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4Assessment of exposure to trace metals in a cohort of pregnant women  
5from an urban center by urine analysis in the first and third trimesters of  
6pregnancy

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**36Abstract**

37        *Background:* Prenatal exposure to trace metals, whether they are essential, non-essential  
38 or toxic, must be assessed for their potential health effects in the offspring. Herein is reported a  
39 preliminary approach to this end which involved collection of urine samples during the first and  
40 third trimesters of pregnancy from 489 mothers from Sabadell (Catalonia, Spain), a highly  
41 industrialized town. These samples were analyzed for cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu),  
42 zinc (Zn), selenium (Se), arsenic (As), molybdenum (Mo), cadmium (Cd), antimony (Sb),  
43 cesium (Cs), thallium (Tl) and lead (Pb).

44        *Results:* An acid digestion method was developed and validated for Q-ICP-MS analysis  
45 of these 12 metals. The median concentrations of metals ranged from 0.13 to 290 µg/g  
46 creatinine, the highest levels were found for Zn and the lowest for Tl. The mean concentrations  
47 of most metals except As, Ni, Tl and Pb showed statistically significant differences between  
48 both trimesters. The concentrations of Mo, Se, Cd, Cs and Sb were higher in the first than in the  
49 third trimester, whereas the opposite was found for Co, Cu and Zn. The concentrations of all  
50 metals in both sampling periods showed statistically significant correlations ( $p < 0.01$  for Mo and  
51 Cu,  $p < 0.001$  for the others).

52        *Conclusions:* The significant correlations of metal urine concentrations in the first and  
53 third trimesters of pregnancy suggest that the observed differences between both periods are  
54 related to physiological changes. Accordingly, the measured urine concentrations during either  
55 the first or third trimesters can be used as estimates of exposure during pregnancy and can serve  
56 as markers for prenatal intake of these metals in the studied cohort.

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**581. Introduction**

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60 Humans are regularly exposed to metals present in air, water, food, soil and domestic  
61 materials. Although the banning of lead from petrol has proven beneficial, many other  
62 sources of potentially hazardous metals present in the human environment still remain  
63 to be controlled. Whereas certain metals are essential for life, e.g. zinc (Zn), copper  
64 (Cu) and iron (Fe), others are toxic, even at low concentrations, e.g. mercury (Hg), lead  
65 (Pb), arsenic (As), thallium (Th), chromium (Cr) or cadmium (Cd). Given the increasing  
66 use of these toxic metals in new technologies and the increasing inputs of them from  
67 road traffic and other sources, there is growing concern over the public health  
68 implications of continued exposure to them (Järup 2003; Lauwerys and Lison 1994;  
69 Rodriguez and Diaz 1995; Schulz et al. 2007; Wells et al. 2011; Zubero et al. 2010).

70       The study of metal concentrations in humans is of high interest because of the  
71 essential metabolic functionality of some of them and the toxic properties of others.  
72 Moreover, exposure to metals at the onset of life, both in the fetal period and during the  
73 first years, can be associated with negative health effects in later stages (Vahter 2008).  
74 Accordingly, assessing the exposure to a large number of metals, particularly in the  
75 earliest stages of life, may provide the knowledge necessary for identifying public  
76 health problems and implementing prevention policies early on.

77       Mothers constitute a source of heavy metals for their infants during pregnancy  
78 and lactation. However, only a few studies on prenatal exposure to trace metals have  
79 been published, most of which focused on a small number of these elements (Messiha et  
80 al., 1988; Vahter et al., 2008; Wright and Baccarelli 2007; Al-Saleh et al. 2011; Kippler  
81 et al. 2009; Shirai et al. 2010). In some cases, animal models have been used to assess  
82 the prenatal effects of these pollutants (Liu et al. 2009; Tokar et al. 2010). However,  
83 specific measurements at the individual level can enable a better understanding of the

84 possible influence of exposure to metals on health. Such measurements also facilitate  
85 the identification of sources and routes of metal contamination at both individual and  
86 the general population levels. These aspects are even more important when dealing with  
87 prenatal exposure.

