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Ana Emanuel Pinho Dias

Urinary levels of toxic metals and pregnancy and newborn outcomes:
biomonitoring of the IoMum cohort

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DESIGNAÇÃO DA ÁREA DO PROJECTO

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TÍTULO DISSERTAÇÃO/~~MONOGRAFIA~~ (riscar o que não interessa)

Urinary levels of toxic metals and pregnancy and newborn outcomes: biomonitoring of the IoMum cohort

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Aos meus queridos pais,
por me darem todos os meios para que eu conseguisse alcançar o meu sonho, por me
apoarem e amarem incondicionalmente.

Aos amigos que me acompanharam ao longo destes desafiantes e enriquecedores 6 anos,
pelas memórias de uma vida.

Urinary toxic levels and pregnancy and newborn outcomes: results of the IoMum cohort biomonitoring

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Abstract

This study aimed to evaluate the association between exposure of pregnant women to bismuth (Bi), thallium (Tl), nickel (Ni), and antimony (Sb) and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample, pregnancy outcomes, and anthropometric parameters of the newborn.

This was a prospective study based on the IoMum cohort. Pregnant women undergoing routine first-trimester ultrasounds at Centro Hospitalar São João, from April 2018 to April 2019, were invited to participate. Inclusion criteria were gestational age ≥ 10 and < 14 weeks, confirmed foetal vitality, and informed consent signature. Spot urine samples (n=349) were analyzed using ICP-MS to quantify metals concentrations.

Median urinary metal concentrations were, in $\mu\text{g/L}$: Bi 0.02, Tl 0.02, Ni 4.3, and Sb 0.04. Tl and Bi excretion were associated with residence area, with higher values in Valongo. Maternal age was positively associated with excretions of Bi, Sb, and Tl. Bi, Ni, and Sb excretion decreased from normal weight to obese women (pre-pregnancy BMI). Occupation as a health professional was associated with higher excretion of Bi and Ni. Occupations categorized as “high exposure” (including industry workers, cooks, and housekeeping and hairdressing professionals) were associated with higher excretions of all the metals. Tl excretion increased with the frequency of fish consumption and with increasing anthropometric categories of weight, head circumference, and length at birth.

The present study showed that some professions may increase the exposure of pregnant women to the studied toxic metals. Despite this, the levels of exposure are not of concern regarding possible impact on maternal or newborn health.

Keywords: Pregnancy, Newborns, Anthropometry, Heavy metals, Occupational exposure;

List of Abbreviations

AGA, Appropriate for gestational age

BMI, Body mass index

CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

CHUSJoão, Centro Hospitalar Universitário São João

CITP/2008, International Classification of Professions 2008

CPP/2010, Portuguese Classification of Professions 2010

FDA, Food and Drug Administration

GC-MS, Gas chromatography mass spectrometry

GDM, Gestational diabetes mellitus

IARC, International Agency for Research on Cancer

ICP-MS, Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

LGA, Large for gestational age

LOD, Limit of detection

UMC, Urinary metal concentration

SGA, Small for gestational age

T1, Timepoint 1

T2, Timepoint 2

WHO, World Health Organization

Introduction

Exposure to metals during pregnancy

Individuals are naturally subject to exposure to different metals¹ through daily intake of food and water, as well as inhalation of airborne particulate matter. Moreover, different occupational activities may represent an additional and specific source of exposure. An overload of these metals in the human body can have important adverse health effects [1].

There are several metals that are biochemically important and must be ingested continuously to maintain health. Some examples of these nutritionally essential metals are iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), zinc (Zn) and copper (Cu). On the other hand, several metals, such as arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), mercury (Hg) and lead (Pb), have no known biological function and are toxic even when present in the human body in very low concentrations[1].

The physiological adaptations that occur during pregnancy increase the demand for essential trace elements, as well as increase the susceptibility to the harmful effects of toxic metals². Pregnancy and fetal development are seen as a specific time window of vulnerability, during which the toxic effects of heavy metals can result in disturbed fetal development and poor pregnancy outcomes, such as reduced fetal growth, impaired neurological development, congenital malformation, spontaneous abortion, stillbirth, preterm birth and low birth weight [1].

Most studies on the effects of natural exposure to metals are epidemiological studies in which the degree of exposure of the general population is evaluated, together with the associated effects [1]. Studies on specific populations (e.g., pregnant women), however, are quite scarce – and particularly in the case of Portugal, there are almost no studies on the exposure to toxic metals of pregnant women, as well as the consequences on fetal health and pregnancy outcomes.

Below we review the main sources and possible known consequences of exposure regarding the four metals that were the focus of our study: bismuth, thallium, antimony, and nickel.

¹ Strictly speaking, some of the elements referred to throughout this text (e.g., arsenic), including one of the elements that was the subject of this study (antimony), are not metals but “metalloids” (since they present some characteristics of metals but others of non-metals). However, for the purposes of simplifying writing, the generic designation of “metals” will always be used.

² Often collectively referred to as “heavy metals”, since physiochemically most of them are in fact heavy metals.

Bismuth

Bismuth (Bi), atomic number 83, is the element at position 69 in terms of abundance in the Earth's continental crust. It is a heavy metal, found as the free metal or in combined forms as bismuth oxide and bismuth sulfide. Since it is a naturally occurring element, individuals can be exposed to Bi through diet and environmental exposure [2]. Despite being a heavy metal, Bi is considered as having low toxicity particularly when compared with neighbor heavy metals such as mercury, thallium and lead [3].

In fact, Bi has been used for the treatment of medical conditions such as oral and upper respiratory tract infections, syphilis, diarrhea, heartburn (pyrosis), dyspepsia (indigestion), gastroesophageal reflux and peptic ulcer disease [2]. Of note is its use in the eradication of *Helicobacter pylori* from gastrointestinal tract. *H. pylori* infection remains a major health problem today, especially in developing countries and increasing resistance to antibiotics has compromised the effectiveness of standard triple therapy (a proton pump inhibitor plus clarithromycin and amoxicillin or metronidazole), and there is a need to resort to more complex therapeutic regimens, which include bismuth. Thus, quadruple therapy (with Bi) is the recommended first-line treatment in areas with a high prevalence of clarithromycin resistance [4]. The most used Bi compounds for this purpose are bismuth subsalicylate and bismuth subcitrate [2]. So, Bi-containing drugs can be an important source of exposure to this heavy metal.

On the other hand, Bi is used in several technological and industrial applications: soldering, metallurgical additives, atomic research, as a non-toxic substitute for lead in the manufacture of ceramic glazes, fishing drains, food processing equipment, free machining brass for plumbing applications, greases, crystal ware, pearlescent pigments and even cosmetic products [2].

Despite – as referred above - systemic toxic effects associated with the use of Bi compounds are rarely observed because its systemic absorption in the gastrointestinal tract is practically null, however, administration of Bi compounds in significantly high concentrations can lead to several toxic manifestations in the humans, including nephropathy, encephalopathy, osteoarthropathy, gingivitis, stomatitis, colitis, and hepatitis. In the vast majority of cases, these effects are reversible after cessation of exposure to Bi [2].

Overexposure to Bi during pregnancy is known to associate with pregnancy disorders [5]. For example, Cabrera-Rodriguez *et al.* have shown that exposure to Bi above the 95th percentile (0.04 ng/mL), measured in 471 cord blood samples, was associated with low birth weight, which is a clinical parameter considered as an indicator of various biological aggressions, both in the newborn and in adulthood [6]. Furthermore, Bi is considered possibly unsafe during breastfeeding [7].

As already mentioned, bismuth subsalicylate is very often used to treat diarrhea, particularly travelers' diarrhea [2]. It is contraindicated in pregnancy, as it has been associated with prolonged

gestation and delivery, increased perinatal mortality, decreased birth weight and neonatal hemorrhage [8]. Administered in late pregnancy, it may increase the risk of pulmonary hypertension in newborns due to ductus arteriosus constriction [7].

Thallium

Thallium (Tl), atomic number 81, is a post-transition metal, rare in nature, although more abundant than Bi [9]. It occurs in the environment mainly as monovalent cation (Tl^+) [10] and is one of the most toxic metals [11].

Exposure to Tl is a serious threat to human health and occurs mainly through contaminated food and drinking water [11]. It can also occur by skin absorption and inhalation [9]. After exposure, Tl readily reaches the bloodstream and is transported throughout the body, accumulating in the bones, kidneys, and nervous system [12]. In toxicokinetic terms, Tl toxicity takes place in three main stages: a) intravascular distribution stage – in which, during the first 4 hours after exposure, Tl is distributed to the organs through the blood; b) central nervous system (CNS) distribution stage – which occurs within 4 to 48 hours after exposure; c) elimination stage – a slow phase that begins about 24 hours after exposure and is accomplished primarily by urinary and fecal excretion [9].

Sources of environmental Tl include coal combustion, semiconductor manufacturing and vehicle exhaust emissions [13]. Tl is used as a poison for rats and ants, and since it is odorless and tasteless, it has become an accidental poisoning as well as a criminal poison in some cases [9]. To this day, Tl is seen in rodenticide and insecticide. Beyond that, in Africa, Tl has been used as a pesticide, which has led to food contamination [9].

Despite the known harmful effects of Tl, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved the use of the Tl-201 isotope as a radiopharmaceutical for some nuclear medicine exams, mainly in myocardial and parathyroid imaging. Adverse effects reported so far include severe allergic reactions and gastrointestinal disturbances [14].

Because Tl poisoning is rare, it is often misdiagnosed or diagnosed late [15]. However, acute toxic exposure is known to result in gastrointestinal, neurological, and dermatological manifestations. Chronic toxic exposure also leads to the same manifestations, but neurological symptoms persist even when Tl blood levels begin to decline after cessation of exposure. Lower limb involvement has been most frequently reported as persistent. Patients exposed to Tl may also experience cardiovascular symptoms such as tachycardia and hypertension [9].

Exposure to Tl during early pregnancy has been directly associated with the risk of preterm birth, and there appears to be a sex-specific effect on this pregnancy outcome [16].

Additionally, an association between exposure to TI in early pregnancy and the risk of developing gestational diabetes has also been described. This association was dependent on age [17]. On the other hand, maternal levels of TI in urine during pregnancy has been shown to be related to low birth weight, but further studies on prenatal TI exposure are needed to confirm this finding [18].

Nickel

Nickel (Ni) is a silver-white transition metal with high thermal and electrical conductivity. It is resistant to air, water, and alkali corrosion, but it is readily soluble at pH < 6.5 in dilute oxidizing acids. It is the 24th most abundant element in the Earth's crust, where it is found in combination with antimony, arsenic, and sulfur. Ni can exist in several oxidation states, Ni²⁺ being the most widespread in the environment and biological systems [19].

Currently, Ni is not considered an essential nutrient for humans because there is no documented biochemical function that specifically and exclusively depends on it, and low amounts of the element in the diet has not been shown to disrupt the life cycle [20]. On the other hand, many Ni compounds are important environmental and occupational toxicants [21].

Regarding its metabolism in the human body, Ni forms a complex that reacts with molecular oxygen to produce free radicals, which eventually justifies its toxicity [22].

Ni occurs naturally in the atmosphere due to volcanic activity, forest fires and rock weathering. Human exposure to this metal is mainly due to various industrial processes such as food processing, mining, and refining, as well as the use of stainless steel, jewelry, electrical devices, and medical implants. The burning of fossil fuels causes atmospheric levels of Ni to increase significantly. Tobacco smoke is also an important source of exposure. Thus, humans are exposed to Ni either by inhalation, oral ingestion and skin contact [21].

The most serious consequences of exposure to Ni compounds are nose and lung cancer, which highlights the importance of exposure to the metal by inhalation. For this reason, some Ni compounds have been classified as Group 1 Carcinogens by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) [21]. In addition, manifestations of non-malignant respiratory diseases may also occur. Ni exposure is associated with asthma, chronic bronchitis, emphysema, pulmonary edema, pulmonary fibrosis, bronchoconstriction and reduced lung function, with factory workers exposed daily to Ni fumes being at particular risk [21].

Exposure to Ni in early pregnancy has been shown to be associated with an increased risk of gestational diabetes mellitus [23]. The metabolic alterations resulting from the toxicity of this metal can lead to a decrease in embryonic vitality and, thus, affect fetal development [24].

Antimony

Antimony (Sb) is a medium-hard, silver-white metalloid [25]. It can have different oxidation states, but is usually found in the oxidation states +3 and +5 [26].

This metalloid is often combined with other metals to create hardened alloys to be used in solder, sheet metal, pipes, metal bearings, castings and ammunition [25]. It is used in many industries, most notably in plastics, fire-retardants, lead-acid batteries, polyethylene terephthalate (PET) production and pump sealants. In addition to occupational exposure, individuals are also exposed to environmental Sb through water, air and soil [26].

Sb is considered as probably carcinogenic [26]. Acute toxic exposure to Sb via oral, dermal or inhalation routes can lead to toxic side health effects, such as vomiting, diarrhea, joint and muscle pain and electrocardiogram changes [26]. Despite its known toxicity, pentavalent Sb remains the mainstay of leishmaniosis treatment [27].

Regarding the risks associated with exposure to Sb during pregnancy, it is known that higher levels of exposure increase the risk of developing gestational diabetes mellitus [28]. Exposure to Sb during pregnancy also appears to reduce fetal growth [29].

Aims

There is a lack of relevant studies on exposure to toxic metals and their consequences on fetal health and pregnancy outcomes, particularly in Portugal.

Thus, the main objectives of this study were:

(1) to evaluate the level of exposure to the four toxic metals Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb in pregnant women from the IoMum cohort, based on their urinary concentration;

(2) to investigate the correlation between exposure levels and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample;

(3) to investigate the correlation between exposure levels and pregnancy outcomes and anthropometric parameters of newborns.

Materials and Methods

Ethical approval

The data used for the IoMum study were obtained according to the research protocol (ClinicalTrials.gov #NCT04010708) that was subsequently-approved by the Ethics Committee of Centro Hospitalar Universitário de São João (CHUSJoão) / Faculty of Medicine of the University of Porto (FMUP) (ClinicalTrials.gov #NCT04010708).

Written informed consent was obtained from all participating pregnant women after they were informed about the purpose of this study as well as all the consequent procedures.

Study design and participants

Pregnant women who underwent routine first-trimester ultrasound at CHUSJoão during the period from April 2018 to April 2019 were invited to participate in the IoMum cohort study. Based on this cohort, a prospective observational study was subsequently performed.

Pregnant women with confirmed gestational age between 10 weeks and 13 weeks plus 6 days, with confirmed foetal vitality on the day of recruitment, and who agreed to sign the informed consent form were included in the study. The gestational age of each pregnant woman was assessed by measuring the crown-rump length and fetal rump length. Thus, 548 pregnant women were enrolled at baseline.

