

1 **Maternal selenium, copper and zinc concentrations in pregnancy associated with**
2 **small-for-gestational-age infants.**

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21 **Running Title:** Micronutrient concentrations, SGA and adolescence.

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26

27 **Abstract**

28 Pregnancy during adolescence increases the risk of adverse pregnancy outcome, especially
29 risk of small-for gestational-age (SGA) birth, which has been linked to micronutrient
30 deficiencies. Likewise, smoking has been shown to be related with lower micronutrient
31 concentrations. Different ethnicities have not previously been examined. We used a subset
32 from a prospective observational study, the About Teenage Eating (ATE) study consisting of
33 126 pregnant adolescents (14-18 years old) between 28-32 weeks' gestation. Micronutrient
34 status was assessed by inductively-coupled mass spectrometry. Smoking was assessed by
35 self-report and plasma cotinine, and SGA was defined as infants born < 10th corrected
36 birthweight centile. The main outcome measures were: 1) Maternal plasma selenium, copper
37 and zinc concentrations in adolescent mothers giving birth to SGA *versus* appropriate-for-
38 gestational-age (AGA) infants. 2) Comparison of micronutrient concentrations between
39 women of different ethnicities and smoking habits. The plasma selenium (mean \pm SD [95%
40 CI]) concentration was lower in the SGA (n = 19: 49.4 \pm 7.3 [CI: 45.9, 52.9] μ g/L)
41 compared to the AGA (n = 107: 65.1 \pm 12.5 [CI: 62.7, 67.5] μ g/L; $P < 0.0001$) group.
42 Smoking mothers had a lower selenium concentration compared to non-smokers ($P = 0.01$)
43 and Afro-Caribbean women had higher selenium concentrations compared to White
44 Europeans ($P = 0.02$). Neither copper nor zinc concentrations varied between groups, but
45 selenium and copper were moderately correlated ($P < 0.05$). Selenium is an essential trace
46 element which exerts its biological effects through the expression of a variety of important
47 selenoproteins. Low plasma selenium concentration in adolescent mothers could contribute
48 to the risk of delivering an SGA infant, possibly through lowering the placental antioxidant
49 defence, thus directly affecting fetal growth. The differences in plasma selenium between
50 different ethnicities may relate to variation in nutritional intake, which requires further
51 investigation.

52 **Keywords:** Micronutrients, small-for-gestational-age, adolescence

53 **Introduction**

54 Worldwide, pregnancies during adolescence are associated with a high risk of an adverse
55 obstetric outcome, particularly small-for-gestational-age (SGA) birth delivery (Chen et al.,
56 2007). Although teenage pregnancy rates in the United Kingdom have fallen by 3.1% since
57 2007, they remain amongst the highest in Western Europe (40.6 births per 1,000 women
58 aged 15-17 in 2008 in England and Wales) (Office of National Statistics, 2010).

59

60 Pregnant adolescents in industrialised countries typically have a poor diet, may attributable
61 to their age and socio-economic background (Moran, 2007) and nutrient intake in this
62 population has been shown to be inadequate (Crawley, 1993). A recent study by our group
63 (the About Teenage Eating (ATE) study) carried out in two inner city populations in the
64 United Kingdom reported a high rate of SGA infants in teenage pregnancies and
65 demonstrated a strong association with reduced folate status (Baker et al., 2009). In this
66 study, we have investigated the status of 3 essential antioxidant micronutrients previously
67 associated with poor pregnancy outcome: selenium, copper and zinc (Mistry and Williams,
68 2011).

69

70 Selenium, an essential trace element, is a co-factor for several important enzymes that play a
71 focal role in antioxidant defence including the glutathione peroxidases (GPxs), which
72 metabolise the products of attack by hydrogen peroxidases and oxidised lipoproteins
73 (Rayman, 2000). Selenium also has both structural and enzymatic roles and functions as a
74 catalyst for the production of thyroid hormones (Beckett and Arthur, 2005). In a recent
75 study we reported that selenium concentrations were low in women of reproductive age in
76 the United Kingdom, falling further during pregnancy and this correlated with low plasma
77 and placental GPx activities (Mistry et al., 2008). Selenium deficiency has also been linked
78 with several reproductive complications, including SGA infants (Mistry et al., 2012, Mariath

79 et al., 2011, Klapac et al., 2008, Strambi et al., 2004). It has also been reported that blood
80 selenium concentrations are lower in tobacco smokers (Northrop-Clewes and Thurnham,
81 2007).

