess on associations or risks, not to disprove or prove causality.

5. Conclusion

Mothers' exposures to common (THMs, HAAs) drinking water disinfection by-products have association with adverse pregnancy outcomes. In addition, the concentration levels of DBPs studied varied between studies. Most studies are being conducted in developed countries were the set standards are well established and regulated. Evidence of any association between other drinking water disinfection by-products (HAs, HANs) and adverse pregnancy outcomes is still inconclusive. However, the absence of association results does not demonstrate the absence of health effects on pregnancy outcomes. Likewise, a statistical significance does not always suggest clinical importance. Difficulty in measuring exposure, inappropriate time of measurement and interaction between drinking water disinfection by-products may have resulted in absence of association in most studies. The use of urinary TCCA biomarkers as a direct exposure assessment method is deemed to be the future on this field.

5.1. Implications for practice

Health impacts associated with disinfection by-products is a global issue in public health perspectives. The findings of this review underline the need of action to be taken in reduction of exposure to disinfection by-products, especially during pregnancy. The association of THMs and pregnancy outcomes indicates that exposure to high THMs concentration during pregnancy is harmful to the foetus. The association of other health determinants factors and birth outcomes are important as indicated in other studies. National, regional and local water industries efforts are needed to reduce the products are regulated internationally, exposure to disinfection by-products can vary according to individual actions such as water activities habit especially during pregnancy as many tend to consume more water than normal.

5.2. Implications for research

Future studies need to focus on underlying the biological mechanisms to understand the impact of individual contaminants as well as the interactions between them. Previous studies have underlined the key areas where research is needed to improve the understanding of the association between disinfection by-products in drinking water and adverse pregnancy outcomes (Villaneuva *et al.* 2015) include biological mechanism of action is necessary and use of cohort studies with the use of biomarkers. Studies with large sample size are needed to have sufficient statistical power (Villaneuva *et al.* 2014) and a better understanding of pathways by which disinfection by-products or contaminants cause birth outcomes (Ferguson *et al.* 2013). Developing countries must also form part of this assessment in this field in order to add to the exiting knowledge.

References

Aggazzotti, G., Righi, E., Fantuzzi, G., Biasotti, B., Ravera, G., Kanitz, S., Barbone, F., Sansebastiano, G., Battaglia, M.A. and Leoni, V. (2004) Chlorination by-products (CBPs) in drinking water and adverse pregnancy outcomes in Italy. *Journal of Water and Health*, 2(4), 233-247.

Botton, J., Kogevinas, M., Gracia-Lavedan, E., Patelarou, E., Roumeliotaki, T., Iñiguez, C., Santa Marina, L., Ibarluzea, J., Ballester, F. and Mendez, M.A. (2015) Postnatal weight growth and trihalomethane exposure during pregnancy. *Environmental research*, 136280-288.

Bove, F., Shim, Y. and Zeitz, P. (2002) Drinking water contaminants and adverse pregnancy outcomes: a review. *Environmental health perspectives*, 110 Suppl 161-74.

Bove, F.J., Fulcomer, M.C., Klotz, J.B., Esmart, J., Dufficy, E.M. and Savrin, J.E. (1995) Public drinking water contamination and birth outcomes. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 141(9), 850-862.

Cao, W.C., Zeng, Q., Luo, Y., Chen, H.X., Miao, D.Y., Li, L., Cheng, Y.H., Li, M., Wang, F., You, L., Wang, Y.X., Yang, P. and Lu, W.Q. (2016) Blood Biomarkers of Late Pregnancy Exposure to Trihalomethanes in Drinking Water and Fetal Growth Measures and Gestational Age in a Chinese Cohort. *Environmental health perspectives*, 124(4), 536-541.

Costet, N., Garlantézec, R., Monfort, C., Rouget, F., Gagnière, B., Chevrier, C. and Cordier, S. (2011) Environmental and urinary markers of prenatal exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products, fetal growth, and duration of gestation in the PELAGIE birth cohort (Brittany, France, 2002–2006). *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 175(4), 263-275.