Exclusion criteria were gestational age at recruitment ≤ 10 and > 14 weeks, unsigned standard informed consent, unsigned newborn informed consent, and twin pregnancy. After the exclusion criteria were applied, the final study sample became 352 participants, and 349 urine samples were analyzed for use in the study.

At the time of enrollment (timepoint 1, T1), participants received a questionnaire to assess various demographic and lifestyle factors. This questionnaire included questions such as age, area of residence, education level, pre-pregnancy weight, height, gestational age, primiparity, smoking habits (and the number of cigarettes smoked per day, if applicable), and frequency of some types of food (including fish and dairy) consumption.

The questionnaire was developed specifically for this study and was applied to a pilot study to correct for eventual inconsistencies, evaluate its applicability, and validate data collection protocols.

Still, at T1, a spot urine sample was collected. In addition, pregnant women were also invited to have a second contact with the IoMum team members from 35 weeks to the end of their pregnancy (timepoint 2, T2). All the information collected in Timepoint 2 is outside the scope of this study, and therefore, it will not be detailed further.

The urine samples that were collected at T1 were transported to the laboratory within the next 24 hour, where they were aliquoted and frozen at -80 °C to allow for the possibility of using them in later analyses.

Clinical information about the newborns and pregnancy of the women who participated in the study was taken from clinical records, and included: maternal occupation, pregnancy outcomes and complications, type of delivery, gestational age at delivery, and newborn's anthropometry.

The flowchart of recruitment and inclusion of participants in the study is described in Figure 1

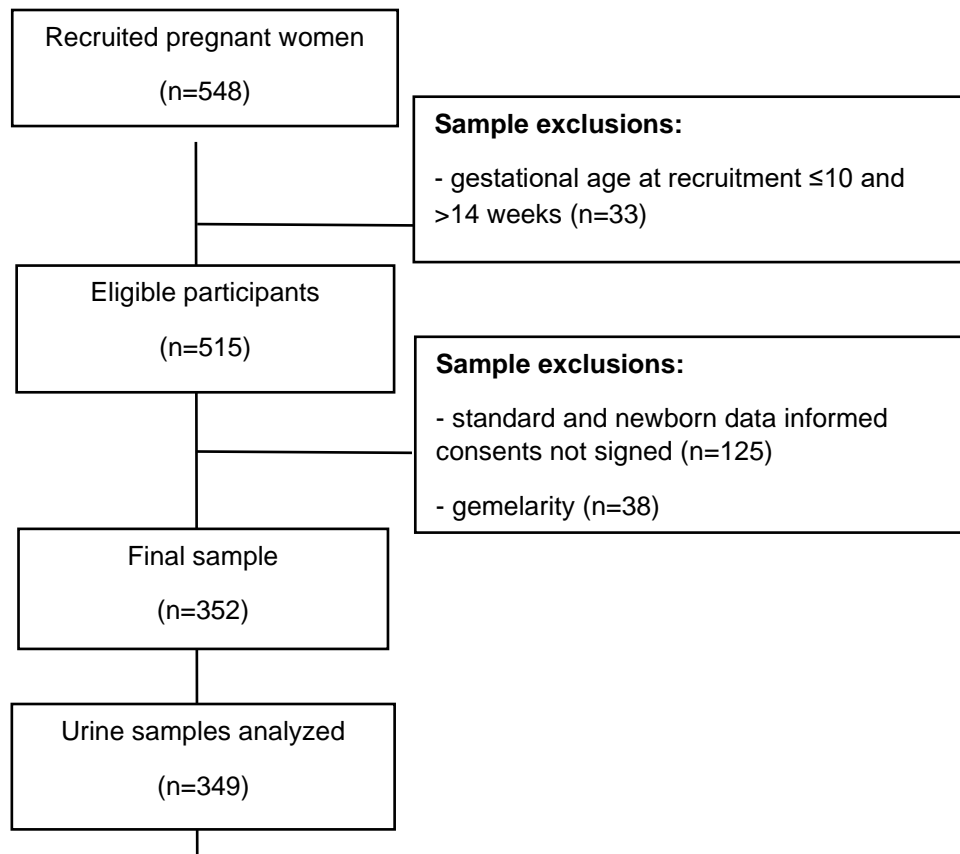


Figure 1. Flowchart of recruitment and inclusion of participants in the study. Sample size (n) for each group is given.

Biochemical Analysis

Urinary Creatinine

Determination of urinary creatinine concentration was performed in a certified laboratory by the measurement of the absorbance at 596/694nm of the blue pigment produced from creatinine by a cascade of reactions.

First, there is the enzymatic conversion of creatinine to creatine by creatininase. Next, creatine is hydrolyzed by creatinase to produce sarcosine. Subsequently, sarcosine is transformed by sarcosine oxidase to produce glycine, formaldehyde, and hydrogen peroxide.

Finally, peroxidation of hydrogen peroxide together with quantitative oxidative condensation with N-(3-sulfopropyl)-3-methoxy-5-methylaniline (HMMPs) and 4-aminoantipyrine leads to the production of the blue pigment [30].

Urinary levels of toxic metals

There is extensive evidence that urine is a suitable specimen for assessing metal exposure [31]. So, the urinary excretion of each metal was measured using inductively coupled mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), according to the method developed by the CDC's Urine Multi-element ICP-DRC-MS: Method 3018.3 [32].

Using a CETAC ASX-520 autosampler (Teledyne CETAC Technologies), diluted urine samples were introduced into the iCAP™ Q ICP-MS instrument (Thermo Scientific) through a MicroMist™ nebulizer and a baffled cyclonic spray chamber carried by a flowing stream of high purity argon. In addition, by coupling radiofrequency energy to the high purity argon, plasma was created.

At the plasma, due to the high thermal energy, the matter is first atomized and then the atoms become ionized. The ions then enter the mass spectrometer where the individual isotopes of the metals are separated (in the quadrupole) and detected. Detection of the ions results in electrical signals that are converted into digital information.

All instrument control, including signal processing and calculation of results (concentration), was performed using the Qtegra™ ISDS Software (Thermo Scientific).

Urine samples were diluted (1:10) with a 2% (v/v) HNO₃ solution. Standard calibration solutions were prepared in 2% (v/v) HNO₃ by appropriate dilution of the multi-element stock standard solution PlasmaCAL SCP-33-MS. Also, to create the calibration curves, synthetic urine (IRMM) was used. Prior to ICP-MS analysis, diluted samples were vortexed and centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 3 min.

The parameters used in the ICP-MS were RF power of 1550 W, plasma gas flow at 14 L/min, auxiliary gas flow of 0.8 L/min, and nebulizer flow of 1.02 L/min. Using ICP-MS, the four metals were analyzed using the following isotopes (m/z ratio): bismuth (²⁰⁹Bi), thallium (²⁰⁴Tl), nickel (⁵⁹Ni), and antimony (¹²²Sb).

For analytical quality control purposes, Seronorm™ Trace Elements Urine L-1 and L-2 (from Sero, Norway) were analyzed under the same conditions as the samples.

BMI calculation and categorization

The calculation of body mass index (BMI) calculation was based on pre-pregnancy weight and height which were self-reported by pregnant women in the questionnaires and was calculated by dividing weight, in kilograms, by the square of height, in meters. Subsequently, participants were divided into 4 different BMI categories according to the WHO classification [30]:

- Underweight: BMI <18.5;
- Normal: BMI [18.5 – 24,9];
- Overweight: BMI [25.0 – 29,9];
- Obese: BMI >30.0.

Occupational exposure categorization

To categorize occupational exposure, the Portuguese Classification of Professions 2010 (CPP/2010) was used, based on the International Classification of Occupations 2008 (ISCO/2008) by the Instituto Nacional de Estatística, I.P. (INE, I.P.). This defines the most relevant new professions, tasks, and functions as part of CIPT/2008.

Using this classification as a reference and checking all occupational sources of metals described in the literature to date, the high-exposure occupational category was defined.

This new variable includes all the health professionals, such as doctors, nurses, dentists, psychologists, health technicians, nutritionists, pharmacists, and healthcare assistants. In addition, it also includes aestheticians, hairdressing professionals, warehouse operators, , industry workers, cooks and housekeeping professionals.

Anthropometric data categorization

The Categorization of newborns' anthropometric variables (weight, length and head circumference) was based on percentiles stipulated in the WHO child growth standards.

The newborn's anthropometric data used in this study (weight in grams, head circumference in cm, and length in cm) were converted into percentiles adjusted for gestational age at birth based on Fenton's 2013 growth charts [33]. Subsequently, they were categorized into 3 growth categories:

- SGA: Small for gestational age (birthweight below the 10th percentile).

- AGA: Appropriate for gestational age (birthweight between 10th percentile and 90th percentile)
- LGA: Large for gestational age (birthweight above the 90th percentile)

Statistical Analysis

Continuous variables that presented normal distribution were described using mean and standard deviation (SD), while continuous variables with non-normal distribution, namely urinary metals concentrations (UMC) were described as absolute frequencies (n), median, and interquartile range [25th percentile (P25); 75th percentile (P75)]. The normality of Continuous variables' was tested by evaluating the symmetry of their histograms.

Furthermore, categorical variables were described using absolute frequencies (n) and relative frequencies (%).

To perform the statistical analysis, the UMC values below the limit of detection (LOD) were imputed as $LOD/\sqrt{2}$. Additionally, UMC were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration and adjusted values were used for the analysis.

To test for differences in the median of UMC, the variables were properly categorized. Subsequently, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis or Mann-Whitney tests were applied, depending on the number of categories.

Statistical significance was set at 5%. Therefore, when $p < 0.05$, the differences were considered statistically significant differences were considered statistically significant.

Analysis of all data used in this study was performed using IBM SPSS version 27™ software.

Results

Sociodemographic characteristics

Table 1 presents the sociodemographic characterization of the study sample.

Most of the population resided in Valongo (28%, n=93), Maia (26%, n=88) and Porto (18%, n=60). These are considered the principal municipalities covered by the CHUSJoão area.

The mean (SD) age of the participating women was 32 (5) years.

About 40% of the women were primiparous and 56% (n=175) had a BMI prior to pregnancy in the normal range (18.5 - 25 kg/m²). Of the remaining women, 40% (n=125) had a pre-pregnancy BMI above the normal range, with 24% (n=76) being overweight and 16% (n=49) being obese; and only a small minority (5%, n=15) were underweight.

The mean (SD) variation in the participants' gestational weight (the difference between weight at term and weight before pregnancy) was 14 (6) kg.

Regarding education, 52% (n=175) of the sample had higher degrees of education (≥ 13 years), 33% (n=112) had a medium level (10-12 years), and only 14% (n=48) had a low level of education (≤ 9 years).

In addition, about 96% (n=307) of the participants were employed and 18% (n=57) were health professionals (doctors, nurses, dentists, psychologists, health technicians, nutritionists, pharmacists, and healthcare assistants). Also, 34% (n=107) of the participants had a high-exposure occupation.

Only 17% (n=59) of the participants were "pregnancy smokers", i.e., they were current smokers at the time the questionnaire was administered or had stopped smoking within the first trimester of their pregnancy, at the time of the enrollment. About 5% (n=17) of the smoking participants reported smoking more than 5 cigarettes per day.

Referring to the intake of cow's milk per week, 58% (n=197) reported consuming 4 or more times. Furthermore, 69% (n=224) reported eating fish between 1 to 3 times per week.

As a result of their pregnancies, 52% (n=174) were females and 48% (n=161) were male babies. Analyzing the anthropometric parameters length, weight, and head circumference, the percentage of newborns with appropriate values for gestational age was 91% (n=307), 90% (n=300), and 85% (n=276), respectively.

Looking at the hospital's clinical records, it was possible to see that 50% (n=169) of deliveries were eutocic, 22% (n=73) vacuum-assisted, and 28% (n=94) were by cesarean section.

Besides that, 16% of pregnant women had complications in pregnancy, including: gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) (8%, n=24), pre-eclampsia (2%, n=6), fetal growth restriction (4%, n=11), infection (0.3%, n=1), pre-term delivery (6%, n=17), and/or spontaneous fetal loss (0.3%, n=1). It was also found that only a small number had a foetus with malformations (2%, n=5) and complications at birth (1% n=4).

Finally, we could note that the urinary evaluation presented the following median urinary concentrations (P25; P75) (in µg/L): bismuth 0.02 (0.02; 0.02); thallium 0.02 (0.02; 0.018); nickel 4.13 (2.29; 12.09); antimony 0.04 (0.04; 0.04).

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample.

Residence area, n (%)		
Maia	88	(26)
Porto	60	(18)
Valongo	93	(28)
Outros	95	(28)
Age, n (mean ± SD), years		
	348	(32±5)
Maternal education level, n (%)		
Low (≤9 years)	48	(14)
Medium (10-12 years)	112	(33)
High (≥13 years)	175	(52)
BMI prior to pregnancy categories, n (%)		
Underweight	15	(5)
Normal	175	(56)
Overweight	76	(24)
Obesity	49	(16)
Gestational weight variation, n (mean ± SD), kgs		
	294	(14±6)
Employed		
Yes	307	(97)
No	11	(3)
Health professional, n (%)		
Yes	57	(18)
No	261	(82)

Table 1. (cont.)**High-exposure occupation, n (%)**

Yes	107	(34)
No	211	(66)

Primiparity, n (%)

Yes	134	(40)
No	198	(60)

Smoking habits, n (%)

Non smoker	241	(70)
Pregnancy smoker (current + former ≤ 2 months)	59	(17)
Former smoker (>2months)	45	(13)

Number of cigarettes per day, n (%)

0 cigarettes per day	286	(87)
1 to 5 cigarettes per day	24	(7)
> 5 cigarettes per day	17	(5)

Frequency of ingestion of cow milk, n (%)

< 3 times per month	82	(24)
1 – 3 times per week	62	(18)
4 ou > times per week	197	(58)

Frequency of ingestion of fish, n (%)

< 3 times per month	52	(16)
1-3 times per week	224	(69)
4 ou > times per week	50	(15)

Anthropometric parameters of the newborns**Newborn sex n (%)**

Male	161	(48)
Female	174	(52)

Birth length

SGA (small for gestational age)	25	(7)
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	307	(91)
LGA (large for gestational age)	4	(1)

Birth weight

SGA (small for gestational age)	26	(8)
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	300	(90)
LGA (large for gestational age)	9	(3)

Birth head circumference

SGA (small for gestational age)	28	(9)
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	276	(85)
LGA (large for gestational age)	21	(6)

Table 1. (cont.)

