

MATERNAL HISTORY OF MISCARRIAGES AND SPECIFIC BIRTH DEFECTS. PROPOSED MECHANISMS FOR THEIR ASSOCIATION

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Key Words:	miscarriage, ECLAMC, spina bifida, hypospadias, omphalocele, gastroschisis, talipes, club foot

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2 MATERNAL HISTORY OF MISCARRIAGES AND SPECIFIC BIRTH
3 DEFECTS. PROPOSED MECHANISMS FOR THEIR ASSOCIATION
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1 ABSTRACT

2 ABSTRACT

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5 Some studies, mainly of the older literature, have observed
6 a significant association between miscarriages and infants
7 with certain birth defects (BDs) in the same sibship.
8 However, few have deepened into the BD/miscarriage
9 relationship, and lately nothing has been added to the
10 knowledge of mechanisms possibly responsible for both
11 events.
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15 The purpose of this work was to identify specific BDs
16 associated with maternal miscarriages, to establish if the
17 risk depended on the number of losses, and to suggest
18 specific factors for each BD/miscarriage association.
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20 Methods: The study included the ECLAMC data base registries
21 of 26,906 live and stillborn infants with one of 19
22 selected isolated BDs and of 93,853 normal controls.
23 Infants born to primigravid mothers were excluded.
24 Demographic and reproductive variables were compared
25 between control mothers with and without previous
26 miscarriages. Number of miscarriages, their frequencies,
27 and distribution were shown for each BD and for controls. A
28 conditional logistic regression was performed to evaluate
29 the miscarriage risk for each BD.
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32 Results: Control mothers with vs. without previous
33 miscarriages were older, had had more pregnancies, and were
34 less educated. Three risk models for miscarriages were
35 observed: highest risk for gastroschisis, omphalocele, and
36 talipes; only one miscarriage for spina bifida, and only
37 two or more for hypospadias.
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40 Conclusion: Based on these three models, the following
41 common factors for each BD/miscarriage association are
42 proposed: infertility therapies for hypospadias, vascular
43 disruption for gastroschisis and talipes, while for spina
44 bifida, the trophoblastic cell residue theory could not be
45 discarded.
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Key words: miscarriage; ECLAMC; spina bifida; hypospadias;
omphalocele; gastroschisis; talipes; club foot

For Peer Review

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2 INTRODUCTION3
4 INTRODUCTION

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7 Approximately 10-15% of all clinically recognized
8 pregnancies end in miscarriage (Schaeffer et al., 2004).
9
10 Most of them occur during the first trimester and are
11 mainly due to chromosome anomalies (Hassold et al., 1980).
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13 Other genetic, environmental, or combined causes have also
14 been shown to be involved, while for many the cause remains
15 unknown.
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18 Recurrence of pregnancy losses occurs in 1-2% of fertile
19 women, often again without an identifiable cause (Brigham
20 et al., 1999). Eventually, a history of abortions includes
21 the birth of a viable although malformed fetus, due to
22 inherited chromosome anomalies (De Krom et al., 2015).
23
24 Some authors have analyzed the association between previous
25 miscarriages and the occurrence of certain birth defects of
26 unknown etiology (Khoury and Erickson, 1993; Paz et al.,
27 1992; Martínez-Frías and Frías, 1997), and a number of
28 hypotheses have been brought forward. For instance, it has
29 been suggested that the same defect shown by the liveborn
30 infant was also present, although undetected, in the
31 aborted conceptus, being the cause of the pregnancy loss
32 (Khoury and Erickson, 1993). Martínez-Frías and Frías
33 (1997), who found more abortions in the sibship of infants
34 with more than with less severe defects, reached similar
35 conclusions.
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38 Clarke et al. (1975) hypothesized that residual
39 trophoblastic cells from a previous miscarriage interfered
40 with the embryo development, causing a neural tube defect.
41 This hypothesis was supported by some authors (Gardiner et
42 al., 1978) and rejected by others (Martínez-Frías and
43 Frías, 1997).
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46 Vascular disruption has been suggested as responsible for
47 certain defects, such as club foot and gastroschisis (Van
48 Allen, 1981; Lubinsky, 2014), while Rittler et al. (2015)
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1 have demonstrated an association between miscarriages and
2 gastroschisis, proposing a disruptive mechanism for both.
3 The purpose of this work was to identify among a number of
4 selected birth defects those specifically associated with a
5 history of miscarriages, if the magnitude of the risk for
6 those birth defects depended on the number of miscarriages,
7 if the risk of an immediately previous miscarriage differed
8 from one not immediately previous, and to propose involved
9 mechanisms for each birth defects/miscarriage association.
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17 MATERIAL AND METHODS 18