88       Unfortunately, there are no generally accepted methods for physiologically  
89 assessing exposure to metals. Urine is the preferred source of information for heavy  
90 metals biomonitoring, can be collected without invasive methods and has been widely  
91 used in large environmental studies such as the German Environmental Survey for  
92 Children (GerES) and the National Health and Nutrition Examination (NHANES)  
93 (Esteban and Castaño 2009). However, one basic requirement for biomonitoring of  
94 metals with urine analysis concerns the reproducibility of different urine measurements  
95 from each individual in samples collected at different time periods. This aspect is  
96 particularly significant for women during pregnancy in which children are in-utero  
97 exposed to metals and other compounds by maternal transmission. Thus, analysis of  
98 metals in urine collected at different pregnancy periods may provide useful information  
99 for assessment of the efficacy of the use of urine samples as exposure markers.

100       Therefore, the objectives of this study are: i) to develop an analytical method  
101 using acid digestion prior to analysis by inductively coupled plasma quadruple mass  
102 spectrometry (Q-ICP-MS) for the simultaneous analysis of 12 metals in maternal urine  
103 and ii) to determine the concentrations of 12 metals, namely cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni),  
104 Cu, Zn, selenium (Se), As, molybdenum (Mo), Cd, antimonium (Sb), cesium (Cs), Th  
105 and Pb, in urine samples of pregnant women living in a highly industrialized urban  
106 town (Sabadell, Catalonia, Spain), which were collected during their first and third  
107 trimester of pregnancy. This approach affords an assessment of the steadiness of the  
108 concentrations of these metals in urine during the pregnancy period and their usefulness  
109 for epidemiological studies, maternal and prenatal exposure estimates.

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## 1112. **Materials and methods**

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### 1132.1. **Urine samples**

114As part of the INMA research network (Childhood and Environment) (Guxens et al.  
1152012) 657 pregnant women were recruited in their 12th week medical visit in the Sant  
116Fèlix Primary Care Center II (Sabadell), between 2004 and 2006. Recruitment involved  
117only those women that lived in Sabadell, were older than 16 years, had a singleton  
118pregnancy, volunteered for the program and wanted to give birth at the Hospitals of  
119Sabadell or Terrassa (a nearby city). Women suffering from chronic diseases, having  
120impaired communication or that become pregnant by assisted reproduction were  
121excluded. After obtaining the consent from the admitted women, questionnaires were  
122administered by trained interviewers in the 12th and 32th weeks of pregnancy.

123       Urine samples were collected in 100 mL polypropylene containers in the first  
124and third trimester of pregnancy from 489 pregnant women of this cohort. The samples  
125were stored in polyethylene tubes at -20°C until further processing. This research project  
126was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the CREAL. To maintain  
127confidentiality, participant information was encoded.

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### 1292.2. **Analysis of urine samples**

130Prior to Q-ICP-MS analysis, the samples were digested and diluted to oxidize and  
131remove organic matter and to minimize the concentrations of inorganic solids (Castillo  
132et al. 2008; Krachler 1996). Three mL of each urine sample, 3 mL of Instra-Analysed  
13365% HNO<sub>3</sub> (J.T. Baker, Germany) and 1.5 mL of Instra-Analysed 30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Baker)  
134were introduced in Teflon vessels. The mixtures were left in an oven at 90°C overnight.  
135After cooling, the vessels were opened and then placed on a heating plate at 250°C to

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136evaporate off the nitric acid. Once dried, the resulting solid samples were dissolved in 3  
137mL of 4% HNO<sub>3</sub>, placed in 7 mL glass bottles and subsequently stored in a refrigerator  
138until instrumental analysis. Before analysis, an internal standard of 10 ppb of In was  
139introduced and depending on sample density they were diluted to 30 mL or 60 mL with  
140MilliQ water to avoid non-spectral interference.

141 Q-ICP-MS analysis was performed by an X-SERIES II (Thermo Fisher  
142Scientific) instrument. Specific isotope ions for Co and Ni were selected in order to  
143avoid potential calcium interferences from the sample matrix. Cl atoms may also  
144potentially interfere in the determination of As and Se. In these cases the  
145collision/reaction cell technique should be added to the instrumental methods but no  
146interferences were observed in the present samples and these cells were not used.  
147Instrumental limit of detection (LOD) for all metals was 0.2 ng/mL attending to the  
148most reliable lowest calibration point. The two samples corresponding to the first and  
149third trimesters of each subject were digested and analyzed at the same time. One  
150MilliQ water blank was processed in each batch of samples to control for possible  
151contamination. If there was any contamination, thorough cleaning of all material was  
152performed and digestion was repeated. Field samples were also obtained by analysis of  
153Milli Q water which was previously stored in the containers used for maternal urine  
154bottles and transported together with the samples.

