



HAL
open science

Prenatal mercury contamination: relationship with maternal seafood consumption during pregnancy and fetal growth in the 'EDEN mother-child' cohort.

Peggy Drouillet-Pinard, Guy Huel, Rémy Slama, Anne Forhan, Josiane Sahuquillo, Valérie Goua, Olivier Thiébauges, Bernard Foliguet, Guillaume Magnin, Monique Kaminski, et al.

► To cite this version:

Peggy Drouillet-Pinard, Guy Huel, Rémy Slama, Anne Forhan, Josiane Sahuquillo, et al.. Prenatal mercury contamination: relationship with maternal seafood consumption during pregnancy and fetal growth in the 'EDEN mother-child' cohort.: Hg exposure from seafood and fetal growth. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2010, 104 (8), pp.1096-100. 10.1017/S0007114510001947 . inserm-00560924

HAL Id: inserm-00560924

<https://inserm.hal.science/inserm-00560924>

Submitted on 31 Jan 2011

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Prenatal mercury contamination: relation with maternal seafood consumption during pregnancy and fetal growth in the “EDEN mother-child” cohort

5 **Peggy Drouillet-Pinard**^{1,2,*}, Guy Huel^{1,2}, R Slama^{3,4}, Anne Forhan^{1,2}, J Sahuquillo^{1,2}, Valérie Goua⁵, Olivier Thiébauges⁶, Bernard Foliguet⁶, Guillaume Magnin⁵, Monique Kaminski^{7,8}, Sylvaine Cordier^{9,10,11}, Marie-Aline Charles^{1,2}

Authors' affiliations

10 ¹ *Inserm, CESP Centre for research in Epidemiology and Population Health, U1018, Team 'Epidemiology of obesity, diabetes and renal disease over the lifecourse', Villejuif, France*

15 ² *Université Paris Sud 11, UMRS 1018, Villejuif, France*

³ *INSERM, Unit 823, Grenoble, France*

⁴ *Univ J Fourier Grenoble, Grenoble, France*

⁵ *Univ Poitiers, Gynaecology and obstetric department, Poitiers, France*

⁶ *Univ Nancy, Regional maternity, Nancy, France*

20 ⁷ *INSERM, Unit 149, Villejuif, France*

⁸ *Univ Paris-VI, Paris, France*

⁹ *INSERM, Unit 625, Rennes, France*

¹⁰ *IFR140, GERHM, Rennes, France*

¹¹ *Univ Rennes I, Beaulieu campus, Rennes, France*

25

***Correspondance:** Marie-Aline Charles

16 avenue Paul Vaillant Couturier. 94807 Villejuif cedex. France

Telephone: 33 1 45 59 51 05 / FAX: 33 1 47 26 94 54

30

E-mail: marie-aline.charles@inserm.fr

Running title: Hg exposure from seafood and fetal growth

SUMMARY

Background: Maternal seafood intake is of great health interest since it constitutes an important source of n-3 fatty acids, but provides also an important pathway for fetal exposure to mercury (Hg). **Objectives:** To determine associations between Hg contamination and both maternal seafood consumption and fetal growth in French pregnant women. **Design:** Pregnant women included in the “EDEN mother-child” cohort study answered food frequency questionnaires on their usual diet in the year before and during the last three months of pregnancy, from which frequencies of seafood intake were evaluated. Total hair-Hg level was determined for the first 691 included women. Associations between Hg level, seafood intake and several neonatal measurements were studied using linear regressions adjusted for confounding variables. **Results:** The median Hg level for mothers was 0.52 µg/g. Maternal seafood intake was associated with Hg level ($r=0.33$, $p<0.0001$). There was no association between Hg level and fetal growth in the whole sample of women, except for an early negative relation with biparietal diameter. A positive association was found between seafood intake and fetal growth in overweight women only which remained unchanged after adjustment for Hg level (birthweight: +101g for a difference of 1SD in seafood consumption, $p=0.008$). **Conclusions:** Although seafood intake was associated with Hg contamination in French pregnant women, the contamination level was low. There was no consistent association between Hg level and fetal growth. Taking into account Hg level did not modify associations between seafood intake and fetal growth.

Keywords: Mercury, seafood consumption, prenatal exposure, fetal growth.