82

83 Copper is an essential cofactor for a number of enzymes involved in metabolic reactions,
84 angiogenesis, oxygen transport and antioxidant protection, including catalase, and
85 copper/zinc superoxide dismutase (Cu/Zn SOD) (Gambling et al., 2008). During pregnancy,
86 plasma copper concentrations significantly increase, returning to normal non-pregnant
87 values after delivery (Izquierdo Alvarez et al., 2007). This increase could be partly related to
88 synthesis of ceruloplasmin, a major copper-binding protein, due to altered levels of
89 oestrogen (Izquierdo Alvarez et al., 2007). Lower copper concentrations have been reported
90 in placentae of SGA pregnancies (Zadrozna et al., 2009), but there is limited data regarding
91 maternal plasma copper concentrations in relation to SGA pregnancies.

92

93 Zinc is an essential constituent of over 200 metalloenzymes, and participates in carbohydrate
94 and protein metabolism, nucleic acid synthesis, and antioxidant functions (through Cu/Zn
95 SOD) (Izquierdo Alvarez et al., 2007). It has been estimated that the total amount of zinc
96 retained during pregnancy is ~ 100 mg (Swanson and King, 1987). The requirement for zinc
97 during the third trimester is approximately twice as high as that in non-pregnant women
98 (WHO/FAO/IAEA, 1996). Plasma zinc concentrations decline as pregnancy progresses and
99 then paradoxically increase towards delivery (Izquierdo Alvarez et al., 2007). Zinc
100 supplementation during pregnancy has been reported to significantly increase birthweight
101 and head circumference (Goldenberg et al., 1995), highlighting the importance of adequate
102 zinc supply during pregnancy.

103

104 Failure to achieve genetic growth potential is a major cause of perinatal morbidity and
105 mortality and is estimated to occur in 10% of pregnancies in the developed world and up to
106 25% in undeveloped countries (Steer, 2005). These complications are increasingly evident at
107 lower birthweight centiles. The mechanisms are still to be elucidated but a likely common
108 aetiological factor for SGA is placental ischemia/hypoxia (Biri et al., 2007), which would be
109 associated with oxidative stress. There are few studies of selenium concentrations in
110 SGA/fetal growth restricted births (Klapek et al., 2008, Llanos and Ronco, 2009) and none
111 specifically addressing adolescent pregnancies; there is a similar lack of information about
112 copper and zinc. A reduced micronutrient concentration may lead to inadequate antioxidant
113 protection culminating in poor fetal growth. Ischemia-reperfusion injury may contribute to
114 the oxidative stress and could result in the release of reactive oxygen species into the
115 maternal circulation possibly resulting in oxidative DNA damage which may underlie
116 development of SGA (Takagi et al., 2004).

117

118 We hypothesised that the micronutrient concentrations would be reduced in mothers who
119 delivered SGA infants. Due to potential differences in nutritional intakes, we further
120 hypothesised that differences in micronutrient concentrations would be observed between
121 White European and Afro-Caribbean adolescent pregnant women. Since it is well-
122 documented that smoking has a detrimental effect on fetal growth (Kho et al., 2009),
123 associations with micronutrient concentrations and smoking habits in the pregnant
124 adolescents were also explored.

125

126 The aim of this study, therefore, was to establish the maternal plasma selenium, zinc and
127 copper in adolescent mothers delivering SGA and AGA infants and use these data to
128 investigate any differences in these antioxidant micronutrients between ethnicities and
129 smoking status.

130 **Methods**

131 **Subjects:** The 126 women contributing to the present study represent a sub-group of the
132 larger ATE study of 500 adolescents from whom samples of adequate volume were
133 available (Baker et al., 2009). The study was approved by the Central Manchester Local
134 Research Ethics Committee (local registration no. 03/CM/032) and informed written consent
135 was obtained from all participants; pregnant adolescents 14-18 years old singleton
136 pregnancies were assessed for capacity to provide informed consent according to accepted
137 United Kingdom criteria (Gillick v West Norfolk & Wisbech, 1985). In order to minimise
138 potential confounding effects of different socioeconomic background and lifestyle between
139 Manchester and London, we studied only those 126 pregnant adolescent women recruited to
140 the ATE study between 2004 and 2007 at 2 hospitals in South London, United Kingdom.
141 Exclusion criteria were: inability to provide informed consent, pre-eclampsia in previous
142 pregnancy, clotting disorders, HIV/AIDS, haemoglobinopathies, known pre-existing
143 diabetes, renal disease, hypertension, multiple pregnancies, or a history of ≥ 1 previous
144 miscarriage. SGA was defined as individualised birthweight ratio below the 10th percentile
145 (American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 2000) and calculated using the
146 customised birthweight centiles (Gardosi and Francis, 2006). In addition, birthweight z
147 scores were calculated corrected for gestational age at delivery from the UK WHO 2006
148 growth charts (Cole et al., 2011).