155 A Bio-Rad Level 1 (Lyphochek Urine Metals Control 1-69131; Marnes-la-  
156Coquette, France) urine reference was extensively used to evaluate the developed  
157methodology, as it contains metal concentrations close to those in the urine samples  
158from the study cohort. This reference material provided certified values for As, Cd, Co,  
159Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, Tl, Zn and Se. Prior to digestion, the lyophilized reference urine  
160samples were reconstituted with 25 mL of MilliQ water as recommended by the  
161manufacturer.

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162 All glassware and polypropylene material was thoroughly cleaned by soaking in  
163 10% nitric acid for 24 h, followed by rinsing three times with MilliQ water. The Teflon  
164 vessels were cleaned after each use by rinsing with 10% nitric acid three times, and,  
165 following the last rinse, leaving them in the oven at 90°C overnight. Finally, the vessels  
166 were rinsed with a large volume of MilliQ water.

167 Creatinine was determined at the Echevarne laboratory of Barcelona by the Jaffé  
168 method (kinetic with target measurement, compensated method) with Beckman  
169 Coulter© reactive in AU5400 (IZASA®).

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#### 171 2.4. Statistical analyses

172 Descriptive statistical parameters were initially computed. Values for mean, standard  
173 deviation (SD), median and P91 were calculated for the metal concentrations. Normality  
174 was checked by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The metal concentrations between the  
175 first and the third trimesters were compared using Spearman correlations and paired  
176 Mann-Whitney hypothesis tests. The individual ratios between the metal concentrations  
177 during the third and first trimesters were also calculated. Mean, standard deviation and  
178 median values for these ratios were computed. All statistical analyses were performed  
179 using Stata 12.0 software (Stata Corporation, College Station, Texas).

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### 181 3. Results

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#### 183 3.1. Population characteristics

184 The median age of the mothers at the time of their last menstrual period was 31 years,  
185 ranging between 20 and 40 years. Their mean body mass index before pregnancy was  
186 23.77 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (standard deviation 4.53 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, median 22.44 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, range 16.69-40.77  
187 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Overweight and obese women encompassed 18.1% and 8.4%, respectively. The

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188proportion of primiparous mothers was 49%, 41% had another infant and 10.2% had  
189more than two infants.

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### 1913.2. Method validation

192The developed analytical method was tested by analysis of the aforementioned  
193reference material. The analyses were performed in different time periods, on three  
194replicates per period (Table 1). The observed mean results are within the acceptable  
195range of assigned values. The average concentrations of some metals, such as Cd, were  
196close to the lower limit. The relative standard deviations varied between 5% (As and  
197Cd) and 18% (Zn). Repeatability ranged between 1% (As) and 17% (Zn).

198Reproducibility ranged between 1% (Tl) and 17% (Cu; Table 1).

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### 2003.3. Metal concentrations

201The metal concentrations and statistics of the samples collected in the first and third  
202trimester normalized to creatinine content ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) are shown in Table 2. The  
203metal concentrations were not normally distributed but skewed to the right in both  
204trimesters.

205 Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Mo, Cd, Cs and Pb were detected in more than 90% of  
206samples, whereas Co and Sb were detected in more than 65% in the first and the third  
207trimester (Table 2). Tl was the only element detected in less than 20% of the samples.  
208The differences in metal concentrations between the urine samples collected in both  
209periods were statistically significant for all metals except Ni, As, Tl and Pb (median  
210values: 32 (1st)/35 (3rd)  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine for As, 3.9/3.9 for Ni, 0.14/0.13 for Tl, 3.8/3.9  
211for Pb; Table 2). The concentrations of Co, Cu and Zn were higher during the third  
212trimester (median values: 0.45 (1st)/1.3 (3rd)  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine for Co, 12/15 for Cu,  
213256/290 for Zn; Table 2). The opposite was found for the concentrations of Mo, Se, Cd,



214Sb and Cs (median values: 55 (1st)/44 (3rd)  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine for Mo, 10/8.7 for Se,  
2150.61/0.54 for Cd, 0.36/0.28 for Sb and 8.0/6.8 for Cs; Table 2).