INTRODUCTION

Human exposure to Methylmercury (MeHg) occurs mainly via consumption of fish⁽¹⁻⁵⁾. As MeHg is transferred to the children through placenta, maternal exposition represents a risk for the offspring⁽⁶⁻⁷⁾. Adverse health effects following prenatal exposure to MeHg have been described from several prospective cohort studies conducted in fish-eating population: low mean birthweight in Greenland⁽⁸⁾, adverse neuropsychological and behavioural effects in Faroe Islands⁽⁹⁻¹⁰⁾, risk of preterm delivery in Michigan⁽¹¹⁾.

Nevertheless, in the Seychelles Child development Study⁽¹²⁻¹⁴⁾, no adverse effects of MeHg exposure had been found. The first hypothesis to explain these controversial results was the different level of contamination of the study populations, the second was a difference in the kind of fish consumed which resulting in differences in nutrients intake (n-3 Fatty Acids (FA))⁽¹²⁾, selenium and other contaminants exposure (PCBs).

Fish is also known to have beneficial effects on fetal growth since it provides PUFA, especially n-3FA. In both epidemiologic⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁹⁾ and intervention studies⁽²⁰⁻²¹⁾ mainly performed in women from Denmark and the Faroe Islands, intake of seafood or marine n-3FA by pregnant women was associated with an increased birthweight explained by both a prolonged duration of pregnancy and increased fetal growth rate. In the “EDEN mother-child” cohort, we have found a positive association between seafood consumption before pregnancy and fetal growth limited to overweight women⁽²²⁾.

The public is faced with seemingly conflicting reports on the risks and benefits of seafood intake, resulting in controversery and confusion over the place of fish consumption in a healthy diet. Only recently, few studies in this field have focused on contaminant risks in the same time as nutrient benefits related to fish intake although both risk affect the same outcomes and are derived from the same foods⁽²³⁻²⁶⁾. Some recent studies hypothesized a confounding role of maternal nutrition in the assessment of Hg risk⁽²⁷⁻²⁸⁾ suggest opposite effect of maternal seafood intake and Hg exposure⁽²⁹⁻³⁰⁾.

30 Objectives

To further explore the relationship between seafood consumption prior to pregnancy and fetal growth reported in the “EDEN mother-child” cohort^(22,31), the aim of the present analysis was, in the same French population, to study 1) the association between seafood consumption and Hg contamination, 2) potential risks of Hg exposure on fetal growth, 3) whether relationships

between seafood consumption and fetal growth was modified after taking into account Hg and selenium exposure.

METHODS

Population and study design

Pregnant (n=2002) women were recruited in the University Hospitals of Nancy and Poitiers
5 before 24 weeks of amenorrhea (WA). Standard ultrasound fetal measurements were recorded
from routine examinations at 20-24 and 30-34 WA. Prepregnancy body mass index (pBMI)
was computed as reported weight (kg) / measured height squared (m²). According to
references of the International Obesity Task Force, overweight was defined as a BMI \leq 25
kg/m² or more and obesity as a BMI \leq 30kg/m². Birthweight and length were extracted from
10 the hospital record. Head circumference (in duplicate) and tricipital and subscapular skinfolds
(in triplicate) were performed on the newborn after delivery (1.8 days (range 0-16)), and
averaged. Standard ultrasound fetal measurements were recorded from routine examinations
performed between 20-24 and 30-34 WG. Measurements included biparietal diameter, head
and abdominal circumferences and femur length.

15 The study was approved by the Ethic Committee of the Bicêtre Hospital. Written consents
were obtained from the mother for herself at inclusion and for her newborn child after
delivery.

Dietary assessment

20 Mothers completed two food frequency questionnaires: at inclusion, about diet in the year
prior to pregnancy; after birth, about their diet in the last three months of pregnancy. We
combined responses to the six questions that inquired about seafood consumption: 'At which
frequency did you eat': (1) fresh or frozen fish (bought unprocessed), (2) oily fish, (3) smoked
or salted fish, (4) breaded fish, (5) dishes containing fish, and (6) shellfish. We generated an
25 average frequency of seafood servings per month for each woman, by weighing each
frequency with the midpoint of the category (i.e. 2 for the category 1-3 servings/month).
Information about the type of fish was asked only in women who were regular eaters (more
than 1 time/month). Regular fish eaters consumed both fatty and lean fish and we were not
able to contrast women according to this characteristic.