Pregnancy outcomes

Type of delivery, n (%)			
	Eutocic	169	(50)
	Vacuum	73	(22)
	Cesarian	94	(28)
Pregnancy complications, n (%)			
	No	251	(84)
	Yes	49	(16)
Delivery complications, n (%)			
	No	290	(99)
	Yes	4	(1)

Urinary metal concentration

Bismuth (n, median (P25; P75), in µg/L)	349	0.02 (0.02; 0.02)
Thallium (n, median (P25; P75), in µg/L)	349	0.02 (0.02; 0.18)
Nickel (n, median (P25; P75), in µg/L)	349	4.13 (2.29; 12.09)
Antimony (n, median (P25; P75), in µg/L)	349	0.04 (0.04; 0.04)

Missing data interval, n (%): 0-55 (0-16)

Toxic metals urinary concentrations

Table 2 presents a summary of the results obtained for the 4 metals that were the object of this study, indicating the minimum, maximum and median value, and the 5th (P5), 25th (P25), 75th (P75) and 95th (P95) percentiles. Urinary metal concentrations ($\mu\text{g/L}$) were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration (g/L), so that results are expressed as μg of metal / g of creatinine.

Table 2 also presents the distribution of pregnant women by the three levels of urinary concentration considered: <LOD, between LOD and P95; above P95.

LOD (the lowest urinary concentration detectable in the ICP-MS analytical procedure used) were (in $\mu\text{g/L}$): 0.02 for Bi, 0.02 for Tl, 0.46 for Ni and 0.05 for Sb.

The detection rates (defined as the percentage of samples with an urinary metal concentration $\geq \text{LOD}$) were: 10.9% for Bi, 47.6% for Tl, 98.3% for Ni and 16.1% for Sb.

Table 2. Summary of the results obtained in the determination of the urinary metals concentration normalized for urinary creatinine concentration (μg of metal / g of creatinine), and distribution of pregnant women by three levels of urinary concentration (<LOD, between LOD and P95; above P95).

			Percentiles ($\mu\text{g/g}$)						
	n	%	Min	5th	25th	Median	75th	95th	Max
Bi			0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.04	1.14	29.28
< LOD	311	(89)							
LOD to P95	21	(6)							
> P95	17	(5)							
Detection rate	38	(11)							
Ti			0.01	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.17	0.70	3.20
< LOD	183	(52)							
LOD to P95	149	(43)							
> P95	17	(5)							
Detection rate	166	(48)							
Ni			0.24	1.29	2.42	4.37	14.36	86.33	969.22
< LOD	6	(2)							
LOD to P95	326	(93)							
> LOD	17	(5)							
Detection rate	343	(98)							
Sb			0.02	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.09	0.18	0.75
< LOD	293	(84)							
LOD to P95	39	(11)							
> LOD	17	(5)							
Detection rate	56	(16)							

Charcacteristics of the study sample and exposure to toxic metals

Table 3 shows the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine (μg metal / g creatinine) and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample.

Median urinary TI excretion was associated with residence area, with higher values for pregnant women residing in Valongo, compared to other municipalities. Also, exposure to Bi tended to be higher in Valongo compared to Porto or Maia, but this association was not statistically significant. No other metal showed association with residence area.

Increasing maternal age was associated with higher urinary excretions. This association is statistically significant for Bi and Sb, and marginally significant for TI ($p=0.052$).

Regarding BMI, Bi, Ni, and Sb urinary excretion consistently decreased from normal weight to obese women. This association was statistically significant for Bi ($p=0.015$) and marginally significant for Sb ($p=0.061$).

Being unemployed was not associated with urinary metal excretion.

Occupation as a health professional was associated with higher urinary excretion of Bi and Ni, but the latter association was only marginally significant ($p=0.055$). Occupations categorized as “high exposure” were also associated with higher excretions, but this association was marginally significant for TI, Ni and Sb (p values of 0.050, 0.069 and 0.055, respectively).

Regarding maternal education level, urinary Ni excretion appeared to decrease consistently with higher levels of education. However, the differences were not statistically significant.

Maternal urinary Ni excretion tended to increase consistently with smoking habits, but the association was not statistically significant. No other consistent associations were found between metal excretion and smoking habits, and there was no association between the number of cigarettes smoked and metal excretion.

Urinary TI excretion appeared to increase consistently with frequency of fish consumption, with participants consuming fish 4 or more times a week having a higher median excretion ($0.12 \mu\text{g/g}$) than those consuming fish less than 3 times a month ($0.04 \mu\text{g/g}$). No other metal was associated with fish consumption, and none was associated with milk consumption.

Table 3. Sociodemographic characteristics of the study population sample and exposure to toxic metals, expressed as urinary metal concentration adjusted for urinary creatinine.

	n	(%)	Bi (µg/g)			p-value	Tl (µg/g)			p-value	Ni (µg/g)			p-value	Sb (µg/g)			p-value
			P25	Median	P75		P25	Median	P75		P25	Median	P75		P25	Median	P75	
Residence Area (n, %)						0.097 ^a				0.032 ^a				0.242 ^a				0.692 ^a
Maia	88	(26)	0.0127	0.0174	0.0363		0.03	0.066	0.19		2.48	3.95	8.28		0.033	0.049	0.083	
Porto	60	(18)	0.0098	0.0143	0.0304		0.03	0.072	0.25		2.74	6.91	23.7		0.031	0.053	0.108	
Valongo	93	(28)	0.0141	0.0209	0.0334		0.03	0.074	0.22		2.21	4.47	14.53		0.036	0.059	0.084	
Other	95	(28)	0.0128	0.0212	0.0495		0.02	0.047	0.11		2.38	4.07	15.07		0.033	0.053	0.101	
Age categories						0.012 ^a				0.052 ^a				0.387 ^a				0.011 ^a
<30 years	126	(36)	0.0112	0.0171	0.0286		0.02	0.046	0.14		2.43	4.32	14.19		0.031	0.047	0.075	
30-35 years	129	(37)	0.0131	0.0204	0.0389		0.03	0.061	0.20		2.38	4.01	10.99		0.034	0.054	0.089	
>35 years	93	(27)	0.0132	0.0237	0.0472		0.03	0.081	0.19		2.46	4.88	25.15		0.036	0.065	0.110	
Employed						0.104 ^b				0.895 ^b				0.730 ^b				0.306 ^b
No	11	(3)	0.0086	0.0119	0.0245		0.03	0.065	0.19		2.17	6.4	22.56		0.022	0.044	0.070	
Yes	307	(97)	0.0123	0.0193	0.0384		0.02	0.061	0.17		2.40	4.27	13.92		0.033	0.052	0.089	
Healthcare professional						0.014 ^b				0.773 ^b				0.055 ^b				0.120 ^b
no	261	(82)	0.0119	0.0180	0.0346		0.02	0.061	0.17		2.31	4.25	11.79		0.033	0.049	0.087	
yes	57	(18)	0.0145	0.0241	0.0495		0.03	0.061	0.18		2.79	5.53	25.96		0.033	0.061	0.101	

Table 3 (cont.)

High-exposure occupation	0.009 ^b					0.050 ^b					0.069 ^b					0.055 ^b				
no	211	(66)	0.0112	0.0175	0.0334	0.02	0.055	0.15	2.21	4.06	14.22	0.032	0.049	0.084						
yes	107	(34)	0.0138	0.0221	0.0456	0.03	0.08	0.27	2.95	5.31	14.19	0.035	0.056	0.106						
Maternal education level (n, %)	0.082 ^a					0.504 ^a					0.787 ^a					0.219 ^a				
Low (≤ 9 years)	48	(14)	0.0124	0.0182	0.0368	0.02	0.049	0.18	2.72	5.36	12.99	0.035	0.05	0.087						
Medium (10 - 12 years)	112	(33)	0.0115	0.0172	0.0273	0.02	0.057	0.21	2.37	4.37	15.55	0.032	0.049	0.078						
High (≥ 13 years)	175	(52)	0.0125	0.0212	0.0402	0.03	0.061	0.17	2.31	4.07	14.75	0.033	0.056	0.092						
Pre-pregnancy BMI categories (n, %)	0.015 ^a					0.772 ^a					0.350 ^a					0.061 ^a				
Underweight	15	(5)	0.013	0.024	0.221	0.03	0.074	0.17	2.4	3.1	9.59	0.032	0.061	0.071						
Normal	175	(56)	0.013	0.021	0.039	0.02	0.061	0.16	2.58	4.71	14.53	0.036	0.056	0.101						
Overweight	76	(24)	0.011	0.02	0.039	0.03	0.072	0.23	2.25	4.3	19.41	0.03	0.049	0.082						
Obesity	49	(16)	0.009	0.014	0.025	0.02	0.06	0.18	2.11	3.87	10.79	0.025	0.041	0.07						

Table 3 (cont)

Smoking Habits (n, %)		0.385 ^a			0.878 ^a			0.598 ^a			0.946 ^a		
Non smoker	241 (70)	0.013	0.021	0.039	0.027	0.061	0.171	2.31	4.26	14.75	0.033	0.053	0.093
Former smoker (> 2 months)	45 (13)	0.012	0.017	0.03	0.026	0.057	0.169	2.21	4.36	14.35	0.03	0.049	0.103
Pregnancy smoker	59 (17)	0.012	0.018	0.028	0.02	0.054	0.178	2.78	5.74	13.22	0.038	0.054	0.07
Number of cigarettes per day (n, %)		0.630 ^a			0.655 ^a			0.943 ^a			0.308 ^a		
0 cigarettes	286 (87)	0.012	0.02	0.038	0.026	0.061	0.171	2.31	4.27	14.75	0.033	0.052	0.097
1-5 cigarettes	24 (7)	0.012	0.018	0.023	0.018	0.056	0.174	2.73	4.65	13.2	0.038	0.048	0.062
> 5 cigarettes	17 (5)	0.014	0.021	0.025	0.032	0.094	0.165	3.07	3.63	8.56	0.052	0.064	0.075
Frequency of ingestion of fish (n, %)		0.548 ^a			0.030 ^a			0.098 ^a			0.767 ^a		
< 3 times per month	52 (16)	0.013	0.019	0.028	0.024	0.04	0.108	2.97	6.37	16.51	0.032	0.053	0.073
1 - 3 times per week	224 (69)	0.012	0.019	0.041	0.026	0.065	0.186	2.29	3.94	10.89	0.034	0.051	0.088
≥ 4 times per week	50 (15)	0.01	0.02	0.033	0.036	0.118	0.343	2.31	5.38	25.44	0.028	0.065	0.101

Table 3 (cont.)

Frequency of ingestion of cow milk (n, %)			0.065 ^a					0.184 ^a			0.132 ^a			0.818 ^a		
< 3 times per month	82	(24)	0,014	0.023	0.047	0.026	0.051	0.133	2.65	5.23	18.82	0.034	0.053	0.086		
1 - 3 times per week	62	(18)	0,012	0.017	0.035	0.026	0.051	0.146	2.2	3.62	9.24	0.034	0.062	0.088		
≥ 4 times per week	197	(58)	0,012	0.018	0.033	0.027	0.076	0.225	2.55	4.71	14.8	0.033	0.051	0.089		

p-values were obtained through the non-parametric tests aKruskal-Wallis and bMan-Whitney. Bold values indicate statistical significance.

Association of Toxic metal excretion with newborn and pregnancy outcomes

Association analyses for newborn anthropometry and pregnancy complications were only performed for Ni and TI, as they were the only metals that presented a significant percentage of urine samples with detectable levels (above 45%).

Newborn outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Table 4 summarizes the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine (μg metal / g creatinine) and newborn outcomes.

Female newborns tended to have a lower median urinary metal excretion for Ni ($4.27 \mu\text{g/g}$) when compared to male newborns ($5.18 \mu\text{g/g}$).

Urinary TI excretion consistently increased with increasing anthropometric categories of birth weight, birth head circumference and birth length, with marginal statistical significance for birth weight adequacy ($p=0.074$). Regarding Ni, it tended to show higher levels of excretion for adequate categories of birth head circumference and birth length, but none of these associations was statistically significant.

Table 4. Newborn outcomes and exposure to toxic metals, expressed as **maternal urinary metal concentration** adjusted for urinary creatinine.

	n	(%)	Ti (µg/g)			p-value	Ni (µg/g)			p-value
			P25	Median	P75		P25	Median	P75	
New-born sex (n, %)						0.769 ^b				0.254 ^b
Male	161	(48)	0.03	0.06	0.17		2.68	5.18	16.1	
Female	174	(52)	0.03	0.06	0.18		2.31	4.27	14.19	
Birth weight						0.074 ^a				0.238 ^a
SGA (small for gestational age)	26	(8)	0.02	0.04	0.07		2.1	3.55	5.74	
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	300	(90)	0.03	0.07	0.18		2.5	4.70	14.99	
LGA (large for gestational age)	9	(3)	0.06	0.09	0.19		3.26	4.72	25.15	
Birth head circumference						0.574 ^a				0.134 ^a
SGA (small for gestational age)	28	(9)	0.02	0.06	0.16		2.16	3.55	6.06	
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	276	(85)	0.03	0.06	0.17		2.61	4.99	15.14	
LGA (large for gestational age)	21	(6)	0.04	0.09	0.19		2.4	3.50	13.05	
Birth length						0.199 ^a				0.198 ^a
SGA (small for gestational age)	25	(7)	0.02	0.03	0.15		2.57	3.47	6.40	
AGA (adequate for gestational age)	307	(91)	0.03	0.06	0.17		2.45	4.71	15.11	
LGA (large for gestational age)	4	(1)	0.03	0.12	0.22		1.15	1.98	25.3	

p-values were obtained through the non-parametric tests ^aKruskal-Wallis and ^bMann-Whitney

Pregnancy outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Table 5 summarizes the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine (μg metal / g creatinine) and pregnancy outcomes.

Interestingly, the median for urinary Ni excretion was much higher in women who had delivery complications (11.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$). It is also found that urinary Ni excretion was higher in women who have had a baby with malformations (16.9 $\mu\text{g/g}$). However, these differences were not statistically significant.

There were no relationships between urinary Tl excretion and delivery complications or pregnancy complications.

Table 5. Pregnancy outcomes and exposure to toxic metals, expressed as maternal urinary metal concentration adjusted for urinary creatinine.

	n	(%)	P25	Median	Tl (µg/g)		p-value	Ni (µg/g)			p-value
					P75			P25	Median	P75	
Delivery complications (n, %)							0.071 ^b				0.179 ^b
no	290	(99)	0.03	0.06	0.17			2.43	4.42	14.35	
yes	4	(1)	0.02	0.02	0.04			5.91	11.25	28.33	
Pregnancy complications (n, %)							0.165 ^b				0.053^b
no	251	(84)	0.02	0.07	0.19			2.54	4.71	14.97	
yes	49	(16)	0.03	0.04	0.09			2.13	3.47	7.63	
Foetal malformations (n, %)							0.450 ^b				0.536 ^b
no	289	(98)	0.02	0.06	0.17			2.45	4.48	14.22	
yes	5	(2)	0.02	0.07	0.08			3.23	16.88	21.43	

p-values were obtained through the non-parametric tests ^aKruskal-Wallis and ^bMann-Whitney

Discussion

Exposure to heavy metals during pregnancy is harmful to humans, with possible negative consequences both in the short and in the long-term. Exposure to these metals can occur orally (mainly through contaminated water and food) [11], by inhalation [9] or absorption through the skin [21].