216 Consistently with these differences, comparison of the individual concentrations  
217revealed that more mothers had higher concentrations of Se, Mo, Cd, Sb, Cs and Tl in  
218the first than in the third trimester (53-64%; Table 3). On the other hand, more mothers  
219exhibited higher concentrations of Co, Ni, Cu and Zn in the third than in the first  
220trimester (55-82%; Table 3). The concentration ratios between the third and first  
221trimesters were consistent with these observed differences (Table 3). Co, Cu and Zn  
222showed the higher third-first trimester median concentration ratios and Mo, Se, Cd and  
223Sb had the lower.

224 The first and third trimester concentrations of all metals were significantly  
225correlated (Table 3). The Spearman coefficients ranged between 0.16 (Mo) and 0.60  
226(Zn). The degree of significance of these correlations was  $p < 0.001$  in most cases (Co,  
227Ni, Zn, Se, As, Cd, Sb, Cs and Pb) and  $p < 0.01$  in others (Cu, Mo).

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## 2294. Discussion

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### 2314.1. Concentrations of trace metals in the Sabadell cohort

232The median concentrations found in the Sabadell cohort ( $n = 489$ ) were compared with  
233those reported in previous studies worldwide (Table 4). Most literature data are reported  
234in  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine but in some cases they are reported in  $\mu\text{g/L}$  (Afridi et al. 2009; Link et  
235al. 2007; Minoia et al. 1990; Callan et al., 2013). Despite these unit differences, in  
236healthy populations the average values measured using either of these two methods  
237generally differed by less than 10% (NHANES 2009). Thus, all results in Table 4 should  
238be comparable. Most previous studies have dealt with the general population; only a few  
239specifically encompass pregnant women as in the present study, such as those from

240Pakistan (Afridi et al. 2009), Korea (Moon et al. 2003) or Germany (Callan et al. 2013).

241Accordingly, it should be taken into account that, once levels are normalized to

242creatinine content, the values for women tend to be higher than those for men

243(NHANES 2009; Schuhmacher et al. 1994). Furthermore, pregnancy may involve

244increases or decreases in the concentrations of certain metals, as discussed later.

245 The concentrations of Ni and As were higher than those reported in previous

246studies (Link et al., 2007; Ohashi et al., 2006; NHANES 2009; Banza et al., 2009;

247Alimonti et al., 2000; Seifert et al., 2000; Minoia et al., 1990; Callan et al., 2013; Table

2484). On the other hand, Zn, Se and Tl showed lower urine concentrations in Sabadell than

249in studies from other population groups (Banza et al., 2009; Paschal et al., 1998;

250Schuhmacher et al., 1994; Minoia et al., 1990; Afridi et al., 2009; Callan et al., 2013;

251Table 4). The other metals showed intermediate concentrations when comparing with

252previous studies.

253 The median concentrations of Co in the first trimester, 0.45  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine, were

254intermediate between those reported in previous studies (Table 4) but those in the third

255trimester, 1.3  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine, were higher than in most previous studies except one from

256a mining polluted area of Congo (mean 15.7  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) (Banza et al. 2009) and

257were similar to those described in a maternal population from Australia (Callan et al.,

2582013). The strong difference in the concentrations of this metal in the first and third

259trimesters of pregnancy levels is consistent with a significant increase in Co excretion

260during pregnancy. These concentrations during the last stage of pregnancy may not be

261comparable to those from general population.

262 The observed concentrations of Pb, 3.8-3.9  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine (Table 4), were

263significantly lower than those reported in populations from Italy from a time period in

264which Pb was still used as additive in gasoline, 17  $\mu\text{g/L}$  (Minoia et al. 1990), or Korea

265(5.1  $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine; Moon et al. 2003). However, they were higher than those recently

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266reported in the US, 0.63-0.72 µg/g creatinine (NHANES 2009), or 1.9 µg/g creatinine  
267(Paschal et al. 1998). These concentrations were consistent with the effects of Pb  
268withdrawal from gasoline, although the Sabadell levels may be consistent with predicted  
269increases of Pb mobilization from the bone tissues during pregnancy (Gulson et al.  
2702004).