Danileviciute, A., Grazuleviciene, R., Vencloviene, J., Paulauskas, A. and Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J. (2012) Exposure to drinking water trihalomethanes and their association with low birth weight and small for gestational age in genetically susceptible women. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 9(12), 4470-4485.

Dodds, L., King, W., Woolcott, C. and Pole, J. (1999) Trihalomethanes in public water supplies and adverse birth outcomes. *Epidemiology*, 10(3), 233-237.

Dodds, L., King, W., Woolcott, C. and Pole, J. (1999) Trihalomethanes in public water supplies and adverse birth outcomes. *Epidemiology*, 10(3), 233-237.

Ferguson, K.K., O'Neill, M.S. and Meeker, J.D. (2013) Environmental contaminant exposures and preterm birth: a comprehensive review. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part B,* 16(2), 69-113.

Gallagher, M.D., Nuckols, J.R., Stallones, L. and Savitz, D.A. (1998) Exposure to trihalomethanes and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Epidemiology*, 484-489.

Gallagher, M.D., Nuckols, J.R., Stallones, L. and Savitz, D.A. (1998) Exposure to

Grellier, J., Bennett, J., Patelarou, E., Smith, R.B., Toledano, M.B., Rushton, L., Briggs, D.J. and Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J. (2010) Exposure to disinfection by-products, fetal growth, and prematurity: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Epidemiology*, 300-313.

Grazuleviciene, R., Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Vencloviene, J., Kostopoulou-Karadanelli, M., Krasner, S.W., Danileviciute, A., Balcius, G. and Kapustinskiene, V. 2011 Individual exposures to drinking water trihalomethanes, low birth weight and small for gestational age risk: a prospective Kaunas cohort study. *Environmental Health* **10** (1), 1-11.

Hinckley, A.F., Bachand, A.M. and Reif, J.S. (2005) Late pregnancy exposures to disinfection by-products and growth-related birth outcomes. *Environmental health perspectives*, 113(12), 1808-1813.

Hoffman, C.S., Mendola, P., Savitz, D.A., Herring, A.H., Loomis, D., Hartmann, K.E., Singer, P.C., Weinberg, H.S. and Olshan, A.F. (2008)a Drinking water disinfection by-product exposure and duration of gestation. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)*, 19(5), 738-746.

Hoffman, C.S., Mendola, P., Savitz, D.A., Herring, A.H., Loomis, D., Hartmann, K.E., Singer, P.C., Weinberg, H.S. and Olshan, A.F. (2008)b Drinking water disinfection by-product exposure and fetal growth. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)*, 19(5), 729-737.

Horton, B.J., Luben, T.J., Herring, A.H., Savitz, D.A., Singer, P.C., Weinberg, H.S. and Hartmann, K.E. (2011) The effect of water disinfection by-products on pregnancy outcomes in two southeastern US communities. *Journal of occupational and environmental medicine*, 53(10), 1172-1178.

Hwang, B. & Jaakkola, J.J. (2003) Water chlorination and birth defects: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Archives of Environmental Health: An International Journal*, 58(2), 83-91.

Ileka-Priouzeau, S., Campagna, C., Legay, C., Deonandan, R., Rodriguez, M.J. and Levallois, P. (2015) Women exposure during pregnancy to haloacetaldehydes and haloacetonitriles in drinking water and risk of small-for-gestational-age neonate. *Environmental research*, 137338-348.

Iszatt, N., Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Bennett, J.E. and Toledano, M.B. (2014) Trihalomethanes in public drinking water and stillbirth and low birth weight rates: an intervention study. *Environment international,* 73434-439.

Kogevinas, M., Bustamante, M., Gracia-Lavedán, E., Ballester, F., Cordier, S., Costet, N., Espinosa, A., Grazuleviciene, R., Danileviciute, A. and Ibarluzea, J. (2016) Drinking water disinfection by-products, genetic polymorphisms, and birth outcomes in a European mother–child cohort study. *Epidemiology*, 27(6), 903-911.