Physiological changes during pregnancy, with increased needs for specific nutrients, including trace elements, make it a unique period of vulnerability in a woman's life, with risks to the health of the pregnant woman and the fetus [1].

Heavy metals do not have a specific biochemical role in the human body and, on the contrary, systemic exposure to these elements, even at very low levels, can have a great toxicological impact [1]. This is particularly true in crucial period of fetal life, making it very relevant to study the possible impacts of those metals on pregnancy and the health of the newborn.

The present study aimed to evaluate the level of exposure to four heavy metals – Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb – in the IoMum cohort, by determining their respective urinary concentrations, and to correlate the level of exposure of pregnant women with sociodemographic characteristics, anthropometric parameters of the newborn and pregnancy outcomes.

Analyses of the association between urinary metal concentrations and newborn and pregnancy outcomes were performed only Ni and Tl, as these were the only metals detected in a significant percentage of the analyzed urine samples. There are no well-defined reference intervals for urinary concentrations of the metals studied, particularly in pregnant women. Anyway, using the reference ranges reported by LabCorp (a large international clinical laboratory), we could conclude that: the median Bi concentration (0.015 µg/L) was below the reference range for environmental exposure of 0.3–4.6 µg/L [34] and the median concentrations of Tl, Ni and Sb (0.020, 4.13 and 0.039 µg/L, respectively) were well within (and even at the very bottom, in the case of Tl and Sb) of the corresponding reference ranges for environmental exposure: <1.5 µg/L for Tl [35], <9.9 µg/L for Ni [36] and <10 µg/L for Sb [37].

Sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample and exposure to toxic metals

Exposure to Tl was associated with residence area, being higher in Valongo, and a similar trend was observed for Bi. Valongo is a mining area in Portugal and, although Tl is not the main metal extracted, it is often found in deposits of other elements such as Sb and As, which are present in the main minerals extracted in the region [38, 39]. Despite this, exposure levels proved to be very low, according to the reference ranges for environmental exposure mentioned above.

Particularly noteworthy is the finding that the median urinary Ni excretion in Porto (6.91 µg/g) was the highest of all residence areas studied, although the lack of statistical significance.

Regarding maternal age categories, statistically significant differences were found in the urinary excretion of Bi, Tl and Sb urinary concentrations: the median values increased from women younger than 30 years to women older than 35 years. This suggests that there may be a body burden of these metals over time, which has also been suggested for other heavy metals in non-pregnant women [40]. This increase in urinary excretion with age can be at least partially explained by a decrease in creatinine excretion in older age groups, but trend in urinary creatinine was not statistically significant in our study (data not shown). In any case, Bi, Tl and Sb urinary concentrations remain quite low in all age groups and would not be expected to pose toxicity concerns.

Sources of Tl include coal combustion, semiconductor manufacturing, exhaust emissions and it is also currently used in the semiconductor and optical industries [9]. To date, only a few studies have been published on the possible biological effects on human health and in cell cultures at Tl low-doses exposure (below 100 µg/L). However, a brief review on the literature on this subject was carried out and all the studies found highlight that exposure to this metal, even at very low concentrations, is a threat to human health, with an impact on the newborns outcomes, such as low birth weight [10].

It is noteworthy that this study showed that professional occupation could be a source of exposure to heavy metals. In this context, being a health professional was associated with increased levels of Bi and Ni. Other occupations, including housekeeping, hairdressing, cooking and working in factories, also appeared to increase exposure to all metals analyzed.

In fact, as previously mentioned, Ni is a metal widely used in various industrial processes (mining, refining, food processing, stainless steel, and electronic equipment production), putting factory workers and warehouse operators at a particularly increased risk of exposure. Individual systemic exposure to Ni occurs by inhalation, ingestion and skin contact [21].

Ni is also present in fossil fuels and, therefore, their burning contaminates the environment, which can be an important source of exposure for firefighters, taxi drivers and air traffic controllers. Health care workers may be occupationally exposed to Ni through medical equipment where this metal is used such as medical electric equipment and medical implants [21].

We could also observe that urinary Ni excretion tended to decrease with increasing education level. In 2004, a systematic review carried out to investigate whether low health literacy was related to worse use of health care and poorer health outcomes concluded that it was associated with poorer health outcomes [41]. Extrapolating the conclusions of this review to the results found in our study, there is a possibility that a higher level of education is associated with lower exposure to toxic metals and, therefore, better health outcomes.

Although no statistically significant differences were observed in the urinary excretion of metals between pregnant non-smokers, smokers, and ex-smokers, the presence of Ni [31] and Tl [32] in different tobacco products is confirmed. Interestingly, when looking at the results of this study, the median urinary excretion of Tl and Ni did not appear to be related to daily cigarette consumption. That is, the urinary excretion of Tl and Ni was not correlated with the number of cigarettes smoked per day. As these metals are present in tobacco, it would be expected that pregnant smokers would excrete more Tl and Ni in the urine, which was not observed in this study.

Regarding the specific exposure to Tl through diet, it was found that urinary excretion was consistently higher with the frequency of fish consumption ($p=0.03$). Some studies on marine fish from the central Pacific Ocean revealed that Tl levels in tissues were between 0.041-2.45 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (Lin et al. 2001; Couture et al. 2011). Analysis of muscle tissue from alpine trout from a Canadian lake (Ellesmere Island, Nunavut, Canada) showed a wide range of Tl levels, but much lower (14.3-124.7 ng/g) (Gantner et al. 2009). The highest levels of Tl were found in fish from aquatic environments close to contaminated areas, reaching 96 (Palermo et al. 1983) and 117.5 ug/g (Zitko et al. 1975) [12]. Our data corroborate the hypothesis of fish consumption as a source of Tl exposure.

Newborn outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Regarding the anthropometric parameters of newborns, even though no statistically significant associations were found, urinary Ni excretion tended to increase consistently from SGA (small for gestational age) to AGA (appropriate for gestational age). That is, greater exposure to Ni, with higher levels of Ni excretion, seemed to result in the adequacy of anthropometry for gestational age.

A study carried out in China, with a final sample of 156 pregnant women, in which there was no association between exposure to heavy metals, namely Ni, and length at birth Li, Zhuang [42]. On the other hand, Howe et al. [43] showed a positive association between urinary Ni concentration in early pregnancy and neonatal birth weight, which has also been reported by others. Despite this, we cannot disregard the fact that Ni is not currently considered an essential trace element for humans, and EFSA does not consider it as a nutrient [44]. In fact, concerns about Ni toxicity are raising and a limit of exposure has been set for Ni [45].

A similar positive association, although not statistically significant, was found for Tl and all the neonatal anthropometric parameters studied. These results are contradictory to those of a nested case-control study with 816 participants residing in Hubei Province, China, which showed that higher maternal urinary Tl concentrations were associated with an increased risk of low birth

weight [18]. However, it should be noted that the urinary TI concentrations found in that study in China, also measured by ICP-MS, were 10 times higher than ours. This suggests that TI may not present fetal toxicity in the range of concentrations found in our study [18].

Pregnancy outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

The results of our study show that, although not reaching statistical significance, urinary Ni excretion was much higher in pregnant women who had childbirth complications or who had a baby with malformations. It is important to emphasize that urinary Ni excretion in these categories was close to the 75th percentile of the overall sample. A study conducted in 2090 pregnant women from a cohort in China, where urine samples were collected before the 20th week of gestation and an oral glucose tolerance test was performed, showed that five metals, including Ni, were significantly and positively associated with gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) [23]. In that study, the Ni concentrations associated with GDM (2.84 µg/g) were lower than those found in our study for the group of delivery complications or fetal malformations.

On the contrary, we could observe that TI was not associated with delivery complications. To the best of our knowledge, only one prospective study has been conducted so far to investigate the association between urinary TI levels during pregnancy and women's risk of developing GDM. This cohort study used a sample of 1798 pregnant women and suggested the possible existence of a positive association between exposure to TI during pregnancy and an increased risk of developing GDM [46].

Thus, given the small amount of reported but still existing studies and results, the effect of these metals on pregnancy outcomes should be further explored.

Limitations and strengths

This study has some limitations and strengths that must be considered during the analysis and interpretation of its results.

One of the limitations, and despite the use of the most sensitive analytical technique currently available, is the low detection rate, due to the low concentrations of metals that the samples actually showed. Thus, we did not perform association analyzes of Bi and Sb with neonatal or pregnancy outcomes.

Another limitation of this study is the lack of detailed information on the specific exposure risk associated with some professional occupations and on specific sources of exposure (food, water, etc.).

Another limitation is that urinary concentrations may not truly reflect actual exposure. Although urine is an appropriate specimen to evaluate the excretion of the studied metals, the samples collected for this study are spot samples (random urine) and therefore only provide information about a narrow time window of exposure. That is to say, the result of a random urine sample may be due to an occasional, exceptional intake of water or food rich in one of the metals, for example. In addition, we assumed that the point concentrations found were a good estimate of the longer exposure that pregnant women had over time.

In terms of strengths of this study, urinary concentrations of Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb were used as biomarkers of prenatal exposure simultaneously. In few studies available in the literature, such a comprehensive approach was performed, with these metals simultaneously tested in pregnant women.

In addition, the participants of this study were pregnant women who had attended the routine prenatal surveillance consultations held at CHUSJoão. In other words, recruitment was not exclusively carried out only among pregnant women who were being followed at CHUSJoão consultations for a specific health problem. Thus, the results are representative of women with a normal course of pregnancy and not just women suffering from known or emerging pathologies during pregnancy.

Finally, after recruiting the pregnant women who were invited to participate in this study, some exclusion criteria were applied. And yet the population used for the final analysis was considerably large, resulting in 349 spot urine samples.

Conclusion

In conclusion, exposure to metals Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb was evaluated in a cohort of Portuguese pregnant women (the IoMum cohort) by determining the respective urinary levels, and it was found that no sociodemographic factor was significantly associated with environmental exposure.

In addition, the statistically significant differences found in this study and described above are not of concern regarding possible impact on maternal or newborn health.

Thus, while it is certain that pregnant women are inevitably exposed to toxic metals, the levels of exposure found do not appear to pose a significant health risk.

Finally, the evidence in the literature on these and other toxic metals, with some uncertainty in several cases, highlights the importance of carrying out more studies in the future in Portugal that analyze the possible relationships between metals and pregnancy and newborn outcomes.

Statements & Declarations

Funding

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Competing Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Author Contributions

Manuscript writing: A.D., E.K., V.F. A.A., and, B.M.; Study conception and design: E.K., C.M.C., L.F.R.A., C.C., J.C.L., and C.R.; Population recruitment: J.G., C.P., C.P., C.M., C.R., and D.P., Data collection: J.G., C.P., C.R., and D.P.; Biochemical analyses: E.P., C.M., C.D.M., A.A., and V.C.F.; Statistical analyses: A.M.R. and C.C.D.

Ethics approval

The data used for the IoMum study were obtained according to the research protocol (ClinicalTrials.gov #NCT04010708) that was subsequently approved by the Ethics Committee of Centro Hospitalar Universitário de São João (CHUSJoão) / Faculty of Medicine of the University of Porto (FMUP) (ClinicalTrials.gov #NCT04010708).

Consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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Annex

Annex 1 – Categorization of variables

Continuous Variables

- Age
- Gestational weight variation
- Urinary Bi concentration at T1 in $\mu\text{g/L}$ obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD were imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$)
- Urinary TI concentration at T1 in $\mu\text{g/L}$ obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD were imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$)
- Urinary Ni concentration at T1 in $\mu\text{g/L}$ obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD were imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$)
- Urinary Sb concentration at T1 in $\mu\text{g/L}$ obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD were imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$)
- Urinary Bi concentration at T1 obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$) adjusted for urinary creatinine (results as $\mu\text{g Bi} / \text{g creatine}$)
- Urinary TI concentration at T1 obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$) adjusted for urinary creatinine (results as $\mu\text{g TI} / \text{g creatine}$)
- Urinary Ni concentration at T1 obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$) adjusted for urinary creatinine (results as $\mu\text{g Ni} / \text{g creatine}$)
- Urinary Sb concentration at T1 obtained from urine sample analysis (values below LOD imputed as $\text{LOD}/\sqrt{2}$) adjusted for urinary creatinine (results as $\mu\text{g Sb} / \text{g creatine}$)

Ordinal Variables

- Maternal education level
- Pre-pregnancy BMI categories
- Employed
- Smoking habits
- Number of cigarettes per day
- Frequency of cow's milk intake
- Frequency of fish intake
- Urinary Bi concentration categories
- Urinary TI concentration categories
- Urinary Ni concentration categories
- Urinary Sb concentration categories
- Length at birth categories according to WHO standards

- Weight at birth according to WHO standards
- Head circumference at birth according to WHO standards
- Birth weight according to WHO categories
- Birth head circumference according to WHO categories

Nominal Variables

- Health professional
- High-exposure occupation
- Primiparity
- Residence area
- Smoking habits
- Newborn sex
- Type of delivery
- Delivery complications
- Pregnancy complications
- Foetal malformations

Comissão de Ética

De: Elisa Keating [keating@med.up.pt]
 Enviado: quinta-feira, 15 de Fevereiro de 2018 15:47
 Para: 'Comissão de Ética'
 Assunto: Projeto iomum - questões adicionais a considerar
 Anexos: iomum_anexo 1_colheita amostra sangue seco.docx

Importância: Alta

Exm.o Senhor
 Presidente da Comissão de Ética para a Saúde do CHS João/FMUP
 Professor Doutor Filipe Almeida

Venho por este meio apresentar duas questões a considerar no contexto do projeto iomum, recentemente aprovado por esta mesma Comissão, e que só se colocaram posteriormente a esta aprovação (27 Novembro 2017). Em reflexão de equipa consideramos que estas questões não alteram a aceitabilidade ética do projeto iomum. No entanto, compete-nos deixá-las para reflexão superior pela Comissão de Ética e solicitar autorização para as incluir no projeto iomum.

1. Introdução de colheita de gota de sangue seco por picada de dedo, no protocolo do estudo.

Justificação: Embora o *outcome* primário do projeto iomum se mantenha a quantificação de iodo na urina, a equipa de investigação considera importante avaliar também os níveis de tiroglobulina em gota de sangue seco, no tempo 2 (T2) – consulta do termo da gravidez. Este doseamento tem 2 objetivos específicos:

- Validar a tiroglobulina em gota de sangue seco como um método fácil e pouco invasivo para avaliação do estado de iodo em mulheres grávidas
- Investigar de que forma a toma de iodo em suplemento afeta os níveis de tiroglobulina

A colheita será feita por enfermeiros devidamente treinados, segundo protocolo previamente estabelecido (ver anexo). Uma vez autorizado, este procedimento será incluído na informação ao participante.