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21 ECLAMC (Latin American Collaborative Study of Congenital
22 Malformations) is a program dedicated to the research of
23 birth defects (BDs), through a network of maternity
24 hospitals where health professionals, mainly pediatricians,
25 identify birth defects in live and stillborn infants. Data
26 on socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, previous
27 birth outcomes, and prenatal factors are obtained from
28 medical records and by interviewing the mothers of
29 malformed infants and of healthy controls (non-malformed
30 infant born immediately after each affected newborn and
31 paired by sex), before their discharge. Detailed
32 descriptions of the registry and methodology have been
33 previously published (Castilla and Orioli, 2004).
34 The present study included the ECLAMC data base registries
35 of live and stillborn infants with isolated, major defects
36 born between 1967 and 2013, and those of healthy controls.
37 Infants with more than one major defect were excluded, as
38 were cases and controls born to primigravid mothers.
39 A total of 19 BDs were selected, with at least 160 cases,
40 in order to detect a 1.5 risk, with a 15% exposure, an 80%
41 power of the test, and an alpha error of 0.05 (Appendix).
42 The definition of miscarriage was based on the mother's
43 description of a spontaneous first trimester pregnancy
44 loss, without any identifiable fetus.
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1 The following variables were compared between control
2 mothers with and without previous miscarriages:
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4 Demographic: maternal and paternal age, gravidity, low
5 maternal and paternal education (< 7 years schooling), low
6 paternal occupation (unemployed or unqualified worker), and
7 ethnic ancestry (Native American, African American, and
8 European).
9

10 Reproductive and of current pregnancy: short inter-birth
11 interval (< 1 year), medication and chronic maternal
12 illness in first trimester of pregnancy.
13

14 Anova and t-test were applied for continuous, chi-square
15 for discrete variables. A Bonferroni correction was applied
16 to adjust for the large number of comparisons. Significance
17 level was set at 0.05.
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19 The number of maternal miscarriages, their frequencies over
20 total pregnancies and their distribution by number were
21 obtained for each BD and for controls.
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23 Cases and healthy controls (4 per case) were matched by
24 hospital, year of birth and maternal gravidity. To
25 establish the miscarriage risk for each BD, a conditional
26 logistic regression was performed, adjusting by maternal
27 and paternal ages, Native ancestry, and maternal education
28 and chronic illnesses.
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30 The same analysis was performed, taking the infants with
31 the remaining BDs as malformed controls.
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33 The risk between immediately vs. not immediately previous
34 miscarriages was compared, only using case and control
35 mothers with a history of miscarriages.
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37 Data were analyzed with the statistical software StataCorp
38 LP, version 12.0, College Station, TX.
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40 RESULTS

41 The study included the ECLAMC data base registries of
42 26,906 infants with the 19 selected BDs and a total of
43 93,853 healthy controls.
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1 The comparison of epidemiologic characteristics of control
2 mothers with and without previous miscarriages is shown in
3 Table 1. Mothers with previous miscarriages showed a higher
4 frequency of certain risk factors, such as older age, more
5 pregnancies, and less education. The magnitude of these
6 variables increased as the number of miscarriages
7 increased.

8 In Table 2, the number of miscarriages, their frequencies
9 over total pregnancies, and their distribution by number
10 are shown for each BD and for controls.

11 A conditional logistic regression, using healthy controls,
12 showed that mothers with previous miscarriages were at a
13 statistically significant risk for five of the 19 selected
14 BDs, namely gastroschisis, omphalocele, talipes
15 equinovarus, spina bifida, and hypospadias (Table 3). For
16 the former two, the risk increased with increasing number
17 of miscarriages.

18 When comparing with malformed controls, the risk remained
19 significant for omphalocele (OR: 1.83(1.33-2.53), $p < 0.001$),
20 gastroschisis (OR: 2.00(1.51-2.65), $p < 0.001$), and talipes
21 (OR: 1.18(1.04-1.35), $p < 0.01$).

22 For hypospadias, only mothers with more than one
23 miscarriage were at risk, while for spina bifida, only one
24 previous miscarriage, but not more than one, represented a
25 risk factor.

26 When comparing immediately vs. not immediately previous
27 miscarriages, no risk difference was found for any of the
28 selected defects.

29 DISCUSSION

30 Here we have shown that among a number of selected birth
31 defects, five were associated with a maternal history of
32 miscarriages.