Kramer, M.D., Lynch, C.F., Isacson, P. and Hanson, J.W. (1992) The association of waterborne chloroform with intrauterine growth retardation. *Epidemiology*, 407-413.

Kumar, S., Forand, S., Babcock, G. and Hwang, S. (2014) Total trihalomethanes in public drinking water supply and birth outcomes: a cross-sectional study. *Maternal and child health journal*, 18(4), 996-1006.

Levallois, P., Gingras, S., Marcoux, S., Legay, C., Catto, C., Rodriguez, M. and Tardif, R. (2012) Maternal exposure to drinking-water chlorination by-products and small-forgestational-age neonates. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)*, 23(2), 267-276.

Lewis, C., Suffet, I.H., Hoggatt, K. and Ritz, B. (2007) Estimated effects of disinfection byproducts on preterm birth in a population served by a single water utility. *Environmental health perspectives*, 115(2), 290-295.

Lewis, C., Suffet, I.H., Hoggatt, K. and Ritz, B. (2007) Estimated effects of disinfection byproducts on preterm birth in a population served by a single water utility. *Environmental health perspectives*, 115(2), 290-295.

Lewis, C., Suffet, I.H. and Ritz, B. 2006 Estimated Effects of Disinfection By-products on Birth Weight in a Population Served by a Single Water Utility. *American Journal of Epidemiology* **163(**1), 38-47.

MacLehose, R.F., Savitz, D.A., Herring, A.H., Hartmann, K.E., Singer, P.C. and Weinberg, H.S. (2008) Drinking water disinfection by-products and time to pregnancy. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)*, 19(3), 451-458.

Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Grellier, J., Iszatt, N., Martinez, D., Rahman, M.B. and Villanueva, C.M. (2010) Literature review of meta-analyses and pooled analyses of disinfection byproducts in drinking water and cancer and reproductive health outcomes. In contaminants of emerging concern in the environment: ecological and human health considerations. 1048th edition. (R. U. Halden, ed.). **Washington, DC:** *American Chemical Society.*483–496.

Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Grellier, J., Smith, R., Iszatt, N., Bennett, J., Best, N. and Toledano, M. (2009)b The epidemiology and possible mechanisms of disinfection by-products in drinking water. *Philosophical transactions.Series A, Mathematical, physical, and engineering sciences,* 367(1904), 4043-4076.

Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Smith, R., Golfinopoulos, S., Best, N., Bennett, J., Aggazzotti, G., Righi, E., Fantuzzi, G., Bucchini, L. and Cordier, S. (2009)a Health impacts of long-term exposure to disinfection by-products in drinking water in Europe: HIWATE. *Journal of water and health*, 7(2), 185-207.

Patelarou, E., Kargaki, S., Stephanou, E.G., Nieuwenhuijsen, M., Sourtzi, P., Gracia, E., Chatzi, L., Koutis, A. and Kogevinas, M. (2011) Exposure to brominated trihalomethanes in drinking water and reproductive outcomes. *Occupational and environmental medicine*, 68(6), 438-445.

Richardson, S.D., Plewa, M.J., Wagner, E.D., Schoeny, R. and DeMarini, D.M. (2007) Occurrence, genotoxicity, and carcinogenicity of regulated and emerging disinfection byproducts in drinking water: a review and roadmap for research. *Mutation Research/Reviews in Mutation Research*, 636(1), 178-242.

Rivera-Núñez, Z.& Wright, J.M. 2013 Association of brominated trihalomethane and haloacetic acid exposure with fetal growth and preterm delivery in Massachusetts. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine* **55** (10), 1125–1134.

Rodriguez M.J., Sérodes J., Levallois P. (2004) Behavior of trihalomethanes and haloacetic acids in a drinking water distribution system. *Water Research*, 38(20), 4367-4382.

Rook, J.J. (1974) Formation of haloforms during chlorination of natural waters. *Water Treatement Examination.*, 23234-243.

Savitz, D.A. (2012) Invited commentary: biomarkers of exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products--are we ready yet? *American Journal of Epidemiology*,175(4), 276-278.