149

150 **Sample collection and laboratory methods:** A 30 ml, non-fasting sample of venous blood
151 was collected in the early third trimester (mean \pm SD: 30.3 \pm 2.1 weeks' gestation) into
152 chilled collection tubes. Blood samples were transported on ice to the laboratory and
153 centrifuged at 4°C within 30 minutes of collection. Plasma was stored at -80°C until
154 analysis.

155 Plasma concentrations of copper, zinc and selenium in plasma were assayed by Inductively
156 Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) at m/z 65, 66 and 78 respectively. Samples
157 and standards (SPEX Certiprep Inc.) were prepared identically in a diluent containing 0.1%
158 ‘Triton X-100’ non-ionic surfactant (+‘antifoam-B’, Sigma), 2% methanol and 1% HNO₃
159 (trace analysis grade) including the internal ICP-MS standards Iridium (5 µg L⁻¹), Rhodium
160 (10 µg L⁻¹), Gallium (25 µg L⁻¹) and Scandium (50 µg L⁻¹). For all three analytes, the ICP-
161 MS was run in ‘collision-reaction cell mode’ with pure H₂ as the cell gas to maximise
162 sensitivity for ⁷⁸Se determination. Aspiration was through a single sample line via a
163 Burgener-Miramist PEEK nebuliser. Calibrations for all micronutrients were in the range 0
164 – 50 µg L⁻¹. Quality of analysis was assured by the use of appropriate reference materials
165 (Seronorm and UTAK; Nycomed Pharma AS). Trace element free techniques were used
166 during collection and analysis, following guidelines from the International Zinc Nutrition
167 consultative group (IZiNCG). Both intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variances were <
168 5%.

169

170 Smoking history was ascertained by direct questioning and verified by plasma cotinine,
171 measured by solid-phase competitive chemiluminescence immunoassay (DPC, Gwynedd,
172 UK). Responses were coded as smokers or non-smokers, which included ex-smokers.

173

174 **Statistical analysis:** All tests were performed using SPSS for Windows version 16.0. Data
175 were tested for normality of distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Summary data
176 are presented as mean ± SD depending. Between-group comparisons were made using
177 Student’s *t* tests. Multiple logistic regression models for AGA/SGA with selenium, smoking
178 and ethnicity individually and together were also conducted. Pearson’s correlation test was
179 used to test associations. The null hypothesis was rejected where $P < 0.05$.

180

181 **Results**

182 **Subjects:** Table 1 describes the demographic, obstetric and pregnancy outcome data of the
183 126 women for whom blood samples were available. More detailed descriptions have been
184 previously published (Baker et al., 2009). The two ethnic groups were well-matched for age
185 and BMI; the sub group showed no significant difference in any outcome variable when
186 compared to the remaining study population (Baker et al., 2009). By definition, both the
187 birthweights and customised birthweight centiles were significantly lower in the SGA group
188 (Table 1).

189

190 **SGA:** Nineteen mothers delivered SGA infants and the median corrected birthweight
191 centiles for all infants in this study were below the 50th centile (Table 1). The plasma
192 selenium concentration (mean \pm SD [95% CI]) was lower in the mothers who gave birth to
193 SGA infants (49.4 ± 7.3 [CI: 45.9, 52.9] $\mu\text{g/L}$) compared to the AGA infants (65.1 ± 12.5
194 [CI: 62.7, 67.5] $\mu\text{g/L}$; $P < 0.0001$; Figure 1). Furthermore, a significant positive association
195 was observed between selenium concentrations and birthweight z scores ($r = 0.203$; $P =$
196 0.03 ; Figure. 2). No differences were observed between groups for copper or zinc ($P > 0.05$
197 for both).

198

199 **Smoking:** Serum selenium showed smokers (verified by plasma cotinine) had lower plasma
200 selenium concentrations ($n = 89$) compared to non-smokers ($n = 37$; $P = 0.01$; Table 2). No
201 significant differences were observed for copper or zinc ($P > 0.05$).

202

203 **Ethnicity:** Plasma micronutrient concentrations were compared between White European (n
204 $= 66$) and Afro-Caribbean ($n = 60$) mothers. The selenium concentration was lower in
205 White-European compared to Afro-Caribbean women ($P = 0.02$; Table 2). No differences
206 were found in the copper or zinc concentration ($P > 0.05$; Table 2).