30

Determination of Hg exposure

Determination of heavy metal exposure was planned for the first 700 women included in the
cohort for cost reason. Hair samples were stored until analysis at room temperature. Chemical
analyses were carried out at TOXILABO (Nantes, France), by cold-vapor atomic absorption

spectrometry (Zeeman Perkin-Elmer AA600) for 691 mothers and only 87 newborns due to low hair mass. When hair mass was under 10mg for mothers and 7mg for newborns, measures were considered too inaccurate and were not taken into account. For samples of 82 women and 66 newborns with Hg levels too low to be detected, we arbitrarily attributed half of the limit level detectable with the hair mass. Hg concentration (expressed in micrograms per gram) was log transformed because of a skewed distribution.

Determination of Se concentration

Frozen samples at -80°C were thawed for Se measurements. Se concentrations in blood (expressed in micrograms per liter) were determined by fluorometric method which involves the reaction of 2,3-diaminonaphthalene (DAN) with Se(IV) to form a fluorescent Se/DAN piaszelenol.

Variable description and statistical analyses

Comparisons between groups were studied by Student's t test and correlations by Pearson's and Spearman's correlations. We studied relationships between seafood consumption before pregnancy as well as maternal Hg level and fetal growth, using multiple linear regressions adjusted for different sets of confounding variables. Most of included women were from Poitiers because this centre started recruitment earlier; therefore, comparisons were performed with adjustment for centre. Seafood consumption and Hg level were studied separately, then in the same model. We performed more analyses to evaluate impact of extreme values on the relationships; total hair-Hg level was studied in classes to separate the 15% lower levels (N1: $Hg < 0.23 \mu g/g$) and the 15% higher levels (N4: $Hg \geq 0.82 \mu g/g$) and two middle categories (N2: $[0.23-0.52]$; N3: $[0.52-0.82]$ $\mu g/g$). As BMI modified relationships between seafood intake and fetal growth (p for interaction=0.0001 for birthweight), we studied separately non-overweight and overweight women (BMI < 25 vs. ≥ 25 kg/m²). Adjustments for selenium concentration or educational level were also made.

All analyses were performed with SAS version 9.1 (Cary, N.C., USA).

RESULTS

Subjects characteristics

Among the 691 first women included in the study, 26 were excluded because of a hair's samples < 10 mg, 15 because seafood consumption was unknown and 5 because delay between birth and newborn anthropometric measures were greater than one week.

Mean pBMI was 23 kg/m²; overweight women accounted for 26.7% of included women (n=645) and 28.1% of non-included women (n=1251). There was no differences in gestational age (39.2 weeks both) or parity (54% multipare both) between included and excluded women, except that included women were slightly younger (28.7 vs. 29.2y) and more often smokers (31% vs. 27.6%) than the others. Sex ratio (boys/girls) was similar: 1.1 and 1.2 in excluded and included women respectively. Mean consumption of seafood was on average 8.4 times per month (SD=7.75) before pregnancy in both groups. No difference for newborns' measures was observed between the two groups (mean birthweight=3280g).

The median hair-Hg level for mothers and newborns were 0.52 (Interquartile Range (IR):0.30-0.82) (SD=2.6) and 0.38 (IR:0.30-0.43) (SD=0.32) µg/g respectively. As correlation was strong between levels in mothers and their offspring (r=0.43 p<0.0001 (n=87)), and fewer measures were available for newborns, analyses were made with maternal Hg level only. The median blood Se level for mothers was 97.4 µg/l (IR:81.4-114.4) (SD=26.2).

15 Correlations between maternal total-Hg level and maternal characteristics

Total hair-Hg levels were higher with age and university level, in Poitiers, and in non-smokers during pregnancy. BMI was not associated with Hg level. Spearman correlation between Hg and seafood consumption before pregnancy was 0.33 (p<0.0001) and 0.29 (p<0.0001) in the last three months of pregnancy. When the different items contributing to global seafood intake before pregnancy were considered separately, correlations with Hg contamination were stronger for “Fresh or frozen fish”, “Smoked or salted fish”, “Oily fish” and shellfish (r=0.39; 0.28; 0.20 and 0.17 respectively; p<0.0001).