Savitz, D.A., Andrews, K.W. and Pastore, L.M. (1995) Drinking water and pregnancy outcome in central North Carolina: source, amount, and trihalomethane levels. *Environmental health perspectives*, 103(6), 592-596.

Savitz, D.A., Singer, P.C., Herring, A.H., Hartmann, K.E., Weinberg, H.S. and Makarushka, C. (2006) Exposure to drinking water disinfection by-products and pregnancy loss. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 164(11), 1043-1051.

Shah, P.S. and Zao, J. (2009) Induced termination of pregnancy and low birthweight and preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analyses. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology*, 116(11), 1425-1442.

Smith, R.B., Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Wright, J., Raynor, P., Cocker, J., Jones, K., et al. (2013) Validation of trichloroacetic acid exposure via drinking water during pregnancy using a urinary TCAA biomarker. *Environmental research*,126:145-151.

South African National Standard (SANS) 241-1 ED.2 (2015). South African Bureau of Standards Drinking Water- Part 1: Microbiological, physical, aesthetic and chemical determinands. Pretoria: SABS Standards Division.

Summerhayes RJ, Morgan GG, Edwards HP, Lincoln D, Earnest A, Rahman B and Beard JR. (2012) Exposure to trihalomethanes in drinking water and small-for-gestational-age births. *Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.)* **23**(1), 15-22.

Toledano, M.B., Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J., Best, N., Whitaker, H., Hambly, P., de Hoogh, C., Fawell, J., Jarup, L. and Elliott, P. (2005) Relation of trihalomethane concentrations in public water supplies to stillbirth and birth weight in three water regions in England. *Environmental health perspectives* **113**(2), 225-232.

USEPA. (2011). Water: Drinking Water Contaminants. National Primary Drinking Water Regulations.URL: <u>http://water.epa.gov/</u>

Villanueva, C.M., Cordier, S., Font-Ribera, L., Salas, L.A. and Levallois, P. (2015) Overview of disinfection by-products and associated health effects. *Current environmental health reports*, 2(1), 107-115.

Villanueva, C.M., Gracia-Lavedan, E., Ibarluzea, J., Santa Marina, L., Ballester, F., Llop, S., Tardon, A., Fernandez, M.F., Freire, C., Goni, F., Basagana, X., Kogevinas, M., Grimalt, J.O., Sunyer, J. and INMA (Infancia y Medio Ambiente) Project. (2011) Exposure to trihalomethanes through different water uses and birth weight, small for gestational age, and preterm delivery in Spain. *Environmental health perspectives*, 119(12), 1824-1830.

Villanueva, C.M., Kogevinas, M., Cordier, S., Templeton, M.R., Vermeulen, R., Nuckols, J.R., Nieuwenhuijsen, M.J. and Levallois, P. (2014) Assessing exposure and health consequences of chemicals in drinking water: current state of knowledge and research needs. *Environmental health perspectives*, 122(3), 213-221.

Waller, K., Swan, S.H., DeLorenze, G. and Hopkins, B. (1998) Trihalomethanes in drinking water and spontaneous abortion. *Epidemiology*, 9(2), 134-140.

Waller, K., Swan, S.H., Windham, G.C. and Fenster, L. (2001) Influence of exposure assessment methods on risk estimates in an epidemiologic study of total trihalomethane exposure and spontaneous abortion. *Journal of Exposure Science and Environmental Epidemiology*, 11(6), 522.

Wright, J.M., Schwartz, J. and Dockery, D.W. (2003) Effect of trihalomethane exposure on fetal development. *Occupational and environmental medicine*, 60(3), 173-180.

Wright, J.M., Schwartz, J. and Dockery, D.W. (2004) The effect of disinfection by-products and mutagenic activity on birth weight and gestational duration. *Environmental health perspectives*, 112(8), 920-925.

Yang, C. (2004) Drinking water chlorination and adverse birth outcomes in Taiwan. *Toxicology* **198**(1), 249-254

Yang, C., Xiao, Z., Ho, S., Wu, T. and Tsai, S. (2007) Association between trihalomethane concentrations in drinking water and adverse pregnancy outcome in Taiwan. *Environmental research*, 104(3), 390-395.