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#### 2724.2. Comparison of levels in the first and third trimesters

273Some previous studies have considered changes in metal concentrations during  
274pregnancy but they essentially compared blood or serum samples and only analyzed a  
275few metals such as Cu and Zn (Huang et al. 1999; Liu et al. 2010; Izquierdo-Álvarez et  
276al. 2007; Hernandez et al. 1996), Se, Cu and Zn (Kilinc et al. 2010) or Pb and Cd  
277(Bonithon-Kopp et al. 1986). A very small number of studies on metals during  
278pregnancy have considered urine samples, e.g. As (Gardner et al. 2010) or Cd  
279(Hernandez et al. 1996). Thus, there is limited precedent with which to compare the  
280findings of the present study.

281 As mentioned above, the concentrations of all metals except Ni, As, Th and Pb  
282were statistically different between the first and third trimesters. Most of the metals with  
283differences between the two stages of pregnancy showed higher concentrations in the  
284urine collected in the first trimester than in the third trimester, except in the case of Co,  
285Cu and Zn. Some previous studies considering the Zn and Cu in plasma or blood  
286samples also found significant differences in concentration at different periods of  
287pregnancy (Izquierdo-Álvarez et al. 2007; Liu et al. 2010; Hernandez et al. 1996),  
288although in one study on Zn, no difference was found (Huang et al. 1999). On the  
289contrary, no significant differences for Se in serum samples during pregnancy were  
290observed in a southeastern Mediterranean region of Turkey (Kilinc et al. 2010) nor for  
291Cd in Aragon (Spain) (Izquierdo-Álvarez et al. 2007) or Southern Catalonia (Spain)

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292(Hernandez et al., 1996), while significant differences in the concentrations of these  
293metals in the first and the third trimesters were found in our study. Some of these studies  
294did not take into account paired samples of the same mothers at different stages and  
295they involved a lower number of samples.

296 Different changes and adaptations occur in the women during pregnancy, such as  
297increase of plasma volume. This may explain why most metals show a decrease in  
298concentration during pregnancy. However, despite of this higher volume the  
299concentrations of some minerals and vitamins also increase (King 2000). These  
300metabolic changes may also influence the amount of metal released into urine. For  
301instance, the increase in glomerular filtration rate during pregnancy has been related  
302with observed concentration increments of Zn in urine during this maternal period  
303(Swanson and King 1987). This observation is also consistent with the increase of Zn  
304between the first and third trimesters found in the Sabadell cohort (Table 2) and could  
305also explain the significant increases of other metals such as Co and Cu (Table 2). In  
306any case, there must be specific factors affecting each metal separately that must be  
307considered in specific studies. This is the first study in which differences in exposure  
308during pregnancy have been studied for a large number of metals over a large number of  
309paired samples (n = 489).

310 The concentrations of trace metals in urine collected in the first and third  
311trimesters of pregnancy were significantly correlated in all metals studied, with high  
312statistical significance in most cases. These significant correlations likely reflect an  
313absence of major changes in metal exposure during pregnancy and the differences  
314between both trimesters observed for most metals may reflect metabolic changes during  
315this period. Accordingly, the findings from this studied cohort indicate that the  
316measurements of these trace metals at any stage of pregnancy provide a representative  
317estimate of the exposure to these compounds during the whole period. Sampling in

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318specific stages may be chosen according to logistics or specific study purposes and the  
319observed concentrations must always be interpreted in reference to this selected phase.

320

### 3215. **Conclusions**

322Exposure to metals in pregnant women has been assessed from their urine composition  
323collected in the first and third trimesters of pregnancy using a newly developed  
324digestion protocol for Q-ICP-MS analysis. All metals except Ni, As, Th and Pb showed  
325statistically significant concentration differences between these two periods. The  
326concentrations of all metals in the first and third trimesters were significantly correlated  
327which reflect the absence of major changes of metal inputs in the studied women during  
328pregnancy. The significant concentration differences between these two sampling  
329periods may respond to metabolic pregnancy changes. Accordingly, the measurements  
330of the studied trace metals in urine provide representative estimates of exposure during  
331the whole pregnancy period.

332

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479 **Table 1.** Concentrations obtained with the developed method for analysis of trace  
 480 metals in urine samples in the analysis of Bio-Rad Level 1 urine reference standard  
 481 (ng/mL).