33 In coincidence with one of our findings, Paz et al. (1992)
34 observed a significant association between previous
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1 miscarriages and talipes equinovarus. They also found that
2 anencephaly and spina bifida were significantly associated,
3 but with stillbirth, not miscarriage, having joined both as
4 a single variable (pregnancy loss).
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8 Other methodological differences were, for instance, having
9 only considered the immediately previous abortion, while
10 mothers with miscarriages at any other time were included
11 into the control group; and that gastroschisis and
12 omphalocele were included into a global category of "other
13 single defects", precluding comparisons with our results.
14
15 Khoury and Erickson (1993) evaluated the risk for 57
16 selected categories of birth defects in infants of women
17 with a history of pregnancy losses (miscarriages and
18 stillbirths). In coincidence with our work, the authors
19 found a significant risk for positional limb defects and
20 hypospadias, while in opposition, they found no risk for
21 spina bifida, omphalocele, or gastroschisis.
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31 Types of birth defect/miscarriage associations 32 33

34 The present work revealed three models of birth defect-
35 miscarriage associations: one, with only one miscarriage
36 (spina bifida); two, with only two or more miscarriages
37 (hypospadias); and three, where the risk was highest
38 (gastroschisis, omphalocele, talipes), and increased for
39 the former two as the number of miscarriages increased.
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41 This finding was not unexpected, given that different
42 mechanisms are assumed to be involved in birth defects, as
43 well as in their associated miscarriages.
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46 Therefore, it seemed reasonable to search for specific
47 factors common to each defect/miscarriage association.
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53 Spina bifida 54

55 One possible hypothesis explaining its association with
56 miscarriages is the polygenic-multifactorial model of
57 inheritance. Within the spectrum of neural tube defects
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1 (NTDs), a miscarriage within the sibship of an infant with
2 spina bifida could represent an anencephalic embryo, lost
3 because of its greater severity (Laurence and Roberts,
4 1977; Carmi et al, 1994).

5 On the other hand, Clarke et al. (1975) have shown that
6 mothers of infants with NTDs had more miscarriages
7 immediately previous to the current birth than after. They
8 hypothesized that residual trophoblastic cells from the
9 preceding abortion interfered with the subsequent
10 developing embryo, leading to anencephaly or spina bifida.
11 This cell rest hypothesis was supported by some authors
12 (Gardiner et al., 1978), some have even related it to other
13 defects (Sheiner et al., 1998), while others (Martínez-
14 Frías and Frías, 1997) found that the rate of miscarriages
15 immediately preceding the birth of an affected infant did
16 not differ from that of miscarriages at any other time.
17 Lu et al. (2011) showed that an immediately previous
18 abortion was a risk factor for a subsequent fetus with
19 anencephaly only if the interpregnancy interval between
20 both was short. Todoroff and Shaw (2000) reached similar
21 conclusions.

22 We analyzed this hypothesis by evaluating the interaction
23 between interbirth interval and miscarriage on the
24 occurrence of each birth defect and found that for spina
25 bifida such an interaction actually existed. The 1.01
26 (0.77-1.29) risk for a long interval increased to 1.70
27 (1.11-2.60) if it was short.

28 Based on these results, the cell rest theory could not be
29 entirely discarded. However, other factors related to a
30 short interpregnancy interval, such as nutritional or
31 vitamin deficiencies (Czeizel, 2009), should also be taken
32 into consideration.

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56 Hypospadias
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1 The present work showed that only women with a history of
2 two or more miscarriages were at risk for hypospadias in a
3 male infant.
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6 Many studies have demonstrated an association between
7 infertility treatments and hypospadias. Some authors have
8 found such an association with sex hormone medication
9 (Carmichael et al., 2005), suggesting interference with the
10 development of male genitalia, while others have not
11 (Källén et al., 1991). However, an excess of hypospadias
12 was also observed after treatment with assisted
13 reproductive therapies, other than medication (Heisey et
14 al., 2015), and this finding would require further
15 research. Nevertheless, and whatever the factor interfering
16 with male genitalia development, it seems reasonable to
17 expect that any such therapy would only be applied after a
18 history of at least two miscarriages.
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30 Talipes equinovarus