Zhou, W., Xu, L., Xie, S., Li, Y., Li, L., Zeng, Q., Du, Y. and Lu, W. (2012) Decreased birth weight in relation to maternal urinary trichloroacetic acid levels. *Science of the Total Environment,* 416105-110.

Appendix A. Search res	ults for	Medline
------------------------	----------	---------

Set#	Searched for	Databases	Results
S1	pub((drinking water disinfection by-products) OR (chlorination OR monochloramination	MEDLINE®	964°
	of water) OR (exposure to disinfection by-products OR disinfection by-products health		
	effects) OR (trihalomethanes OR haloacetic acids) OR (haloacetonitriles OR		
	haloketones) OR (bromate OR chlorate) AND (adverse pregnancy outcomes OR birth		
	outcomes) OR (birth defects OR gestational age) OR (premature birth OR preterm		
	bith) OR (birth weight)) AND female(yes) AND peer(yes) AND human(yes) AND		
	rtype.exact("Journal Article" OR "Observational Study") AND la.exact("English") AND		
	pd(1986-2016)		

°Number of Duplicates removed from our search and from our result count

Bias	None	Low	Moderate
Selection	 Consecutive unselected population Sample selected from general population rather than a select group Rationale for case and control selection explained Follow up or assessment time explained 	 Sample selected from large population but selection criteria not defined A select group of population (based on race, ethnicity, residence etc.) studied 	 Sample selection ambiguous but sample may be representative Eligibility criteria not explained Rationale for case and controls not explained Follow up or assessment time not explained
Exposure assessment	 Direct questioning (interview) or completion of survey by women at the time of exposure or close to the time of exposure Direct measurement of exposure (laboratory) 	 Assessment of exposure from global dataset Indirect assessment (postal survey, mailed questionnaire) Recall of exposure <1 year of birth 	 Recall 1-5 years after birth Extrapolating data from population exposure sample (with some assumptions) and not direct assessment at any time
Outcome	Assessment from hospital record, birth	Assessment from administrative	Assessment from "open-ended'

Appendix B. Tool used for assessment of quality of included studies

assessment	 Direct questioning (interview) of completion of survey by women at the time of exposure or close to the time of exposure Direct measurement of exposure (laboratory) 	 Assessment of exposure nonn global dataset Indirect assessment (postal survey, mailed questionnaire) Recall of exposure <1 year of birth 	 Recail 1-5 years after birth Extrapolating data from population exposure sample (with some assumptions) and not direct assessment at any time Indirect method of assessment (obtaining data from others and not from mother or father)
Outcome assessment	 Assessment from hospital record, birth certificate or from direct question to women regarding birth weight 	 Assessment from administrative database Direct question to women regarding gestational age 	 Assessment from "open-ended' questions (was your baby early? or premature? or small? or before due date) Assessment from non-validated sources or generic estimate from overall population
Confounding factor	Controlled for common confounders	Only certain confounders adjusted	Not controlled for confounders
Analytical	 Analyses appropriate for the type of sample Analytical method accounted for sampling strategy in cross-sectional study Sample size calculation performed and adequate sample studied 	 Analyses not accounting for common statistical adjustment (e.g. multiple analyses) when appropriate Sample size calculation not performed, but all available eligible patients studied Sample size calculated and reasons for not meeting sample size given 	 Sample size estimation unclear or only sub-sample of eligible patients studied Analyses inappropriate for the type of sample/study
Attrition	 0-10% attrition and reasons for loss of follow up explained All subjects from initiation of study to the final outcome assessment were accounted for 	 0-10% attrition and reasons for loss of follow up not explained 11-20% attrition, reasons for loss of follow up explained 	 11-20% attrition but reasons for loss of follow up not explained >20% attrition but reasons for loss of follow up explained All subjects from initiation of study to final outcome assessment not accounted

Adopted from (Shah PS and Zao J. 2009).