Hg exposure, seafood consumption and fetal growth

25 In the whole sample of women, there was no association between maternal level of total hair-Hg and ultrasound measures as well as newborn anthropometric measures (data not shown). Only a negative association was observed between total hair-Hg level and biparietal diameter measured at 20-24 WG (decrease of 0.24 mm by 1 SD of hair-Hg, p=0.06). Seafood intake was not associated with fetal growth in all women. When both seafood consumption and Hg level were included in the model, results did not change.

In overweight women total hair-Hg level and seafood intake before pregnancy were both associated with higher newborn anthropometric measures in separate regression models. Seafood intake was also associated with increased placental weight and lower gestational

length (Table 1). However, when adjusted on seafood intake, total hair-Hg level was no longer associated with newborn anthropometric measures, whereas relationship with seafood intake remained the same. Excluding shellfish intake from the computation of seafood intake did not change the results. The association between seafood intake and lower gestational length was reinforced when adjusted for total hair-Hg level but it became non significant after exclusion of the 8 preterm births.

In non-overweight women (data not shown), total hair-Hg level tended to be negatively associated with biparietal and head circumferences at 20-24 WG (decrease of 0.29 and -1.15 mm by 1SD of hair-Hg respectively, $p < 0.06$) but not statistically significant for measures at 30-34 WG. Adjustment for seafood intake did not change these results. Seafood intake was associated with a lower birth length and head circumference, with an average decrease of 0.19 and 0.17 cm respectively for an increase of 1SD of seafood intake ($p < 0.02$), even when adjusted for total hair-Hg level.

A similar trend was observed for associations with seafood intake in the last three months of pregnancy but associations were weaker.

We performed further analyses to evaluate impact of high values total hair-Hg maternal concentrations on the relationships. The relations reported above with total hair-Hg were consistent with linear relations with no thresholds effect for extreme values (data not shown).

In our study, correlation between selenium and seafood consumption were 0.10 ($p = 0.03$) and 0.14 ($p = 0.001$) before and in the last three months of pregnancy. Correlation between maternal hair-Hg after pregnancy and blood Se during pregnancy at 24-28WA was 0.10 ($p = 0.03$). Adjustment for selenium level did not change the relation observed between total hair-Hg, seafood and fetal growth in the whole sample of women as well as in non-overweight and overweight women (Data not shown).

DISCUSSION

In our study, total hair-Hg level was associated with seafood intake, but was not associated with fetal growth.

5

The lack of association between maternal total hair-Hg level and birthweight could be explained by low mean hair-Hg level in our population (0.52 μ g/g) compared to other studies: 12.7 μ g/g in French Guiana⁽³²⁾, 12.8 μ g/g in Amazonia⁽³³⁾. Studies where prenatal Hg exposition was associated with risk for fetal growth were cases of massive intoxication. The negative relationship with biparietal diameter early in pregnancy may be a chance finding because was not confirmed with measures at 30-34WA and at birth. Alternatively, it may disclose an early alteration in the neurological developmental process. Oken *et al.*⁽²⁹⁾ found a negative effect on infant cognition when mean hair-Hg level was close to ours (0.55 μ g/g). . As Lucas *et al.*⁽²⁶⁾, we did not find association between Hg exposition and length of gestation or risk of preterm delivery whereas Xue *et al.*⁽¹¹⁾ or Ramirez *et al.*⁽³⁴⁾ found a decrease of length of gestation and risk of preterm delivery with increasing Hg contamination. However, low exposition induces low power and unstable results.

Hg was measured in hair, however, measured in blood, Hg could be a better estimation of fetal exposition as hypothesized by Grandjean & Budtz-Jorgensen⁽³⁵⁾. Problem with undetectable values could explain the differences with other studies; but similar results were found in our study when we took into account only detectable measures.

Health effects of Hg may partly be due to selenoprotein activation, which may be moderated by adequate intake of selenium⁽³⁶⁻³⁷⁾. Possible protective role of Se has been suggested in some studies to explain lack of negative effects of Hg⁽³⁸⁾. In our study, relationships between total hair-Hg and fetal growth remained unchanged after adjustment for selenium level.

In conclusion, our data do not support a detrimental effect of low maternal Hg contamination on birthweight or other newborn anthropometric measurements. Taking into account maternal Hg contamination and blood selenium impregnation did not change the observed increase in birthweight associated with seafood consumption in overweight women⁽²²⁾. The negative association between seafood intake and gestational length may be a chance finding as in most

studies, opposite or no results were reported⁽¹⁷⁻¹⁹⁾ and was not found in our previous analysis, which was not restricted to women with Hg measurements⁽²²⁾.