31 Club foot has repeatedly been related to vascular
32 disruptions through factors such as early amniocentesis
33 (Evans and Wapner, 2005), the loss of a twin fetus
34 (Pharoah, 2005), vasoconstrictive medication (Werler,
35 2006), or maternal smoking during pregnancy (Skelly et al.,
36 2002).
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41 Merrill et al. (2011) have identified vascular anomalies in
42 the lower limbs of patients with club foot, in support of a
43 vascular role in the pathogenesis of this defect.
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46 In an epidemiologic study on club foot, Werler et al.
47 (2013) have observed, among other findings, that case
48 mothers were more often primiparous (a recognized risk
49 factor for club foot, through fetal constraint) than
50 control mothers. However, they also found that gravidity
51 did not differ between cases and controls, which suggests
52 that case mothers could have had more previous abortions
53 (which do not add to parity) than controls. Unfortunately,
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1 previous miscarriages were not included among their
2 analyzed variables.
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5 In further support of vascular disruption, the authors
6 observed associated anomalies, possibly due to the same
7 mechanism, in four of their cases: one with septooptic
8 dysplasia, two with hydrocephaly, and one with a brain
9 infarct.
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12 Talipes equinovarus is one of the most frequent and
13 conspicuous defects of the Moebius sequence, while other
14 findings, such as an expressionless face or neurologic
15 dysfunction, can be missed or not reported. The use of
16 misoprostol as abortifacient, due to its uterotonic
17 property, has often been associated with the Moebius
18 sequence, as well as with other defects also related to
19 vascular disruption, such as terminal transverse limb
20 defects (da Silva et al., 2006), mainly in regions where
21 terminations of pregnancy are illegal (Pastuszak et al.,
22 1998; Vargas et al., 2000).
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25 It could be hypothesized that abortions preceding the birth
26 of an infant with talipes were in fact terminations of
27 pregnancy (not admitted as such due to their illegal
28 condition), being the current outcome an attempted although
29 missed abortion. The observed association between
30 miscarriages and hip dislocation (Paz et al., 1992), also
31 often present in the Moebius sequence, adds further support
32 to this hypothesis.
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Gastroschisis

Lubinsky (2014) proposed two disruptive pathogenetic models for gastroschisis. The first was not age-specific and acted through vasoconstrictive factors, such as certain medication (Werler, 2006), or smoking (Skarsgard et al., 2015), among others.

The second was age-specific, and acted through the thrombotic effect of estrogens, typical in young women who show higher levels of estrogens at early stages of

1 pregnancy (Lubinsky, 2012). In support of this hypothesis,
2 the association between gastroschisis and certain endocrine
3 disruptors with estrogenic effect have been demonstrated
4 (Agopian et al., 2013).
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8 In a previous work (Rittler et al., 2015), we have shown
9 that a maternal history of miscarriages was the main risk
10 factor for gastroschisis. To our knowledge, an association
11 between gastroschisis and pregnancy losses has only been
12 mentioned by Getz et al. (2012), whose study however was
13 limited to mothers with short interpregnancy intervals.
14 They found that the risk factor was the short interval,
15 with the risk increasing if the previous pregnancy had
16 ended in a miscarriage. Contrarily, in our study the
17 identified risk factor was the miscarriage, regardless of
18 the interpregnancy interval.
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26 Both hypertension and thrombophilia are recognized risk
27 factors for pregnancy losses (Kutteh and Triplett, 2006),
28 and although to our knowledge the association between
29 thrombophilia and gastroschisis has not been mentioned,
30 other, less frequent hyperthrombotic conditions could by
31 involved.
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37 Omphalocele

38 In coincidence with the here observed association between
39 omphalocele and a history of miscarriages, Agopian et al.
40 (2009) found significantly more omphalocele cases among
41 mothers without than with previous livebirths.
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46 However, the relationship between omphalocele and
47 miscarriages does not seem to suggest any straightforward
48 hypothesis. The chances of misdiagnosing omphalocele for
49 gastroschisis were low in our sample, since for a previous
50 study on gastroschisis (Castilla et al., 2008), all
51 abdominal wall defect cases were reviewed, enhancing
52 diagnostic reliability.
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57 One possible explanation could be the fact that omphalocele
58 is often present in syndromes, mainly due to chromosome
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1 anomalies (Stoll et al., 2001), and couples carrying a
2 chromosome rearrangement may be at risk for malformed
3 fetuses as well as for recurrent miscarriages (De Krom et
4 al., 2015). Although in this work only infants with
5 isolated defects were included, chromosome studies, which
6 are not requested as part of the ECLAMC procedure, were not
7 always done, and consequently the inclusion of some cases
8 with chromosome anomalies could not be entirely ruled out.
9 However, this explanation did not seem able to account for
10 the observed number of cases.

11 On the other hand, some authors (Reefhuis and Honein, 2004;
12 Marshall et al., 2015) have observed that both old and
13 young maternal age (< 20 years) were associated with
14 omphalocele, and given the recognized association between
15 gastroschisis and young maternal age, perhaps in a
16 subgroup, factors similar to those responsible of
17 gastroschisis could also be involved in the occurrence of
18 omphalocele.