2. Alteração ao modelo de consentimento informado, nomeadamente:

- Remoção da frase: "Declaro não ter sido incluída em nenhum outro projeto de investigação nos últimos três meses".**

Justificação: O iomum é um projeto de natureza observacional, que não envolve qualquer intervenção ao participante, e que envolve apenas a colheita de urina em 2 pontos de tempo e de uma picada no dedo única, sendo assim minimamente exigente para as participantes. Por este motivo, consideramos que no contexto deste estudo observacional não se coloca o problema ético de a participante estar envolvida também noutros estudos de investigação, desde que o faça voluntariamente, premissa para a assinatura do consentimento informado. Consideramos ainda que a presença desta frase poderá inibir a adesão ao estudo.

- Introdução de um campo para inserção de contactos da participante.**

Justificação: Esta informação possibilitará à equipa iomum lembrar a participante do segundo contacto com o projeto, na data de consulta de termo da gravidez.

Sem mais assunto, peço deferimento e envio os meus cumprimentos cordiais
 Elisa Keating

Investigadora Responsável
 Projeto iomum

Elisa Keating
 Professora Auxiliar
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 21 18.03.16
 Prof. Doutor Filipe Almeida
 Presidente da Comissão de Ética

Comissão de Ética

De: Elisa Keating [keating@med.up.pt]
Enviado: segunda-feira, 4 de Fevereiro de 2019 14:08
Para: 'Comissão de Ética'
Assunto: Projeto iomum - questões adicionais a considerar
Anexos: iomum_adenda_CES_04Fev_anexos.docx

Importância: Alta

Exm.o Senhor

Presidente da Comissão de Ética para a Saúde do CHUS João/FMUP
Professor Doutor Filipe Almeida

Venho por este meio apresentar duas questões adicionais a considerar no contexto do projeto iomum aprovado por esta mesma Comissão de Ética em 27 de Novembro de 2017, e que se coletaram posteriormente a esta aprovação, especificamente no âmbito do desenvolvimento do trabalho de Mestrado em Nutrição Clínica pela estudante Juliana Cristina Diniz Guimarães, subordinada o tema "State of iodine in Portuguese pregnant women and the anthropometric profile of offspring at birth: results from the IoMum cohort". Em reflexão de equipa consideramos que as questões que ora apresentamos não alteram a aceitabilidade ética do projeto iomum. Importa referir também que estas questões estão incluídas na sua totalidade no âmbito da proposta anteriormente aprovada pela CES, pelo que os detalhes de financiamento se mantêm os mesmos.

Compete-nos ainda assim deixar estas questões para reflexão superior pela Comissão de Ética e solicitar autorização para as incluir no projeto iomum.

1. Biomonitorização na cohort iomum

Embora o *outcome* primário do projeto iomum se mantenha a quantificação de iodo na urina, a equipa de investigação considera importante avaliar adicionalmente, como *outcome* secundário, o grau de exposição das grávidas da cohort iomum a poluentes ambientais pela sua quantificação na urina, tais como oligoelementos (cádmio, arsénico, chumbo, selénio, alumínio, entre outros), e outros poluentes (pesticidas e metabolitos de pesticidas, retardantes de chama, entre outros). Esta avaliação tem como objetivo a biomonitorização humana em grávidas para gerar informação relevante em termos de saúde pública e de avaliação e gestão de riscos neste grupo populacional particularmente suscetível, importando realçar que os dados científicos sobre estas exposições em mulheres grávidas portuguesas são à data inexistentes. Adicionalmente, a quantificação desta exposição será cruzada com os dados antropométricos do recém-nascido, bem como com outros desfechos da gravidez, de forma a encontrar associações com os níveis de exposição ambiental.

Esta utilização adicional da cohort iomum não acarreta nenhuma ação adicional, incómodo ou desconforto para as participantes, uma vez que os referidos doseamentos serão feitos nas amostras de urina recolhidas e previstas inicialmente no protocolo do iomum. Este pedido representa pois um esforço de rentabilização das amostras recolhidas que nos parece recomendável.

Importa referir que a equipa de investigação do iomum dispõe do conhecimento e dos meios humanos e técnicos que garantem a qualidade na metodologia (anexo 1) de análise química necessária, bem como no tratamento dos respetivos dados (anexo 2).

2. Acesso aos dados do processo clínico do recém-nascido

Embora tenha sido inicialmente previsto o acesso ao processo clínico das grávidas participantes no iomum, vimos solicitar o acesso ao processo clínico e aos dados do recém-nascido. Desta forma ser-nos-á possível

Parecer da Comissão de Ética para a Saúde do
Centro Hospitalar de São João / Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto

Título do Projeto: IoMum - Monitorização do estado do iodo em grávidas Portuguesas: impacto da suplementação

Nome da Investigadora Principal: Prof Doutora Elisa Keating

Onde decorre o Estudo: No Serviço de Ginecologia e Obstetrícia do CHSJ. Apresentou declaração do Prof. Doutor Nuno Montenegro, que será também o profissional de ligação.

Objectivos do Estudo:

- 1) Monitorizar o estado de iodo em mulheres grávidas portuguesas,
- 2) Avaliar a eficácia da orientação da DGS através da avaliação da adesão dos médicos de família e obstetras a esta orientação e 3) Avaliar o impacto da suplementação no estado de iodo das grávidas.

Concepção e Pertinência do estudo:

Em Portugal, um estudo realizado entre 2005 e 2007 evidenciou uma prevalência elevada de deficiência de iodo em mulheres grávidas, com apenas 16.8% a apresentar valores de iodúria adequados. Este estudo motivou a implementação, em 2013, de uma orientação (nº 011/2013) de suplementação com iodo durante a gravidez pela Direção Geral de Saúde (DGS). Atualmente, 10 anos após a última avaliação do estado de iodo em mulheres grávidas, e 4 anos após a publicação da orientação da DGS, nenhum outro estudo se debruçou sobre este tema ou sobre a caracterização da adesão dos médicos à recomendação da DGS. Este cenário torna-se particularmente crítico considerando que a própria orientação obriga à monitorização do seu impacto 2 anos após a publicação, prática que é reforçada pela Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS). O IoMum surge neste contexto, para colmatar esta ausência de conhecimento, e permitirá a caracterização do estado de iodo atual em mulheres grávidas portuguesas e a aferição da eficácia da suplementação na redução da insuficiência de iodo nesta população, contribuindo para o esclarecimento da comunidade médica e das entidades de saúde pública competentes.

O IoMum tem **duas populações alvo:**

- Grávidas saudáveis para avaliação das iodúrias e recolha de informação sobre estilos de vida, saúde e alimentação (questionário em anexo).

Estão definidos critérios de inclusão e exclusão.

- Médicos de Medicina Geral e Familiar e de Obstetrícia cuja participação será unicamente a resposta a um questionário sobre a sua prática clínica de suplementação com iodo durante a gravidez (questionário em anexo). Este questionário inclui uma secção inicial de informação sobre o Projeto que ajudará cada Médico na decisão de preenchimento e por isso de participação no projeto.

O desenho de estudo do IoMum tira partido do facto de a guideline da Direção Geral de Saúde (DGS) para o aporte de iodo em mulheres grávidas não ter carácter obrigatório, dando assim a possibilidade de encontrar na população de mulheres grávidas, um grupo suplementado e um grupo não suplementado, com base nas indicações clínicas de seguimento rotineiro da gravidez.

O Recrutamento será efetuado por investigadores experientes.

Benefício/risco:

A participação neste estudo permitirá às grávidas participantes um esclarecimento e sensibilização sobre a importância do iodo na gravidez e sobre o risco de deficiência deste micronutriente podendo, desta forma, contribuir ativamente para a alteração de comportamentos em prole de uma maior ingestão deste micronutriente.

Não haverá riscos para os participantes. As grávidas participantes apenas terão que disponibilizar-se para colher duas amostras pontuais de urina em dois tempos distintos da gravidez, bem como ceder cerca alguns minutos (máximo 10 minutos) do seu tempo para leitura da informação ao participante, assinatura de consentimento e preenchimento dos questionários que serão feitas no período dedicado às consultas de rotina, no Hospital. A participação das grávidas não obrigará a visitas ao Hospital/centro de saúde além das que estão previstas na vigilância de rotina da gravidez. As avaliações clínicas serão totalmente não-invasivas.

Os participantes, médicos, terão que ceder breves minutos para o preenchimento de apenas um questionário, que se estima que não exceda os 10 minutos.

O IoMum é um estudo observacional, que não prevê nenhuma espécie de intervenção pelo que não implica riscos para os participantes.

Confidencialidade dos dados:

Toda a informação recolhida permanecerá anónima e confidencial estando assegurada a privacidade de todos os participantes. A cada participante será atribuído um código único para que os nomes não sejam associados aos resultados. Os resultados deste estudo serão publicados em meios científicos, mas os participantes não serão identificados.

Respeito pela liberdade e autonomia do sujeito de ensaio:

A participação das grávidas será sujeita a assinatura de consentimento informado livre e esclarecido (Modelo da CES) e adequada informação ao participante (em anexo).

A participação dos médicos será considerada consentida sempre que de livre vontade acederem responder ao questionário online que lhes será disponibilizado.

Curriculum da investigadora: Adequado à investigação.

Data previsível da conclusão do estudo: novembro de 2020

Conclusão: Proponho um parecer favorável à realização deste projecto de investigação.

Porto, 27 de Novembro de 2017

O Relator da CES,



Unidade de Investigação

Tomei conhecimento. Nada a opor.

15 de Janeiro de 2018

A Coordenadora da Unidade de Investigação

(Prof.^a Doutora Ana Azevedo)



SÃO JOÃO

n.º 292 / 17

Aprovado, Ao C.A.

DIRECÇÃO CLÍNICA

(Prof.^a Doutora Ana Azevedo)

PEDIDO DE AUTORIZAÇÃO

Realização de Investigação

Exmo. Senhor Presidente do Conselho de Administração
do Centro Hospitalar de São João

Nome do Investigador Principal:

Elisa Oliveira Braga Keating

Título da Investigação:

IoMum - Monitorização do estado de iodo em grávidas
Portuguesas: impacto da suplementação.

AUTORIZADO

CONSELHO DE ADMINISTRAÇÃO REUNIAO DE 18 JAN 2018

Presidente do Conselho de Administração

(Dr. António Oliveira e Silva)

Diretor Clínico

(Dr. José Artur Ruval

Enfermeira Diretora

(Enf.^a Priscilla Coimbra

Vogal Executivo

(Dr. Luís Paulo Gomes

Vogal Executivo

(Dr. Ricardo C. Matias

Pretendo realizar no(s) Serviço(s) de:

Ginecologia e Obstetrícia

a investigação em epígrafe, solicito a V. Exa., na qualidade de Investigador/Promotor, autorização para a sua efetivação.

Para o efeito, anexo toda a documentação referida no dossier da Comissão de Ética do Centro Hospitalar de São João/Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto respeitante à investigação, à qual enderecei pedido de apreciação e parecer.

Com os melhores cumprimentos.

O Investigador/Promotor

Porto, 8 de Novembro de 2017.

Elisa Keating
assinatura



Questionário para submissão de Investigação

Exmo. Sr. Presidente da Comissão de Ética do Centro Hospitalar de São João/
Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto,

Pretendendo realizar a investigação infracitada, solicito a V. Exa., na qualidade de Investigador, a sua apreciação e a elaboração do respetivo parecer. Para o efeito, anexo toda a documentação requerida.

IDENTIFICAÇÃO DO ESTUDO

Título da investigação: IoMum - Monitorização do estado do iodo em grávidas Portuguesas: impacto da suplementação

Nome do investigador: Elisa Oliveira Braga Keating

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Contacto telefónico: 914696021

Caracterização da investigação:

☐ Estudo retrospectivo

☒ Estudo observacional

☐ Estudo prospetivo

☐ Inquérito

☐ Outro. Qual? _____

Tipo de investigação:

☐ Com intervenção

☒ Sem intervenção

Formação do investigador em boas práticas clínicas (GCP): ☐ Sim ☒ Não

Promotor (se aplicável): _____

Nome do orientador de dissertação/tese (se aplicável): Elisa Oliveira Braga Keating

Endereço eletrónico: keating@med.up.pt

Local/locais onde se realiza a investigação: Centro Hospitalar de S. João, Hospital de Braga, Hospital de Cascais

Data prevista para início: 01 / 12 / 2017

Data prevista para o término: 31 / 11 / 2020

PROTOCOLO DO ESTUDO

Síntese dos objetivos:

1) Monitorizar o estado de iodo em mulheres grávidas portuguesas, 2) Avaliar a eficácia da orientação da DGS através da avaliação da adesão dos médicos de família e obstetras a esta orientação e 3) Avaliar o impacto da suplementação no estado de iodo das grávidas.

Fundamentação ética (ganhos em conhecimento/inação; ponderação benefícios/riscos):

Em Portugal, um estudo realizado entre 2005 e 2007 evidenciou uma prevalência elevada de deficiência de iodo em mulheres grávidas, com apenas 16.8% a apresentar valores de iodúria adequados. Este estudo motivou a implementação, em 2013, de uma orientação (n.º 011/2013) de suplementação com iodo durante a gravidez pela Direção Geral de Saúde (DGS). Atualmente, 10 anos após a última avaliação do estado de iodo em mulheres grávidas, e 4 anos após a publicação da orientação da DGS, nenhum outro estudo se debruçou sobre este tema ou sobre a caracterização da adesão dos médicos à recomendação da DGS. Este cenário torna-se particularmente crítico considerando que a própria orientação obriga à monitorização do seu impacto 2 anos após a publicação, prática que é reforçada pela Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS). O IoMum surge neste contexto, para colmatar esta ausência de conhecimento, e permitirá a caracterização do estado de iodo atual em mulheres grávidas portuguesas e a aferição da eficácia da suplementação na redução da insuficiência de iodo nesta população, contribuindo para o esclarecimento da comunidade médica e das entidades de saúde pública competentes.

O IoMum tem duas populações alvo:

- Grávidas saudáveis para avaliação das iodúrias e recolha de informação sobre estilos de vida, saúde e alimentação (questionário em anexo)

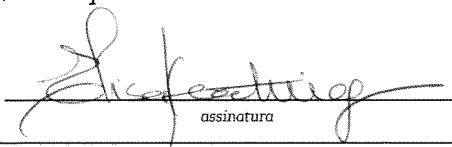
LISTA DE DOCUMENTOS ANEXOS

- ☒ Pedido de autorização ao Presidente do Conselho de Administração do Centro Hospitalar de São João (se aplicável)
- ☐ Pedido de autorização à Diretora da Faculdade de Medicina da Universidade do Porto (se aplicável)
- ☒ Protocolo do estudo
- ☒ Declaração do Diretor de Serviço onde decorre o estudo
(sendo um estudo na área de enfermagem deve anexar também a concordância da chefia de enfermagem)
- ☒ Profissional de ligação
- ☐ Informação dos orientadores
- ☒ Informação ao participante
- ☒ Modelo de consentimento
- ☒ Instrumentos a utilizar (inquéritos, questionários, escalas, p.ex.): questionário às grávidas, questionário aos médicos
- ☒ Curriculum Vitae abreviado (máx. 3 páginas)
- ☐ Protocolo financeiro
- ☐ Outros:

COMPROMISSO DE HONRA E DECLARAÇÃO DE INTERESSES

Declaro por minha honra que as informações prestadas neste questionário são verdadeiras. Mais declaro que, durante o estudo, serão respeitadas as recomendações constantes da Declaração de Helsínquia (1960 e respetivas emendas), e da Organização Mundial da Saúde, Convenção de Oviedo e das "Boas Práticas Clínicas" (GCP/ICH) no que se refere à experimentação que envolve seres humanos. Aceito, também, a recomendação da CES de que o recrutamento para este estudo se fará junto de doentes que não tenham participado em outro estudo, nos últimos três meses. Comprometo-me a entregar à CES o relatório final da investigação, assim que concluído.