5 Most of the adverse effects of Hg exposure were negative effects on brain development⁽³³⁾ and neuropsychological effects⁽³²⁾. Follow-up of the children included in our study on visual and neurodevelopmental outcomes will allow evaluating the consequences for the child of maternal Hg exposure at levels currently found in France.

REFERENCES

- 1- Bjornberg KA, Vahter M, Petersson-Grawe K *et al.* (2003) Methyl mercury and inorganic mercury in Swedish pregnant women and in cord blood: influence of fish consumption.
5 *Environ. Health Perspect.* **111**, 637-641.
- 2- Mahaffey KR (2004) Fish and shellfish as dietary sources of methylmercury and the omega-3 fatty acids, eicosahexaenoic acid and docosahexaenoic acid: risks and benefits.
Environ. Res. **95**, 414-428.
- 10
- 3- Morrissette J, Takser L, St-Amour G *et al.* (2004) Temporal variation of blood and hair mercury levels in pregnancy in relation to fish consumption history in a population living along the St. Lawrence River. *Environ. Res.* **95**, 363-374.
- 15
- 4- Johnsson C, Schutz A & Sallsten G (2005) Impact of consumption of freshwater fish on mercury levels in hair, blood, urine, and alveolar air. *J. Toxicol. Environ. Health* **68**, 129-140.
- 5- Díez S, Delgado S, Aguilera I *et al.* (2009) Prenatal and early childhood exposure to mercury and methylmercury in Spain, a high-fish-consumer country. *Arch Environ Contam*
20 *Toxicol* **56(3)**, 615-22.
- 6- Kajiwara Y, Yasutake A, Adachi T *et al.* (1996) Methylmercury transport across the placenta via neutral amino acid carrier. *Arch. Toxicol.* **70**, 310-314.
- 25
- 7- Bjornberg KA, Vahter M, Berglund B *et al.* (2005) Transport of methylmercury and inorganic mercury to the fetus and breast-fed infant. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **113**, 1381-1385.
- 8- Foldspang A & Hansen JC (1990) Dietary intake of methylmercury as a correlate of
30 gestational length and birth weight among newborns in Greenland. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* **132**, 310-317.
- 9- Grandjean P, Weihe P, White RF *et al.* (1998) Cognitive performance of children prenatally exposed to "safe" levels of methylmercury. *Environ. Res.* **77**, 165-172.

- 10- Murata K, Weihe P, Budtz-Jorgensen E *et al.* (2004) Delayed brainstem auditory evoked potential latencies in 14-year-old children exposed to methylmercury. *J. Pediatr.* **144**, 177-183.
- 5
- 11- Xue F, Holzman C, Rahbar MH *et al.* (2007) Maternal fish consumption, mercury levels, and risk of preterm delivery. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **115**, 42-47.
- 12- Davidson PW, Myers GJ, Cox C *et al.* (1998) Effects of prenatal and postnatal methylmercury exposure from fish consumption on neurodevelopment: outcomes at 66 months of age in the Seychelles Child Development Study. *Jama* **280**, 701-707.
- 10
- 13- Palumbo DR, Cox C, Davidson PW *et al.* (2000) Association between prenatal exposure to methylmercury and cognitive functioning in Seychellois children: a reanalysis of the McCarthy Scales of Children's Ability from the main cohort study. *Environ. Res.* **84**, 81-88.
- 15
- 14- Myers GJ, Davidson PW, Cox C *et al.* (2003) Prenatal methylmercury exposure from ocean fish consumption in the Seychelles child development study. *Lancet* **361**, 1686-1692.
- 15- Harper V, MacInnes R, Campbell D *et al.* (1991) Increased birth weight in northerly islands: is fish consumption a red herring? *Bmj.* **303**, 166.
- 20
- 16- Olsen SF, Olsen J & Frische G (1990) Does fish consumption during pregnancy increase fetal growth? A study of the size of the newborn, placental weight and gestational age in relation to fish consumption during pregnancy. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **19**, 971-977.
- 25
- 17- Olsen SF, Grandjean P, Weihe P *et al.* (1993) Frequency of seafood intake in pregnancy as a determinant of birth weight: evidence for a dose dependent relationship. *J. Epidemiol. Community Health* **47**, 436-440.
- 30
- 18- Olsen SF, Østerdal ML, Salvig JD *et al.* (2006) Duration of pregnancy in relation to seafood intake during early and mid pregnancy: prospective cohort. *Eur. J. Epidemiol.* **21**, 749-758.