Element	Reference value	Acceptable range (20%)	All values	Repeatability		Reproducibility		
			Mean $\pm$ SD <sup>a</sup>	RSD <sup>b</sup>	Mean $\pm$ SD <sup>b</sup>	RSD <sup>b</sup>	Mean $\pm$ SD <sup>c</sup>	RSD <sup>b</sup>
As	65	52 - 78	59 $\pm$ 3.1	5%	58 $\pm$ 0.35	1%	56 $\pm$ 2.0	4%
Cd	9.0	7.2 - 11	7.2 $\pm$ 0.37	5%	7.1 $\pm$ 0.11	2%	7.2 $\pm$ 0.55	8%
Co	6.8	5.4 - 8.2	6.8 $\pm$ 0.67	10%	6.8 $\pm$ 0.67	10%	6.5 $\pm$ 0.75	12%
Cu	10	8.1 - 12	10 $\pm$ 1.5	16%	9.4 $\pm$ 0.81	9%	10 $\pm$ 1.7	17%
Ni	4.5	2.3 - 6.7	4.0 $\pm$ 0.6	16%	4.3 $\pm$ 0.8	18%	3.6 $\pm$ 0.36	10%
Pb	14	11 - 16	14 $\pm$ 1.6	11%	14 $\pm$ 2.2	15%	13 $\pm$ 1.6	13%
Sb	9.5	7.5 - 11	9.7 $\pm$ 1.3	13%	9.1 $\pm$ 0.81	9%	10 $\pm$ 0.4	4%
Se	72	57 - 86	69 $\pm$ 7.5	11%	69 $\pm$ 7.5	11%	69 $\pm$ 7.5	11%
Tl	8.5	6.8 - 10	8.4 $\pm$ 0.52	6%	8.0 $\pm$ 0.22	3%	8.3 $\pm$ 0.09	1%
Zn	381	305 - 457	363 $\pm$ 67	18%	370 $\pm$ 65	17%	305 $\pm$ 19	6%

482<sup>a</sup>mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (n = 8) .<sup>b</sup> RSD: relative standard deviation (in %)

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**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics of the concentrations of trace metals in the maternal urine samples collected in the first and third trimesters of pregnancy ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine). p-value for difference according to Mann-Whitney paired test

	% Detected		Mean (SD)		Median		P90		p-value
	1 <sup>st</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	
Co	73.6	84.4	0.73 (1.4)	1.6 (2.5)	0.45	1.3	1.4	2.9	p < 0.001
Ni	98.4	98.1	4.9 (5.3)	4.8 (4.5)	3.9	3.9	9.0	8.6	
Cu	100	100	14 (11)	17 (13)	12	15	24	30	p < 0.001
Zn	100	100	315 (313)	342 (224)	256	290	552	631	p < 0.001
Se	99.8	99.3	12 (11)	9.9 (6.3)	10	8.7	20	16	p < 0.001
As	99.8	99.8	69 (120)	62 (79)	32	35	147	136	
Mo	100	100	64 (49)	50 (32)	55	44	106	81	p < 0.001
Cd	90.1	87.5	0.77 (0.79)	0.67 (0.48)	0.61	0.54	1.3	1.3	p < 0.01
Sb	73.7	64.8	0.81 (1.7)	0.56 (2.0)	0.36	0.28	1.4	0.84	p < 0.001
Cs	100	100	9.3 (11)	7.4 (4.1)	8.0	6.8	13	11	p < 0.001
Tl	19.7	17.2	0.18 (0.16)	0.18 (0.43)	<LOD	<LOD	0.30	0.30	
Pb	98.9	100	4.8 (4.3)	5.2 (4.9)	3.8	3.9	8.1	8.9	

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**Table 3.** Comparisons of the metal concentrations in maternal urine collected in the first and third trimesters of pregnancy ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine)

	Spearman coefficients of the correlations	Concentration ratios between the 3 <sup>rd</sup> and 1 <sup>st</sup> trimestres		Concentrations in the 3 <sup>rd</sup> and 1 <sup>st</sup> trimesters	
		Mean (SD)	Median	% 3rd > 1st	% 1st > 3rd
Co	0.39***	4.5 (7.0)	2.2	84	16
Ni	0.39***	1.4 (2.0)	1.1	55	45
Cu	0.21**	1.6 (1.3)	1.2	62	38
Zn	0.60***	1.3 (1.0)	1.1	59	41
Se	0.43***	0.97 (0.71)	0.84	37	63
As	0.24***	2.6 (4.6)	1.1	52	48
Mo	0.16**	1.0 (1.1)	0.80	36	64
Cd	0.57***	1.1 (0.87)	0.92	42	57
Sb	0.40***	1.6 (6.7)	0.75	38	62
Cs	0.26***	0.97 (0.61)	0.89	37	63
Tl	0.22***	1.3 (2.6)	0.91	46	53
Pb	0.46***	1.4 (1.3)	1.0	50	50