High

findings

Sample selection ambiguous and sample likely not representative A very select population studied making it difficult to generalize

Recall >5 years after birth

Author (year)	Confounder adjusted	Risk of biases							
		Selection	Exposure assessment	Outcome assessment	Confounder adjustment	Analytical	Attrition	Overall	
Aggazzotti e <i>t al.</i> (2004)	Maternal educational background, smoking habits, water intake, sex of the child, home cooking, tobacco exposure.	None	low	None	Low	low	low	low	
Botton <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Parity, maternal smoking, maternal education, maternal weight, maternal age.	Low	none	None	low	low	low	low	
Bove <i>et al.</i> (1995)	Maternal educational background, maternal race, maternal age, prenatal care, sex of the child.	Low	low	None	low	low	low	low	
Ca <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Gestational age, prenatal body mass index (BMI), weight gain during pregnancy, sex of the child, Maternal educational background, household income.	Low	None	None	Low	Low	Low	Low	
Costet <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Maternal age, maternal educational background, Employment status, gestational age, marital status, hypertension before or during pregnancy, and smoking and drinking habits, parity, pregnancy BMI and diabetes before or during pregnancy.	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	Low	
Danileviciute <i>et al.</i> 2012)	Gestational age, marital status, maternal educational background, maternal smoking habits, paternal smoking habits, alcohol consumption, BMI, blood pressure, ethnic group, pregnancy history, sex of the child, parity, marital status, and birth year.	None	None	None	None	low	Low	Low	
Doods <i>et al.</i> (1999)	Maternal age, parity, maternal smoking habits, prenatal care, neighbourhood family income, sex of the child, pre- pregnancy weight, predelivery weight.	Low	Low	None	Low	low	low	low	
Gallagher <i>et al</i> . (1998)	Maternal smoking, parity, maternal age, maternal education, marital status, employment during pregnancy and prenatal care.	Low	Low	None	Low	low	low	Low	

Appendix C. Results for risk of bias assessment of included studies

Author (year)	Confounder adjusted	Risk of biases							
		Selection	Exposure assessment	Outcome assessment	Confounder adjustment	Analytical	Attrition	Overall	
Grazuleviciene <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Family status, maternal educational background, smoking habits, alcohol consumption, BMI, blood pressure, ethnic group, previous preterm, sex of the child, birth year.	None	Low	None	Low	Low	Low	Low	
Hinckley <i>et al</i> . (2005)	Maternal age, race, ethnicity, maternal educational background, parity, smoking habits, prenatal care.	None	Low	None	Low	low	low	Low	
Hoffman <i>et al.</i> (2008)a	Maternal age, maternal race/ethinicity, maternal educational level, annual household income, employed during pregnancy, marital status, pre-pregnancy BMI, daily caffeine intake, parity.	Low	Low	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Hoffman <i>et al</i> . (2008)b	Maternal age, maternal race/ethinicity, educational level, annual household income, employed during pregnancy, marital status, pre-pregnancy BMI, daily caffeine intake, parity	None	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Horton et al. (2011)	Maternal age, maternal race race/ethinicity, marital status, maternal educational level, smoking habits, alcohol consumption, parity.	Low	None	None	Low	Low	Low	Low	
Ileka-Priouzeau <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Pre-pregnancy BMI, preeclampsia during pregnancy, gestational diabetes, uterine bleeding at the beginning of the pregnancy, parity, mother's height, age, and maternal educational level, marital status, maternal alcohol consumption during pregnancy, prematurity.	None	none	None	None	Low	Low	Low	
Iszatt <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Sex of the child, parity, maternal age.	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	
Kogevinas <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Study center/area, infant sex, gestational age linear and quadratic term, mother's ethnicity and parity. Maternal age, maternal height, maternal pre-pregnancy weight, maternal education and maternal smoking during pregnancy.	None	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Kumar <i>et al</i> . (2014)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, employment status, smoking habits, prenatal care utilization, sex of the child.	Low	Low	None	Low	None	Low	Moderate	