207 Multiple logistic regression models indicated selenium as a strong influencing factor and the
208 addition of ethnicity strengthened this; however smoking and ethnicity individually had no
209 effect (Table 3).

210

211 **Discussion**

212 This study reports lower plasma selenium concentration, but not copper or zinc in adolescent
213 mothers delivering SGA infants. Selenium deficiency has been associated with obstetric
214 complications including pre-eclampsia (Mistry et al., 2008), preterm birth (Dobrzynski et al.,
215 1998) and delivery of SGA infants (Klapec et al., 2008). Small size at birth has been
216 postulated to increase the risks of cardiovascular disease in later life and these obstetric
217 complications are increased in adolescent pregnancies (Chen et al., 2007), further
218 highlighting the need to investigate this important population.

219

220 This study is the first to present data linking reduced maternal plasma selenium, with SGA
221 births in adolescent pregnancies from the United Kingdom. We have previously shown that
222 selenium concentrations fall during pregnancy indicating an increased requirement for
223 selenium in pregnancy as a result of the demands from the growing fetus (Mistry et al.,
224 2008) and possibly altered intestinal re-absorption or renal handling (Szybinski et al., 2010).

225 This reduced selenium concentration might adversely affect the functional activities of the
226 antioxidant selenoproteins as we have shown previously (Mistry et al., 2010), compromising
227 protection against placental oxidative stress, thus detrimentally impacting on fetal growth,
228 although placental selenium concentrations are not known. The calculated plasma selenium
229 concentration required for maximal plasma GPx activity in non-pregnant adult humans has
230 been estimated to be ~90 µg/L (Duffield et al., 1999), considerably higher than the
231 concentrations observed in the teenage mothers of this study, especially those delivering
232 SGA infants. One factor that could contribute to the lower selenium concentration is the

233 decline in selenium content of flour in the United Kingdom, since the European Union
234 reduced imports of wheat from the USA and Canada, where selenium content of the soil is
235 higher (Jackson et al., 2004). A limitation of this study is that baseline, pre-pregnancy
236 selenium concentrations were not available, thus we were not able to ascertain if the
237 adolescents that went on to deliver an SGA infant started with lower selenium
238 concentrations compared to those delivering AGA infants.

239

240 Recent reports from Europe and the USA have suggested that blood selenium concentrations
241 are lowered in tobacco smokers (Northrop-Clewes and Thurnham, 2007, Galan et al., 2005).
242 Smoking is associated with decreased food intake, which could itself result in decreased
243 selenium status. Furthermore, tobacco smoking causes inflammation and induces oxidative
244 stress and the lower selenium concentration may contribute to these factors (Galan et al.,
245 2005, Northrop-Clewes and Thurnham, 2007, Ellingsen et al., 2009). Another possibility is
246 that the increased exposure of smokers to the heavy metal cadmium might decrease the
247 bioavailability of selenium (Galan et al., 2005, Northrop-Clewes and Thurnham, 2007).

248

249 In this adolescent pregnant cohort, a combination of poor eating habits and tobacco smoking
250 may have amplified any reduction in the plasma selenium concentration (Baker et al., 2009).
251 This is further substantiated by the finding of Galan *et al* that women of younger age had a
252 low mean selenium concentration, which were further influenced by nutrient intakes and
253 smoking (Galan et al., 2005). We anticipated that because of the characteristic poor diet in
254 this population (Baker et al., 2009), the copper, selenium and zinc concentrations would be
255 lower than older mothers, however our data does not support this as similar levels were
256 found to that previously reported in slightly older White European primigravidae (Mistry et
257 al., 2008); this may reflect the general decline in selenium intake in this population from the

258 United Kingdom. Future prospective studies of age related profile of selenium
259 concentrations including adolescents and older mothers would be of interest in this regard.
260 The differences in selenium concentrations between different ethnicities may be related to
261 the nutritional intakes in women from different cultural backgrounds (Kant and Graubard,
262 2007). Studies of selenium concentrations relating to ethnic differences in a United
263 Kingdom cohort have yet to be completed.

264

265 A limitation of this study is a large proportion of the women for whom samples were
266 available, were 17-18 years in age; future follow-up work is required focussing on the more
267 vulnerable younger adolescents (12-16 years). Also, the numbers in this study were small
268 and thus future studies with larger sample sizes and a wider spread of ethnicities and
269 measurements of the respective micronutrient antioxidant activities (GPxs and SODs) are
270 required to confirm these initial results. The results of our study highlight the importance of
271 monitoring maternal nutrition, particularly the micronutrient selenium intake and
272 concentrations during adolescent pregnancies. Prenatal guidance needs to be made clear to
273 ensure that women and practioners are aware of the nutritional requirements during
274 pregnancy, and how healthy diet can prevent diseases of pregnancy in this venerable high
275 risk adolescent group. This study provides preliminary evidence on the importance of proper
276 education of good nutrition and the potential need for future selenium supplementation
277 studies.