- 19- Muthayya S, Dwarkanath P, Thomas T *et al.* (2009) The effect of fish and omega-3 LCPUFA intake on low birth weight in Indian pregnant women. *Eur J Clin Nutr* **63**(3), 340-6.
- 20- Olsen SF, Sørensen JD, Secher NJ *et al.* (1992) Randomised controlled trial of effect of fish-oil supplementation on pregnancy duration. *Lancet* **339**, 1003-1007.
- 21- Olsen SF & Secher NJ (1990) A possible preventive effect of low-dose fish oil on early delivery and pre-eclampsia: indications from a 50-year-old controlled trial. *Br. J. Nutr.* **64**, 599-609.
- 22- Drouillet P, Kaminski M, Forhan A *et al.* (2009) Association between maternal seafood consumption before pregnancy and fetal growth: evidence for an association in overweight women. The “EDEN mother-child” cohort (study of pre and early postnatal determinants of the child’s development and health). *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* **23**(1):76-86.
- 23- Budtz-Jorgensen E, Grandjean P & Weihe P (2007) Separation of risks and benefits of seafood intake. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **115**, 323-327.
- 24- Mendez MA, Plana E, Guxens M *et al.* (2009) Seafood consumption in pregnancy and infant size at birth: Results from a prospective Spanish cohort. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2009 Aug 25. [Epub ahead of print].
- 25- Ramón R, Ballester F, Aguinagalde X, *et al.* (2009) Fish consumption during pregnancy, prenatal mercury exposure, and anthropometric measures at birth in a prospective mother-infant cohort study in Spain. *Am J Clin Nutr* **90**(4):1047-55.
- 26- Lucas M, Dewailly E, Muckle G, *et al.* (2004) Gestational age and birth weight in relation to n-3 fatty acids among Inuit (Canada). *Lipids* 39(7):617-626.
- 27- Strain JJ, Davidson PW, Bonham MP *et al.* (2008) Associations of maternal long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, methyl mercury, and infant development in the Seychelles Child Development Nutrition Study. *Neurotoxicology* **29**(5), 776-82.

- 28- Davidson PW, Strain JJ, Myers GJ *et al.* (2008) Neurodevelopmental effects of maternal nutritional status and exposure to methylmercury from eating fish during pregnancy. *Neurotoxicology* **29(5)**,767-75.
- 5 29- Oken E, Wright RO, Kleinman KP *et al.* (2005) Maternal fish consumption, hair mercury, and infant cognition in a U.S. Cohort. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **113**, 1376-1380.
- 30- Grandjean P, Bjerve KS, Weihe P *et al.* (2001) Birthweight in a fishing community: significance of essential fatty acids and marine food contaminants. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **30**,
10 1272-1278.
- 31- Drouillet P, Forhan A, De Lauzon-Guillain B *et al.* (2009) Maternal fatty acid intake and fetal growth: evidence for an association in overweight women. The 'EDEN mother-child' cohort (study of pre- and early postnatal determinants of the child's development and health).
15 *Br J Nutr.***101(4)**:583-91.
- 32- Cordier S, Garel M, Mandereau L *et al.* (2002) Neurodevelopmental investigations among methylmercury-exposed children in French Guiana. *Environ. Res.* **89**, 1-11.
- 20 33- Grandjean P, White RF, Nielsen A *et al.* (1999) Methylmercury neurotoxicity in Amazonian children downstream from gold mining. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **107**, 587-591.
- 34- Ramirez GB, Cruz MC, Pagulayan O *et al.* (2000) The Tagum study I: analysis and clinical correlates of mercury in maternal and cord blood, breast milk, meconium, and infants'
25 hair. *Pediatrics* **106**, 774-781.
- 35- Grandjean P & Budtz-Jorgensen E (2007) Total imprecision of exposure biomarkers: implications for calculating exposure limits. *Am. J. Ind. Med.* **50**, 712-719.
- 30 36- Watanabe C (2002) Modification of mercury toxicity by selenium: practical importance? *Tohoku. J. Exp. Med.* **196**, 71-77.