Appendix	C . ((continue)
----------	--------------	------------

Author (year)	Confounder adjusted	Risk of biases							
		Selection	Exposure assessment	Outcome assessment	Confounder adjustment	Analytical	Attrition	Overall	
Levallois <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, annual household income, employment status, marital status, pre-pregnancy BMI, parity, history of chronic disease, medical problem during pregnancy, maternal smoking habits during pregnancy, coffee and alcohol consumption, risky occupational exposure.	None	Low	None	None	none	none	Low	
Lewis <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Sex of the child, marital status, prenatal care, maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, pregnancy history on adverse birth outcomes, maternal smoking habits during pregnancy, conception season, birth season, average per capita income, maternal chronic diseases.	None	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Lewis et al. (2007)	Sex of the child, marital status, prenatal care, maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, pregnancy history on adverse birth outcomes, maternal smoking habits during pregnancy, conception season, birth season, average per capita income, maternal chronic diseases.	none	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Maclehose et al. (2008)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, marital status, Income, smoking habits, BMI, vitamin use.	None	None	None	Low	low	low	moderate	
Patelarou <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Maternal age, maternal educational level, smoking habits during pregnancy, marital status, maternal race/ethnicity, parity, sex of the child.	None	None	None	Low	None	Low	Low	

Appendix	С.	(continue)
----------	----	------------

Author (year)	Confounder adjusted	Risk of biases							
		Selection	Exposure assessment	Outcome assessment	Confounder adjustment	Analytical	Attrition	Overall	
Rivera-N'u"nez and Wright (2013)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, smoking habits, parity, income, marital status, maternal chronic diseases, previous adverse pregnancy outcomes, weight gain during pregnancy, prenatal care.	None	None	None	None	none	Low	low	
Savitz <i>et al.</i> (1995)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, marital status, income, smoking habits, alcohol and caffeine consumption, BMI, age at menarche, employment status, diabetes, vitamin use.	None	None	None	none	low	low	Low	
Savitz <i>et al</i> . (2006)	Maternal age, maternal race/ethnicity, maternal educational level, marital status, income, smoking habits, alcohol and caffeine consumption, BMI, age at menarche, employment status, diabetes, vitamin use, induced abortion history.	None	None	None	None	None	Low	Low	
Summerhayes <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Sex of the child, child birth year, season of birth, age of pregnancy at first antenatal care visit, maternal smoking habits, maternal age, maternal country of birth, previous pregnancy history, maternal chronic diseases, socioeconomic status (SES).	None	Moderate	Low	None	None	Low	moderate	
Toledono <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Sex and maternal age.	None	moderate	Low	Moderate	low	low	Moderate	
Villanueva et al. (2011)	Maternal age, maternal height, pre-pregnancy weight, maternal educational level, marital status, parity, and maternal country of origin and paternal weight, smoking habits, gestational age.	None	None	None	Low	low	low	Low	

Appendix	С.	(continue)
----------	----	------------

Author (year)	Confounder adjusted	Risk of biases						
		Selection	Exposure assessment	Outcome assessment	Confounder adjustment	Analytical	Attrition	Overall
Waller <i>et al</i> . (1998)	Gestational age, maternal age, smoking habits, history of	None	None	None	low	low	low	low
	pregnancy loss, maternal race/ethnicity and employment							
	during pregnancy.							
Wright <i>et al</i> . (2004)	Maternal chronic diseases, marital status, previous adverse	None	None	None	none	none	low	Low
	pregnancy outcomes, maternal educational level, parity,							
	prenatal care, and smoking habits, gestational age, maternal							
	age, maternal race/ethnicity, Sex of the child, Median							
	household, weight gain during pregnancy.							
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Maternal age, marital status, maternal educational level, sex	None	Moderate	Low	low	low	low	Moderate
	of the child.							
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2007)	Maternal age, marital status, maternal educational level, sex of the child	None	Moderate	Low	Low	None	low	Moderate
Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Sex of the child, gestational age, maternal age, maternal	None	none	None	none	none	low	Low
	educational level, parity, maternal disease factor presents,							
	BMI, monthly family income, maternal smoking status, and							
	passive smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption							
	during pregnancy.							