278

279 **Key Message**

- 280 1) Maternal selenium concentrations are significantly lower in adolescent pregnant
281 women delivering SGA infants compared to those delivering AGA infants.
- 282 2) Further research is needed to accurately quantify levels of micronutrients in
283 adolescent pregnancies and how levels vary over the course of pregnancy.

284 3) The actions of antioxidant micronutrient activities on maternal, fetal and placental
285 health during adolescence need to further elucidated.

286

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293

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295

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300 **Contributions:** The authors' contributions were as follows: HDM formulated and organised
301 the project, analysed the data and wrote the majority of the manuscript; FBP assisted in the
302 data analysis; SDY and LOK coordinated/ ran the selenium assays; ALB assisted with
303 sample identification and transporting samples; LP and PNB were principal investigators
304 and designed the ATE study.

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400

401 **Table 1.** Demographic, obstetric and pregnancy data of subject groups used in the study.
 402 Data represented as means \pm SD or median [IQR] as appropriate, except for preterm births,
 403 smoking status, parity, ethnicity, and Caesarean sections which are shown as number
 404 (percentage).

Parameter	AGA	SGA
	n = 107	n = 19
Age (yrs) (Mean \pm SD)	17.5 \pm 0.7	17.6 \pm 0.8
Ethnic group [n (%)]		
White European	61 (57)	5 (26)
Afro-Caribbean	46 (43)	14 (74)
Booking body mass index (Kg/m ²) (Mean \pm SD)	24.2 \pm 5.2	25.6 \pm 5.5
Smoking status [n (%)]		
Non-smoker	77 (72)	12 (63)
Smoker	30 (28)	7 (37)
Parity [n (%)]		
Nulliparous	102 (95)	19 (100)
Multiparous	5 (5)	0 (0)
Gestational age at delivery (Wks) (Mean \pm SD)	39.8 \pm 1.7	38.9 \pm 2.7
Mean birthweight (g) (Mean \pm SD)	3344 \pm 521	2399 \pm 456
Corrected birthweight centile (median [IQR])	47.1 [27, 68.2]	0.2 [0.6, 8.4]
Preterm [n (%)]	10 (9)	2 (11)
Caesarean Section [n (%)]	19 (18)	5 (26)

405

406 **Table 2.** The plasma selenium, copper and zinc concentration (mean \pm SD [95% CI]) in
 407 adolescent mothers delivering spilt by ethnicity and smoking habit; * $P < 0.05$ between
 408 ethnicity and smoking habit for selenium only.

	Selenium ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	Copper ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	Zinc ($\mu\text{g/L}$)
White European	60.3 \pm 9.5 58.0, 62.7]	[CI: 2021.7 \pm 365.2 1931.9, 2111.4]	[CI: 646.8 \pm 230.9 590.0, 703.5]
Afro-Caribbean	65.9 \pm 16.3 * [CI: 61.7, 70.1]	2068.3 \pm 402.4 1965.2, 2171.4]	[CI: 642.3 \pm 365.6 548.7, 735.9]
Non-Smoker	64.6 \pm 13.2 [CI: 61.9, 67.4]	2029.8 \pm 366.5 1952.6, 2107.0]	[CI: 647.5 \pm 340.2 575.9, 719.2]
Smoker	58.1 \pm 11.8 * [CI: 54.1, 62.0]	2080.3 \pm 426.9 1937.9, 2222.6]	[CI: 640.5 \pm 189.4 577.5, 703.6]

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425 **Table 3:** Multiple logistic regression analysis of AGA/SGA with covariate selenium and
 426 factors ethnicity and smoking.
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Covariate	Factor(s)	χ^2	<i>P</i>
Selenium		29.5	<0.0001
Selenium	Ethnicity & Smoking	38.1	<0.0001
Selenium	Ethnicity	37.2	<0.0001
	Ethnicity	3.3	0.07
	Smoking	0.6	0.435

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432 **Figure 1.** The maternal plasma selenium concentration (mean \pm SD) in mothers giving birth
433 to SGA or AGA infants; *** $P < 0.0001$ between groups.

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435 **Figure 2.** Scatter plot demonstrating the association between maternal plasma selenium
436 concentration and birthweight z scores ($r = 0.203$; $R^2 = 0.041$; $P = 0.03$).

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