- 37- Chen C, Yu H, Zhao J *et al.* (2006) The roles of serum selenium and selenoproteins on mercury toxicity in environmental and occupational exposure. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **114**, 297-301.
- 5 38- Marsh DO, Turner MD, Smith JC *et al.* (1995) Fetal methylmercury study in a Peruvian fish-eating population. *Neurotoxicology* **16**, 717-726.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are indebted to the participating families, to the midwife research assistants (L Douhaud, S Bedel, B Lortholary, S Gabriel, M Rogeon, M Malinbaum) for data collection and to P
5 Lavoine for checking, coding and data entry.

We acknowledge all the funding sources for the EDEN study: Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (FRM), French Ministry of Research: IFR program, INSERM Nutrition Research Program, French Ministry of Health Perinatality Program, French Agency for Environment
10 Security (AFFSET), French National Institute for Population Health Surveillance (INVS), Paris–Sud University, French National Institute for Health Education (INPES), Nestlé, Mutuelle Générale de l'Éducation Nationale (MGEN), French speaking association for the study of diabetes and metabolism (Alfediam), National Agency for Research (ANR non thematic program)

15

Contributors: PD performed the study analysis and wrote the paper. GH, RS and MK participated in the study design and analysis. GH supervised and JS performed some of the heavy metals measurements. AF was in charge of the coordination of the data file and analysis. BF, GM, VG and OT coordinated the EDEN study in Poitiers and Nancy. MAC
20 participated in the design, coordinates the EDEN study and supervised the analysis with the help of SC. All co-authors reviewed the paper.

Table 1. Fetal growth in relation to maternal total hair mercury level and average seafood intake before pregnancy (overweight women)

n=159	n	<u>Model 1*</u>		<u>Model 2*</u>		<u>Model 3*</u>			
		Mercury		Seafood		Mercury		Seafood	
		β^{Δ}	p^{\dagger}	β^{Δ}	p^{\dagger}	β^{Δ}	p^{\dagger}	β^{Δ}	p^{\dagger}
ULTRASOUND MEASURES at 20-24 WG									
Biparietal diameter (mm)	156	-0.08	0.75	-0.07	0.75	-0.03	0.92	-0.06	0.79
Head circumference (mm)	149	0.94	0.18	0.50	0.44	1.04	0.17	0.14	0.84
Abdominal circumference (mm)	153	1.26	0.16	1.35	0.10	0.93	0.34	1.04	0.24
Femoral length (mm)	154	0.18	0.32	0.24	0.16	0.12	0.53	0.20	0.28
ULTRASOUND MEASURES at 30-34 WG									
Biparietal diameter (mm)	149	0.17	0.57	0.22	0.42	0.15	0.64	0.17	0.56
Head circumference (mm)	145	0.64	0.71	-1.63	0.31	1.74	0.36	-2.19	0.20
Abdominal circumference (mm)	147	0.54	0.68	1.51	0.21	0.34	0.81	1.40	0.28
Femoral length (mm)	149	0.30	0.17	0.39	0.06	0.27	0.27	0.30	0.16
ANTHROPOMETRIC MEASURES									
Birthweight (g)	151	79.80	0.04	115.09	0.001	41.91	0.30	100.52	0.008
Birth length (cm)	147	0.34	0.05	0.39	0.01	0.23	0.21	0.32	0.07
Head circumference (cm)	150	0.17	0.09	0.22	0.02	0.09	0.41	0.19	0.06
Sum of skinfolds (mm)	150	0.24	0.15	0.39	0.01	0.10	0.57	0.35	0.04
OTHER MEASURES									
Gestational length (WA)	156	0.13	0.41	-0.30	0.03	0.30	0.07	-0.40	0.008
Placental weight (g)	109/123	4.05	0.75	31.58	0.005	0.43	0.97	31.48	0.007

^Δ β corresponds to variation of the outcome variable for 1 SD of MeHg level (2.60) or seafood intake (7.75)

[†] Linear regression test

* Adjusted for centre, maternal age and height, smoking during pregnancy, parity (yes/no), gestational length (at ultrasound measures or at delivery), delay between birth and anthropometric measures (except for ultrasound measures and gestational length) and newborn's sex. Model 1: association with MeHg level / Model 2: association with seafood intake / Model 3: association with MeHg level and seafood intake, mutually adjusted on each other

5

10