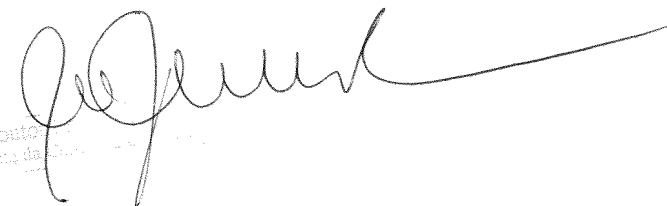
Porto, 9 de Novembro de 2017
Nome legível: Elisa Oliveira Braga Keating


assinatura

Parecer da Comissão de Ética do Centro Hospitalar de São João/FMUP

Emitido na reunião plenária da CE de 27 / 11 / 17

A Comissão de Ética para a Saúde
APROVA por unanimidade o parecer do
Relator, pelo que nada tem a opor à
realização deste projecto de investigação.


Prof. Doutor
Presidente da Comissão de Ética

	Item No	Recommendation	Page No
Title and abstract	1	<p>(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract</p> <p>(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found</p> <p>Urinary toxic levels and pregnancy and newborn outcomes: results of the IoMum cohort biomonitoring</p> <p>Abstract</p> <p>This study aimed to evaluate the association between exposure of pregnant women to bismuth (Bi), thallium (Tl), nickel (Ni), and antimony (Sb) and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample, pregnancy outcomes, and anthropometric parameters of the newborn.</p> <p>This was a prospective study based on the IoMum cohort. Pregnant women undergoing routine first-trimester ultrasounds at Centro Hospitalar São João, from April 2018 to April 2019, were invited to participate. Inclusion criteria were gestational age ≥ 10 and < 14 weeks, confirmed foetal vitality and informed consent signature. Spot urine samples (n=349) were analyzed using ICP-MS to quantify metals concentrations.</p> <p>Median urinary metal concentrations were, in $\mu\text{g/L}$: Bi 0.02, Tl 0.02, Ni 4.3 and Sb 0.04. Tl and Bi excretion were associated with residence area, with higher values in Valongo. Maternal age was positively associated with excretions of Bi, Sb, and Tl. Bi, Ni, and Sb excretion decreased from normal weight to obese women (pre-pregnancy BMI). Occupation as a health professional was associated with higher excretion of Bi and Ni. Occupations categorized as "high exposure" (including industry workers, cooks and housekeeping and hairdressing professionals) were associated with higher excretions of all the metals. Tl excretion increased with the frequency of fish consumption and with increasing anthropometric categories of weight, head circumference, and length at birth.</p> <p>The present study showed that some professions may increase the exposure of pregnant women to the studied toxic metals. Despite this, the levels of exposure are not of concern regarding possible impact on maternal or newborn health.</p> <p>Keywords: Pregnancy, Newborns, Anthropometry, Heavy metals, Occupational exposure;</p>	1, 2

Exposure to metals during pregnancy

Individuals are naturally subject to exposure to different metals¹ through daily intake of food and water, as well as inhalation of airborne particulate matter. Moreover, different occupational activities may represent an additional and specific source of exposure. An overload of these metals in the human body can have important adverse health effects [1].

There are several metals that are biochemically important and must be ingested continuously to maintain health. Some examples of these nutritionally essential metals are iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), zinc (Zn) and copper (Cu). On the other hand, several metals, such as arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), mercury (Hg) and lead (Pb), have no known biological function and are toxic even when present in the human body in very low concentrations[1].

The physiological adaptations that occur during pregnancy increase the demand for essential trace elements, as well as increase the susceptibility to the harmful effects of toxic metals². Pregnancy and fetal development are seen as a specific time window of vulnerability, during which the toxic effects of heavy metals can result in disturbed fetal development and poor pregnancy outcomes, such as reduced fetal growth, impaired neurological development, congenital malformation, spontaneous abortion, stillbirth, preterm birth and low birth weight [1].

Most studies on the effects of natural exposure to metals are epidemiological studies in which the degree of exposure of the general population is evaluated, together with the associated effects [1]. Studies on specific populations (e.g., pregnant women), however, are quite scarce – and particularly in the case of Portugal, there are almost no studies on the exposure to toxic metals of pregnant women, as well as the consequences on fetal health and pregnancy outcomes.

Below we review the main sources and possible known consequences of exposure regarding the four metals that were the focus of our study: bismuth, thallium, antimony, and nickel.

¹ Strictly speaking, some of the elements referred to throughout this text (e.g., arsenic), including one of the elements that was the subject of this study (antimony), are not metals but “metalloids” (since they present some characteristics of metals but others of non-metals). However, for the purposes of simplifying writing, the generic designation of “metals” will always be used.

² Often collectively referred to as “heavy metals”, since physiochemically most of them are in fact heavy metals.

Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	9
Aims			
<p>There is a lack of relevant studies on exposure to toxic metals and their consequences on fetal health and pregnancy outcomes, particularly in Portugal.</p> <p>Thus, the main objectives of this study were:</p> <p>(1) to evaluate the level of exposure to the four toxic metals Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb in pregnant women from the IoMum cohort, based on their urinary concentration;</p> <p>(2) to investigate the correlation between exposure levels and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample;</p> <p>(3) to investigate the correlation between exposure levels and pregnancy outcomes and anthropometric parameters of newborns.</p>			
Methods			
Study design	4	<p>Present key elements of study design early in the paper</p> <p>Pregnant women who underwent routine first-trimester ultrasound at CHUSJoão during the period from April 2018 to April 2019 were invited to participate in the IoMum cohort study. Based on this cohort, a prospective observational study was subsequently performed.</p>	10
Setting	5	<p>Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection</p> <p>Pregnant women who underwent routine first-trimester ultrasound at CHUSJoão during the period from April 2018 to April 2019 were invited to participate in the IoMum cohort study. Based on this cohort, a prospective observational study was subsequently performed.</p> <p>Pregnant women with confirmed gestational age between 10 weeks and 13 weeks plus 6 days, with confirmed foetal vitality on the day of recruitment, and who agreed to sign the informed consent form were included in the study. The gestational age of each pregnant woman was assessed by measuring the crown-rump length and fetal rump length. Thus, 548 pregnant women were enrolled at baseline.</p> <p>Exclusion criteria were gestational age at recruitment ≤ 10 and >14 weeks, unsigned standard informed consent, unsigned newborn informed consent,</p>	10

and twin pregnancy. After the exclusion criteria were applied, the final study sample became 352 participants, and 349 urine samples were analyzed for use in the study.

At the time of enrollment (timepoint 1, T1), participants received a questionnaire to assess various demographic and lifestyle factors. This questionnaire included questions such as age, area of residence, education level, pre-pregnancy weight, height, gestational age, primiparity, smoking habits (and the number of cigarettes smoked per day, if applicable), and frequency of some types of food (including fish and dairy) consumption.

Participants	6	<p>(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up</p> <p>(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed</p> <p>Pregnant women who underwent routine first-trimester ultrasound at CHUSJoão during the period from April 2018 to April 2019 were invited to participate in the IoMum cohort study. Based on this cohort, a prospective observational study was subsequently performed.</p> <p>Pregnant women with confirmed gestational age between 10 weeks and 13 weeks plus 6 days, with confirmed foetal vitality on the day of recruitment, and who agreed to sign the informed consent form were included in the study.</p>	10
Variables	7	<p>Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable</p> <p>Clinical information about the newborns and pregnancy of the women who participated in the study was taken from clinical records, and included: maternal occupation, pregnancy outcomes and complications, type of delivery, gestational age at delivery, and newborn's anthropometry.</p>	11
Data sources/ measurement	8*	<p>For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group</p> <p>"This questionnaire included questions such as age, area of residence, education level, pre-pregnancy weight, height, gestational age, primiparity, smoking habits (and the number of cigarettes smoked per day, if applicable), and frequency of some types of food (including fish and dairy) consumption."</p>	10, 11

		<p>“Clinical information about the newborns and pregnancy of the women who participated in the study was taken from clinical records, and included: maternal occupation, pregnancy outcomes and complications, type of delivery, gestational age at delivery, and newborn’s anthropometry.”</p>	
Bias	9	<p>Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias</p> <p>To perform the statistical analysis, the UMC values below the limit of detection (LOD) were imputed as $LOD/\sqrt{2}$. Additionally, UMC were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration and adjusted values were used for the analysis.</p>	15
Study size	10	<p>Explain how the study size was arrived at</p> <p>Pregnant women who underwent routine first-trimester ultrasound at CHUSJoão during the period from April 2018 to April 2019 were invited to participate in the IoMum cohort study. Based on this cohort, a prospective observational study was subsequently performed.</p> <p>Pregnant women with confirmed gestational age between 10 weeks and 13 weeks plus 6 days, with confirmed foetal vitality on the day of recruitment, and who agreed to sign the informed consent form were included in the study. The gestational age of each pregnant woman was assessed by measuring the crown-rump length and fetal rump length. Thus, 548 pregnant women were enrolled at baseline.</p> <p>Exclusion criteria were gestational age at recruitment ≤ 10 and >14 weeks, unsigned standard informed consent, unsigned newborn informed consent, and twin pregnancy. After the exclusion criteria were applied, the final study sample became 352 participants, and 349 urine samples were analyzed for use in the study.</p>	10
Quantitative variables	11	<p>Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why</p> <p>“Urinary levels of toxic metals</p> <p>There is extensive evidence that urine is a suitable specimen for assessing metal exposure [31]. So, the urinary excretion of each metal was measured using inductively coupled mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), according to the</p>	13, 14,

method developed by the CDC's Urine Multi-element ICP-DRC-MS: Method 3018.3 [32]."

"BMI calculation and categorization"

The calculation of body mass index (BMI) calculation was based on pre-pregnancy weight and height which were self-reported by pregnant women in the questionnaires and was calculated by dividing weight, in kilograms, by the square of height, in meters. Subsequently, participants were divided into 4 different BMI categories according to the WHO classification [30]:

Underweight: BMI <18.5;

Normal: BMI [18.5 – 24,9];

Overweight: BMI [25.0 – 29,9];

Obese: BMI >30.0."

"Occupational exposure categorization"

To categorize occupational exposure, the Portuguese Classification of Professions 2010 (CPP/2010) was used, based on the International Classification of Occupations 2008 (ISCO/2008) by the Instituto Nacional de Estatística, I.P. (INE, I.P.). This defines the most relevant new professions, tasks, and functions as part of CIPT/2008."

"Anthropometric data categorization"

The Categorization of newborns' anthropometric variables (weight, length and head circumference) was based on percentiles stipulated in the WHO child growth standards."

Statistical methods	12	<p>(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding</p> <p>(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions</p> <p>(c) Explain how missing data were addressed</p> <p>(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed</p> <p>(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses</p> <p>Statistical Analysis</p> <p>Continuous variables that presented normal distribution were described using mean and standard deviation (SD), while continuous variables with non-normal distribution, namely urinary metals concentrations (UMC) were described as absolute frequencies (n), median, and interquartile range [25th</p>	15
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percentile (P25); 75th percentile (P75)]. The normality of Continuous variables' was tested by evaluating the symmetry of their histograms.

Furthermore, categorical variables were described using absolute frequencies (n) and relative frequencies (%).

To perform the statistical analysis, the UMC values below the limit of detection (LOD) were imputed as LOD/ $\sqrt{2}$. Additionally, UMC were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration and adjusted values were used for the analysis.

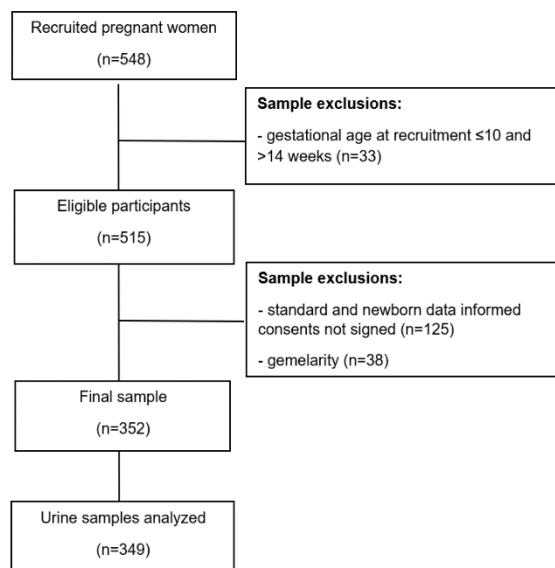
To test for differences in the median of UMC, the variables were properly categorized. Subsequently, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis or Mann-Whitney tests were applied, depending on the number of categories.

Statistical significance was set at 5%. Therefore, when $p < 0.05$, the differences were considered statistically significant differences were considered statistically significant.

Analysis of all data used in this study was performed using IBM SPSS version 27TM software.

Results

- Participants 13* (a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed
- (b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage



(c) Consider use of a flow diagram

- Descriptive data 14* (a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders
- (b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest

(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)

Sociodemographic characteristics

Most of the population resided in Valongo (28%, n=93), Maia (26%, n=88) and Porto (18%, n=60). These are considered the principal municipalities covered by the CHUSJoão area.

The mean (SD) age of the participating women was 32 (5) years.

About 40% of the women were primiparous and 56% (n=175) had a BMI prior to pregnancy in the normal range (18.5 - 25 kg/m²). Of the remaining women, 40% (n=125) had a pre-pregnancy BMI above the normal range, with 24% (n=76) being overweight and 16% (n=49) being obese; and only a small minority (5%, n=15) were underweight.

The mean (SD) variation in the participants' gestational weight (the difference between weight at term and weight before pregnancy) was 14 (6) kg.

Regarding education, 52% (n=175) of the sample had higher degrees of education (≥ 13 years), 33% (n=112) had a medium level (10-12 years), and only 14% (n=48) had a low level of education (≤ 9 years).