\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\*\* p-value < 0.001

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**Table 4.** Comparison of trace metal concentrations from the Sabadell cohort and previous studies (concentrations in µg/g creatinine unless otherwise indicated)

Reference	Sampling Years	Location	N	Co	Ni	As	Zn	Sb	Cd	Pb	Cu	Cs	Tl	Se
Present work <sup>a</sup>	2004-06	Sabadell – 1st trim	489	0.45	3.9	32	256	0.36	0.61	3.8	12	8.0	0.13	10
Present work <sup>a</sup>	2004-06	Sabadell – 3rd trim	489	1.3	3.9	35	290	0.28	0.54	3.9	15	6.8	0.13	8.7
Link et al., 2007 <sup>a</sup>	2002-03	South Germany	500	...	...	4.6 <sup>d</sup>	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
NHANES report, 2009 <sup>a</sup>	1999-00	USA (99-00)	2500	0.35	...	...	...	0.12	0.18	0.72	...	4.1	...	...
NHANES report, 2009 <sup>a</sup>	2001-02	USA (01-02)	2500	0.36	...	...	...	0.13	0.20	0.64	...	4.5	...	...
NHANES report, 2009 <sup>a</sup>	2003-04	USA (03-04)	2500	0.31	...	8.2	...	...	0.21	0.63	...	4.6	...	...
Ohashi et al., 2006 <sup>b</sup>	2000-05	Japan	1000	0.60	1.8	...	...	...	...	...	13	...	...	...
Banza et al., 2009 <sup>b</sup>	2006-07	DR Congo	179	15.7	3.3	18	306	0.07	0.75	3.2	17	...	...	17
Paschal et al., 1998 <sup>b</sup>	1988-94	USA	496	0.78	...	...	...	0.67	...	1.9	...	1.0	0.24	...
Moon et al., 2003 <sup>b</sup>	2000	Korea	38	...	...	...	...	...	1.6	5.1	...	...	...	...
Batárióvá et al. 2006	2001-03	Czech Republic	160	...	...	...	...	...	0.33	...	...	...	...	...
Alimonti et al. 2000 <sup>b</sup>	nr	Rome	131	...	0.39	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Schuhmacher et al., 1994 <sup>b</sup>	nr	Tarragona	434	...	...	...	699	...	...	...	27	...	...	...
Seifert et al., 2000 <sup>b</sup>	1990-92	Germany (1990/92)	4000	...	...	4.6	...	...	0.21	...	9.5	...	...	...
Zubero et al., 2008 <sup>b</sup>	2006-08	Bizkaia	29	...	...	...	...	...	0.36	...	...	...	...	...
Minoia et al., 1990 <sup>b</sup>	nr	Italy	11-900	0.57 <sup>d</sup>	0.9 <sup>d</sup>	17 <sup>d</sup>	456 <sup>d</sup>	0.79 <sup>d</sup>	0.86 <sup>d</sup>	17 <sup>d</sup>	23	...	0.42 <sup>d</sup>	22 <sup>d</sup>
Afridi et al., 2009 <sup>c</sup>	nr	Pakistan	93 (pregnant)	...	...	...	1150 <sup>d</sup>	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Afridi et al., 2009 <sup>c</sup>	Nr	Pakistan	115 (non pregnant)	...	...	...	850 <sup>d</sup>	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Callan et al., 2013 <sup>ad</sup>	2008-11	Australia	173	1.2	2.3	13	396	...	...	...	...	10.4	...	26
Hinwood et al., 2013 <sup>ae</sup>	2008-11	Australia	173	...	...	...	...	...	<0.3	0.7	...	...	...	...

<sup>a</sup>Median. <sup>b</sup>Geometric mean. <sup>c</sup>Arithmetic mean. <sup>d</sup>µg/L. <sup>e</sup>Pregnant women (3<sup>rd</sup> trimester)