In addition, about 96% (n=307) of the participants were employed and 18% (n=57) were health professionals (doctors, nurses, dentists, psychologists, health technicians, nutritionists, pharmacists, and healthcare assistants). Also, 34% (n=107) of the participants had a high-exposure occupation.

Only 17% (n=59) of the participants were "pregnancy smokers", i.e., they were current smokers at the time the questionnaire was administered or had stopped smoking within the first trimester of their pregnancy, at the time of the enrollment. About 5% (n=17) of the smoking participants reported smoking more than 5 cigarettes per day.

Referring to the intake of cow's milk per week, 58% (n=197) reported consuming 4 or more times. Furthermore, 69% (n=224) reported eating fish between 1 to 3 times per week.

As a result of their pregnancies, 52% (n=174) were females and 48% (n=161) were male babies. Analyzing the anthropometric parameters length, weight, and head circumference, the percentage of newborns with appropriate values for gestational age was 91% (n=307), 90% (n=300), and 85% (n=276), respectively.

Looking at the hospital's clinical records, it was possible to see that 50% (n=169) of deliveries were eutocic, 22% (n=73) vacuum-assisted, and 28% (n=94) were by cesarean section.

Besides that, 16% of pregnant women had complications in pregnancy, including: gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) (8%, n=24), pre-eclampsia (2%, n=6), fetal growth restriction (4%, n=11), infection (0.3%, n=1), pre-term delivery (6%, n=17), and/or spontaneous fetal loss (0.3%, n=1). It was also found that only a small number had a foetus with malformations (2%, n=5) and complications at birth (1% n=4).

Finally, we could note that the urinary evaluation presented the following median urinary concentrations (P25; P75) (in µg/L): bismuth 0.02 (0.02; 0.02); thallium 0.02 (0.02; 0.018); nickel 4.13 (2.29; 12.09); antimony 0.04 (0.04; 0.04).

Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	20
<p>Table 2 presents a summary of the results obtained for the 4 metals that were the object of this study, indicating the minimum, maximum and median value, and the 5th (P5), 25th (P25), 75th (P75) and 95th (P95) percentiles. Urinary metal concentrations (µg/L) were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration (g/L), so that results are expressed as µg of metal / g of creatinine.</p> <p>Table 2 also presents the distribution of pregnant women by the three levels of urinary concentration considered: <LOD, between LOD and P95; above P95.</p> <p>LOD (the lowest urinary concentration detectable in the ICP-MS analytical procedure used) were (in µg/L): 0.02 for Bi, 0.02 for Tl, 0.46 for Ni and 0.05 for Sb.</p> <p>The detection rates (defined as the percentage of samples with an urinary metal concentration ≥LOD) were: 10.9% for Bi, 47.6% for Tl, 98.3% for Ni and 16.1% for Sb.</p>			

Main results	<p>16 (a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included</p> <p>(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized</p> <p>(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period</p> <p>“Characteristics of the study sample and exposure to toxic metals</p> <p>Table 3 shows the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine ($\mu\text{g metal / g creatinine}$) and sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample.</p> <p>Median urinary TI excretion was associated with residence area, with higher values for pregnant women residing in Valongo, compared to other municipalities. Also, exposure to Bi tended to be higher in Valongo compared to Porto or Maia, but this association was not statistically significant. No other metal showed association with residence area.</p> <p>Increasing maternal age was associated with higher urinary excretions. This association is statistically significant for Bi and Sb, and marginally significant for TI ($p=0.052$).</p> <p>Regarding BMI, Bi, Ni, and Sb urinary excretion consistently decreased from normal weight to obese women. This association was statistically significant for Bi ($p=0.015$) and marginally significant for Sb ($p=0.061$).</p> <p>Being unemployed was not associated with urinary metal excretion.</p> <p>Occupation as a health professional was associated with higher urinary excretion of Bi and Ni, but the latter association was only marginally significant ($p=0.055$). Occupations categorized as “high exposure” were also associated with higher excretions, but this association was marginally significant for TI, Ni and Sb (p values of 0.050, 0.069 and 0.055, respectively).</p> <p>Regarding maternal education level, urinary Ni excretion appeared to decrease consistently with higher levels of education. However, the differences were not statistically significant.</p> <p>Maternal urinary Ni excretion tended to increase consistently with smoking habits, but the association was not statistically significant. No other consistent associations were found between metal excretion and smoking habits, and there was no association between the number of cigarettes smoked and metal excretion.</p>	22, 27, 29
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Urinary TI excretion appeared to increase consistently with frequency of fish consumption, with participants consuming fish 4 or more times a week having a higher median excretion (0.12 µg/g) than those consuming fish less than 3 times a month (0.04 µg/g). No other metal was associated with fish consumption, and none was associated with milk consumption.”

“Newborn outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Table 4 summarizes the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine (µg metal / g creatinine) and newborn outcomes.

Female newborns tended to have a lower median urinary metal excretion for Ni (4.27 µg/g) when compared to male newborns (5.18 µg/g).

Urinary TI excretion consistently increased with increasing anthropometric categories of birth weight, birth head circumference and birth length, with marginal statistical significance for birth weight adequacy (p=0.074). Regarding Ni, it tended to show higher levels of excretion for adequate categories of birth head circumference and birth length, but none of these associations was statistically significant.”

“Pregnancy outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Table 5 summarizes the association between urinary metal levels adjusted for urinary creatinine (µg metal / g creatinine) and pregnancy outcomes.

Interestingly, the median for urinary Ni excretion was much higher in women who had delivery complications (11.3 µg/g). It is also found that urinary Ni excretion was higher in women who have had a baby with malformations (16.9 µg/g). However, these differences were not statistically significant.

There were no relationships between urinary TI excretion and delivery complications or pregnancy complications.”

Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses
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20

Toxic metals urinary concentrations

Table 2 presents a summary of the results obtained for the 4 metals that were the object of this study, indicating the minimum, maximum and median value, and the 5th (P5), 25th (P25), 75th (P75) and 95th (P95) percentiles. Urinary metal concentrations

<p>(µg/L) were adjusted for urinary creatinine concentration (g/L), so that results are expressed as µg of metal / g of creatinine.</p> <p>Table 2 also presents the distribution of pregnant women by the three levels of urinary concentration considered: <LOD, between LOD and P95; above P95.</p> <p>LOD (the lowest urinary concentration detectable in the ICP-MS analytical procedure used) were (in µg/L): 0.02 for Bi, 0.02 for Tl, 0.46 for Ni and 0.05 for Sb.</p> <p>The detection rates (defined as the percentage of samples with an urinary metal concentration ≥LOD) were: 10.9% for Bi, 47.6% for Tl, 98.3% for Ni and 16.1% for Sb.</p>			
Discussion			
Key results	18	<p>Summarise key results with reference to study objectives</p> <p>“Exposure to heavy metals during pregnancy is harmful to humans, with possible negative consequences both in the short and in the long-term. Exposure to these metals can occur orally (mainly through contaminated water and food) [11], by inhalation [9] or absorption through the skin [21].</p> <p>Physiological changes during pregnancy, with increased needs for specific nutrients, including trace elements, make it a unique period of vulnerability in a woman's life, with risks to the health of the pregnant woman and the fetus [1].</p> <p>Heavy metals do not have a specific biochemical role in the human body and, on the contrary, systemic exposure to these elements, even at very low levels, can have a great toxicological impact [1]. This is particularly true in crucial period of fetal life, making it very relevant to study the possible impacts of those metals on pregnancy and the health of the newborn.</p> <p>The present study aimed to evaluate the level of exposure to four heavy metals – Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb – in the IoMum cohort, by determining their respective urinary concentrations, and to correlate the level of exposure of pregnant women with sociodemographic characteristics, anthropometric parameters of the newborn and pregnancy outcomes.”</p> <p>“In conclusion, exposure to metals Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb was evaluated in a cohort of Portuguese pregnant women (the IoMum cohort) by determining the respective</p>	31, 35

		<p>urinary levels, and it was found that no sociodemographic factor was a significantly associated with environmental exposure.</p> <p>In addition, the statistically significant differences found in this study and described above are not of concern regarding possible impact on maternal or newborn health.</p> <p>Thus, while it is certain that pregnant women are inevitably exposed to toxic metals, the levels of exposure found do not appear to pose a significant health risk.</p> <p>Finally, the evidence in the literature on these and other toxic metals, with some uncertainty in several cases, highlights the importance of carrying out more studies in the future in Portugal that analyze the possible relationships between metals and pregnancy and newborn outcomes.”</p>	
Limitations	19	<p>Discuss limitations of the study, taking into account sources of potential bias or imprecision. Discuss both direction and magnitude of any potential bias</p> <p><i>Limitations and strengths</i></p> <p>This study has some limitations and strengths that must be considered during the analysis and interpretation of its results.</p> <p>One of the limitations, and despite the use of the most sensitive analytical technique currently available, is the low detection rate, due to the low concentrations of metals that the samples actually showed. Thus, we did not perform association analyzes of Bi and Sb with neonatal or pregnancy outcomes.</p> <p>Another limitation of this study is the lack of detailed information on the specific exposure risk associated with some professional occupations and on specific sources of exposure (food, water, etc.).</p> <p>Another limitation is that urinary concentrations may not truly reflect actual exposure. Although urine is an appropriate specimen to evaluate the excretion of the studied metals, the samples collected for this study are spot samples (random urine) and therefore only provide information about a narrow time window of exposure. That is to say, the result of a random urine sample may be due to an occasional, exceptional intake of water or food rich in one of the metals, for example. In addition, we assumed that the point concentrations found were a good estimate of the longer exposure that pregnant women had over time.</p> <p>In terms of strengths of this study, urinary concentrations of Bi, Tl, Ni and Sb were used as biomarkers of prenatal exposure simultaneously. In few studies available in</p>	34, 35

		<p>the literature, such a comprehensive approach was performed, with these metals simultaneously tested in pregnant women.</p> <p>In addition, the participants of this study were pregnant women who had attended the routine prenatal surveillance consultations held at CHUSJoão. In other words, recruitment was not exclusively carried out only among pregnant women who were being followed at CHUSJoão consultations for a specific health problem. Thus, the results are representative of women with a normal course of pregnancy and not just women suffering from known or emerging pathologies during pregnancy.</p> <p>Finally, after recruiting the pregnant women who were invited to participate in this study, some exclusion criteria were applied. And yet the population used for the final analysis was considerably large, resulting in 349 spot urine samples.</p>	
Interpretation	20	<p>Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence</p> <p>Sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample and exposure to toxic metals</p> <p>Exposure to TI was associated with residence area, being higher in Valongo, and a similar trend was observed for Bi. Valongo is a mining area in Portugal and, although TI is not the main metal extracted, it is often found in deposits of other elements such as Sb and As, which are present in the main minerals extracted in the region [38, 39]. Despite this, exposure levels proved to be very low, according to the reference ranges for environmental exposure mentioned above.</p> <p>Particularly noteworthy is the finding that the median urinary Ni excretion in Porto (6.91 µg/g) was the highest of all residence areas studied, although the lack of statistical significance.</p> <p>Regarding maternal age categories, statistically significant differences were found in the urinary excretion of Bi, TI and Sb urinary concentrations: the median values increased from women younger than 30 years to women older than 35 years. This suggests that there may be a body burden of these metals over time, which has also been suggested for other heavy metals in non-pregnant women [40]. This increase in urinary excretion with age can be at least partially explained by a decrease in creatinine excretion in older age groups, but trend in urinary creatinine was not statistically significant in our study (data not shown). In any case, Bi, TI and Sb urinary concentrations remain quite low in all age groups and would not be expected to pose toxicity concerns.</p> <p>Sources of TI include coal combustion, semiconductor manufacturing, exhaust emissions and it is also currently used in the semiconductor and optical industries [9].</p>	31, 32, 33, 34

To date, only a few studies have been published on the possible biological effects on human health and in cell cultures at TI low-doses exposure (below 100 µg/L). However, a brief review on the literature on this subject was carried out and all the studies found highlight that exposure to this metal, even at very low concentrations, is a threat to human health, with an impact on the newborns outcomes, such as low birth weight [10].

It is noteworthy that this study showed that professional occupation could be a source of exposure to heavy metals. In this context, being a health professional was associated with increased levels of Bi and Ni. Other occupations, including housekeeping, hairdressing, cooking and working in factories, also appeared to increase exposure to all metals analyzed.

In fact, as previously mentioned, Ni is a metal widely used in various industrial processes (mining, refining, food processing, stainless steel, and electronic equipment production), putting factory workers and warehouse operators at a particularly increased risk of exposure. Individual systemic exposure to Ni occurs by inhalation, ingestion and skin contact [21]-

Ni is also present in fossil fuels and, therefore, their burning contaminates the environment, which can be an important source of exposure for firefighters, taxi drivers and air traffic controllers. Health care workers may be occupationally exposed to Ni through medical equipment where this metal is used such as medical electric equipment and medical implants [21].

We could also observe that urinary Ni excretion tended to decrease with increasing education level. In 2004, a systematic review carried out to investigate whether low health literacy was related to worse use of health care and poorer health outcomes concluded that it was associated with poorer health outcomes [41]. Extrapolating the conclusions of this review to the results found in our study, there is a possibility that a higher level of education is associated with lower exposure to toxic metals and, therefore, better health outcomes.

Although no statistically significant differences were observed in the urinary excretion of metals between pregnant non-smokers, smokers, and ex-smokers, the presence of Ni [31] and TI [32] in different tobacco products is confirmed. Interestingly, when looking at the results of this study, the median urinary excretion of TI and Ni did not appear to be related to daily cigarette consumption. That is, the urinary excretion of TI and Ni was not correlated with the number of cigarettes smoked per day. As these metals are present in tobacco, it would be expected that pregnant smokers would excrete more TI and Ni in the urine, which was not observed in this study.

Regarding the specific exposure to TI through diet, it was found that urinary excretion was consistently higher with the frequency of fish consumption ($p=0.03$). Some

studies on marine fish from the central Pacific Ocean revealed that TI levels in tissues were between 0.041-2.45 µg/g (Lin et al. 2001; Couture et al. 2011). Analysis of muscle tissue from alpine trout from a Canadian lake (Ellesmere Island, Nunavut, Canada) showed a wide range of TI levels, but much lower (14.3-124.7 ng/g) (Gantner et al. 2009). The highest levels of TI were found in fish from aquatic environments close to contaminated areas, reaching 96 (Palermo et al. 1983) and 117.5 µg/g (Zitko et al. 1975) [12]. Our data corroborate the hypothesis of fish consumption as a source of TI exposure.

Newborn outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

Regarding the anthropometric parameters of newborns, even though no statistically significant associations were found, urinary Ni excretion tended to increase consistently from SGA (small for gestational age) to AGA (appropriate for gestational age). That is, greater exposure to Ni, with higher levels of Ni excretion, seemed to result in the adequacy of anthropometry for gestational age.

A study carried out in China, with a final sample of 156 pregnant women, in which there was no association between exposure to heavy metals, namely Ni, and length at birth Li, Zhuang [42]. On the other hand, Howe et al. [43] showed a positive association between urinary Ni concentration in early pregnancy and neonatal birth weight, which has also been reported by others. Despite this, we cannot disregard the fact that Ni is not currently considered an essential trace element for humans, and EFSA does not consider it as a nutrient [44]. In fact, concerns about Ni toxicity are raising and a limit of exposure has been set for Ni [45].

A similar positive association, although not statistically significant, was found for TI and all the neonatal anthropometric parameters studied. These results are contradictory to those of a nested case-control study with 816 participants residing in Hubei Province, China, which showed that higher maternal urinary TI concentrations were associated with an increased risk of low birth weight [18]. However, it should be noted that the urinary TI concentrations found in that study in China, also measured by ICP-MS, were 10 times higher than ours. This suggests that TI may not present fetal toxicity in the range of concentrations found in our study [18].

Pregnancy outcomes and exposure to toxic metals

The results of our study show that, although not reaching statistical significance, urinary Ni excretion was much higher in pregnant women who had childbirth complications or who had a baby with malformations. It is important to emphasize that

urinary Ni excretion in these categories was close to the 75th percentile of the overall sample. A study conducted in 2090 pregnant women from a cohort in China, where urine samples were collected before the 20th week of gestation and an oral glucose tolerance test was performed, showed that five metals, including Ni, were significantly and positively associated with gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) [23]. In that study, the Ni concentrations associated with GDM (2.84 µg/g) were lower than those found in our study for the group of delivery complications or fetal malformations.

On the contrary, we could observe that TI was not associated with delivery complications. To the best of our knowledge, only one prospective study has been conducted so far to investigate the association between urinary TI levels during pregnancy and women's risk of developing GDM. This cohort study used a sample of 1798 pregnant women and suggested the possible existence of a positive association between exposure to TI during pregnancy and an increased risk of developing GDM [46].

Thus, given the small amount of reported but still existing studies and results, the effect of these metals on pregnancy outcomes should be further explored.

Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	31
<p>“Exposure to heavy metals during pregnancy is harmful to humans, with possible negative consequences both in the short and in the long-term. Exposure to these metals can occur orally (mainly through contaminated water and food) [11], by inhalation [9] or absorption through the skin [21].</p> <p>Physiological changes during pregnancy, with increased needs for specific nutrients, including trace elements, make it a unique period of vulnerability in a woman's life, with risks to the health of the pregnant woman and the fetus [1].</p> <p>Heavy metals do not have a specific biochemical role in the human body and, on the contrary, systemic exposure to these elements, even at very low levels, can have a great toxicological impact [1]. This is particularly true in crucial period of fetal life, making it very relevant to study the possible impacts of those metals on pregnancy and the health of the newborn.”</p>			

Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based	37
<p>“This article was supported by national funds through FCT Fundação para a Ciência e a Technology, I.P., within the scope of the projects “RISE -</p>			

LA/P/0053/2020"; CINTESIS, R&D Unit (reference UIDB/4255/2020) and LAQV (references: UIDB/50006/2020 and UIDP/50006/2020a). Virgínia Cruz Fernandes was funded through FCT/MCTES (Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia and Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia e Ensino Superior) and ESF (European Social Fund) through NORTE 2020 (Programa Operacional Região Norte) by a Post-Doc grant (reference SFRH/BPD/109153/2015). Juliana Guimarães was funded through FCT/MCTES (Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia and Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia e Ensino Superior) within CINTESIS by a doctoral grant (reference UI/BD/152087/2021)."

Author Contributions

Manuscript writing: A.D., E.K., V.F. A.A., and, B.M.; Study conception and design: E.K., C.M.C., L.F.R.A., C.C., J.C.L., and C.R.; Population recruitment: J.G., C.P., C.P., C.M., C.R., and D.P.; Data collection: J.G., C.P., C.R., and D.P.; Biochemical analyses: E.P., C.M., C.D.M., A.A., and V.C.F.; Statistical analyses: A.M.R. and C.C.D.

*Give information separately for exposed and unexposed groups.

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Biological Trace Element Research

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Submission guidelines

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Dr. Forrest H. Nielsen, Co-Editor-in-Chief

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Manuscript Submission

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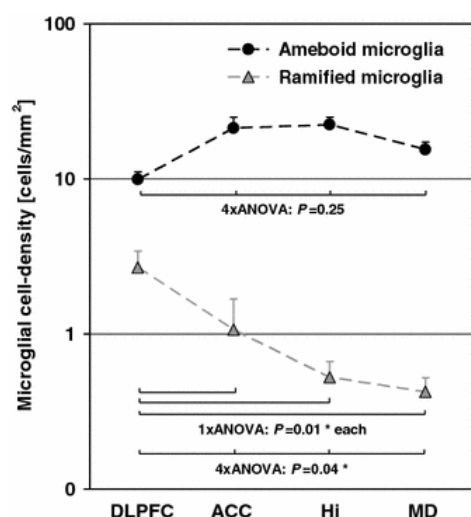
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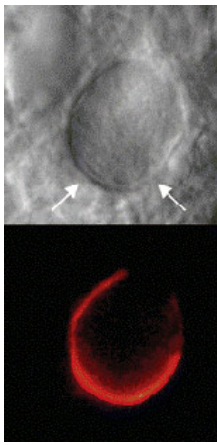
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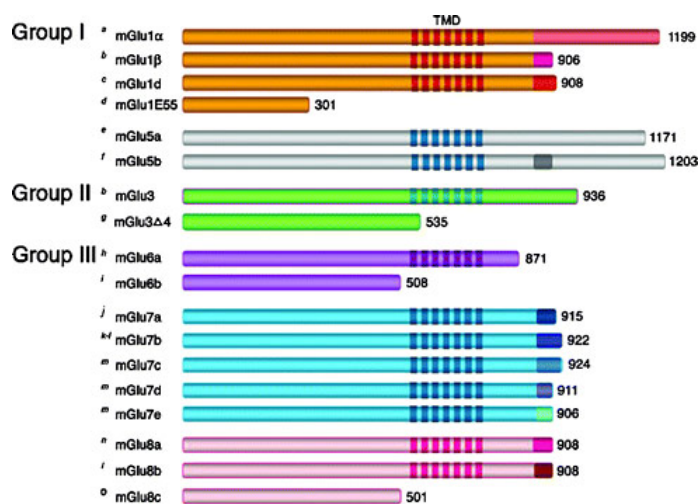
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Informed consent

All individuals have individual rights that are not to be infringed. Individual participants in studies have, for example, the right to decide what happens to the (identifiable) personal data gathered, to what they have said during a study or an interview, as well as to any photograph that was taken. This is especially true concerning images of vulnerable people (e.g. minors, patients, refugees, etc) or the use of images in sensitive contexts. In many instances authors will need to secure written consent before including images.

Identifying details (names, dates of birth, identity numbers, biometrical characteristics (such as facial features, fingerprint, writing style, voice pattern, DNA or other distinguishing characteristic) and other information) of the participants that were studied should not be published in written descriptions, photographs, and genetic profiles unless the information is essential for scholarly purposes and the participant (or parent/guardian if the participant is a minor or incapable or legal representative) gave written informed consent for publication. Complete anonymity is difficult to achieve in some cases. Detailed descriptions of individual participants, whether of their whole bodies or of body sections, may lead to disclosure of their identity. Under certain circumstances consent is not required as long as information is anonymized and the submission does not include images that may identify the person.

Informed consent for publication should be obtained if there is any doubt. For example, masking the eye region in photographs of participants is inadequate protection of anonymity. If identifying characteristics are altered to protect anonymity, such as in genetic profiles, authors should provide assurance that alterations do not distort meaning.

Exceptions where it is not necessary to obtain consent:

- Images such as x rays, laparoscopic images, ultrasound images, brain scans, pathology slides unless there is a concern about identifying information in which case, authors should ensure that consent is obtained.
- Reuse of images: If images are being reused from prior publications, the Publisher will assume that the prior publication obtained the relevant information regarding consent. Authors should provide the appropriate attribution for republished images.

Consent and already available data and/or biologic material

Regardless of whether material is collected from living or dead patients, they (family or guardian if the deceased has not made a pre-mortem decision) must have given prior written consent. The aspect of confidentiality as well as any wishes from the deceased should be respected.

Data protection, confidentiality and privacy

When biological material is donated for or data is generated as part of a research project authors should ensure, as part of the informed consent procedure, that the participants are made aware what kind of (personal) data will be processed, how it will be used and for what purpose. In case of data acquired via a biobank/biorepository, it is possible they apply a broad consent which allows research participants to consent to a broad range of uses of their data and samples which is regarded by research ethics committees as specific enough to be considered "informed". However, authors should always check the specific biobank/biorepository policies or any other type of data provider policies (in case of non-bio research) to be sure that this is the case.

Consent to Participate

For all research involving human subjects, freely-given, informed consent to participate in the study must be obtained from participants (or their parent or legal guardian in the case of children under 16) and a statement to this effect should appear in the manuscript. In the case of articles describing human transplantation studies, authors must include a statement declaring that no organs/tissues were obtained from prisoners and must also name the institution(s)/clinic(s)/department(s) via which organs/tissues were obtained. For manuscripts reporting studies involving vulnerable groups where there is the potential for

coercion or where consent may not have been fully informed, extra care will be taken by the editor and may be referred to the Springer Nature Research Integrity Group.

Consent to Publish

Individuals may consent to participate in a study, but object to having their data published in a journal article. Authors should make sure to also seek consent from individuals to publish their data prior to submitting their paper to a journal. This is in particular applicable to case studies. A consent to publish form can be found

[here. \(Download docx, 36 kB\)](#) 

Summary of requirements

The above should be summarized in a statement and placed in a 'Declarations' section before the reference list under a heading of 'Consent to participate' and/or 'Consent to publish'. Other declarations include Funding, Competing interests, Ethics approval, Consent, Data and/or Code availability and Authors' contribution statements.

Please see the various examples of wording below and revise/customize the sample statements according to your own needs.

Sample statements for **"Consent to participate"**:

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Informed consent was obtained from legal guardians.

Written informed consent was obtained from the parents.

Verbal informed consent was obtained prior to the interview.

Sample statements for **"Consent to publish"**:

The authors affirm that human research participants provided informed consent for publication of the images in Figure(s) 1a, 1b and 1c.

The participant has consented to the submission of the case report to the journal.


Patients signed informed consent regarding publishing their data and photographs.

Sample statements if identifying information about participants is available in the article:

Additional informed consent was obtained from all individual participants for whom identifying information is included in this article.

Authors are responsible for correctness of the statements provided in the manuscript. See also Authorship Principles. The Editor-in-Chief reserves the right to reject submissions that do not meet the guidelines described in this section.

Images will be removed from publication if authors have not obtained informed consent or the paper may be removed and replaced with a notice explaining the reason for removal.

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Research involving animals, their data or biological material

The welfare of animals (vertebrate and higher invertebrate) used for research, education and testing must be respected. Authors should supply detailed information on the ethical treatment of their animals in their submission. For that purpose they may use the [ARRIVE](#) checklist which is designed to be used when submitting manuscripts describing animal research.

For studies involving client-owned animals, authors must also document informed consent from the client or owner and adherence to a high standard (best practice) of veterinary care.

Authors are recommended to comply with:

- The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) [Policy Statement on Research Involving Species at Risk of Extinction](#) and consult the [IUCN red list index of threatened species](#).
- [Convention on the Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora](#)

When reporting results authors should indicate:

- ... that the studies have been approved by a research ethics committee at the institution or practice at which the studies were conducted. Please provide the name of ethics committee and relevant permit number;
- ... whether the legal requirements or guidelines in the country and/or state or province for the care and use of animals have been followed.

Researchers from countries without any legal requirements or guidelines voluntarily should refer to the following sites for guidance:

- [The Basel Declaration](#) describes fundamental principles of using animals in biomedical research
- [The International Council for Laboratory Animal Science](#) (ICLAS) provides ethical guidelines for researchers as well as editors and reviewers
- The [Association for the study of Animal Behaviour](#) describes ethical guidelines for the treatment of animals in research and teaching
- The [International Association of Veterinary Editors' Consensus Author Guidelines on Animal Ethics](#) provide guidelines for authors on animal ethics and welfare

Researchers may wish to consult the most recent (ethical) guidelines available from relevant taxon-oriented professional societies.

If a study was granted exemption or did not require ethics approval, this should also be detailed in the manuscript.

Summary of requirements

The above should be summarized in a statement and placed in a 'Declarations' section before the reference list under a heading of 'Ethics approval'.

Please see the various examples of wording below and revise/customize the sample statements according to your own needs.

Examples of statements to be used when ethics approval has been obtained:

- All procedures involving animals were in compliance with the European Community Council Directive of 24 November 1986, and ethical approval was granted by the Kocaeli University Ethics Committee (No. 29 12 2014, Kocaeli, Turkey).

- All procedures performed in the study were in accordance with the ARVO Statement for Use of Animals in Ophthalmic Vision and Research. The ethical principles established by the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH Publications No. 8523, revised 2011) were followed. The research protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Use (Protocol No. 06174/14) of FCAV/Unesp, Jaboticabal.
- This study involved a questionnaire-based survey of farmers as well as blood sampling from their animals. The study protocol was assessed and approved by Haramaya University, research and extension office. Participants provided their verbal informed consent for animal blood sampling as well as for the related survey questions. Collection of blood samples was carried out by veterinarians adhering to the regulations and guidelines on animal husbandry and welfare.
- All brown bear captures and handling were approved by the Ethical Committee on Animal Experiments, Uppsala, Sweden (Application C18/15) and the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency in compliance with Swedish laws and regulations.
- The ethics governing the use and conduct of experiments on animals were strictly observed, and the experimental protocol was approved by the University of Maiduguri Senate committee on Medical Research ethics. Proper permit and consent were obtained from the Maiduguri abattoir management, before the faecal samples of the cattle and camels slaughtered in this abattoir were used for this experiment.

Examples of statements to be used when no ethical approval is required/exemption granted:

- No approval of research ethics committees was required to accomplish the goals of this study because experimental work was conducted with an unregulated invertebrate species.
- As the trappings of small mammals were conducted as part of regular pest control measures in accordance with the NATO Standardized Agreement 2048 "Deployment Pest and Vector Surveillance and Control ", no approval by an ethics committee was required.
- All experiments have been conducted as per the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee, Department of Zoology, Utkal University, Bhubaneswar, Odisha, India. However, the insect species used in this study is reared for commercial production of raw silk materials, as a part of agro-based industry. Therefore, use of this animal in research does not require ethical clearance. We have obtained permission from the office of Research officer sericulture, Baripada, Orissa, India for the provision of infrastructure and support for rearing of silkworm both in indoor and outdoor conditions related to our study to promote sericulture practices.

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3. All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article [and its supplementary information files].
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