19 Strengths and weaknesses

20 The main strengths of this study resided in the magnitude
21 of ECLAMC series of infants with birth defects, having
22 adjusted by number of pregnancies, and the use of malformed
23 controls, thereby reducing the memory bias effect in
24 mothers of sick vs. healthy newborns.

25 A further strength was that ascertainment and reporting was
26 performed by pediatricians specially trained in diagnosis
27 and description of birth defects, thereby assuring
28 homogeneous data by following clearly defined rules.

29 Limitations were those related to retrospective case
30 control studies, such as the recall bias for data obtained
31 by interviewing the mothers. Information on abortions, if
32 spontaneous or induced, might be unreliable, especially in
33 countries, such as most South American, where terminations
34 of pregnancy are illegal.

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3 CONCLUSIONS
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7 The present work revealed three models of birth defect-
8 miscarriage associations: one, where the risk increased as
9 the number of miscarriages increased; two, with only one
10 miscarriage, and three, with only two or more.
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13 The recognition of different types of associations, as well
14 as the obtained heterogeneity reduction among some defects,
15 might increase the chances of recognizing specific links
16 between birth defects and miscarriages, as a way to
17 approach the identification of underlying common causes.
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23 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
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27 The authors wish to thank all the people working in
28 collaboration in ECLAMC, a network that has been active for
29 more than 40 years.
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6 Appendix: ECLAMC data base. 209 participating hospitals in
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8 10 South American countries, 1967 - 2013.

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11 Table 1: Epidemiologic characteristics of control mothers
12 with and without previous miscarriages.

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15 Table 2: Total number and distribution of miscarriages for
16 each birth defect.

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19 Table 3: Previous miscarriage/s and risk for congenital
20 anomalies.

Table 1: Epidemiologic characteristics of control mothers with and without previous miscarriages.

Characteristics	Miscarriage						Number of miscarriages							
	No N=76244		Yes N=17609		t	p	1 N= 13534		2 N= 3026		3+ N= 1049		F	p
	N	X±sd	N	X±sd			N	X±sd	N	X±sd	N	X±sd		
Maternal age	74442	26.7±6.3	17564	28.7±6.4	-37.80	<0.001	13497	28.2±6.3	3018	30.3±6.2	1049	31.4±5.9	240.35	<0.001
Gravidity	75872	3.3±1.8	17605	4.5±2.3	-79.40	<0.001	13530	4.1±2.0	3026	5.7±2.3	1049	7.3±2.5	1650.3	<0.001
Paternal age	72213	30.4±7.6	17145	32.1±7.7	-26.34	<0.001	13185	31.6±7.6	2939	33.4±7.9	1023	34.6±7.6	123.85	<0.001
	N	%	N	%	χ^2_1	p	N	%	N	%	N	%	χ^2_2	p
Low maternal education	20810	27.3	5062	28.8	15.12	<0.001	3782	27.9	921	30.4	359	34.2	23.829	<0.001
Low paternal education	17995	23.6	4348	24.7	9.37	0.002	3236	23.9	800	26.4	312	29.7	23.798	<0.001
Low paternal occupation	29126	38.2	6161	35.0	62.95	<0.001	4703	34.8	1075	35.5	383	36.5	1.792	0.408
Native	29996	42.1	6636	38.8	60.95	<0.001	5129	39.1	1138	38.7	369	36.6	2.406	0.300
African	15218	21.3	3700	21.6	0.68	0.409	2768	21.1	683	23.2	249	24.7	12.287	0.002
European	26273	36.6	6748	39.6	50.72	<0.001	5236	39.8	1122	38.1	390	38.7	3.355	0.187
Short inter-birth interval	22351	29.3	5526	31.4	29.26	<0.001	4289	31.7	931	30.8	306	29.2	3.513	0.173
Medication	41533	54.5	10483	59.5	148.15	<0.001	7966	58.9	1873	61.9	644	61.4	11.074	0.004
Chronic maternal illness	7930	10.4	2524	14.3	223.53	<0.001	1845	13.6	461	15.2	218	20.8	42.941	<0.001

X±sd: mean ± standard deviation

Table 2: Total number and distribution of miscarriages for each birth defect

	Mothers	Gravidities total	Miscarriages		Mothers by number of miscarriages			
			N	%	0	1	2	3+
Omphalocele	438	1667	166	10.0	329	70	29	10
Hypoplastic left heart	208	756	62	8.2	168	27	7	6
Gastroschisis	864	2525	202	8.0	706	123	30	5
Truncus arteriosus	821	3045	222	7.3	664	114	31	12
Transverse limb reduction	442	1653	120	7.3	368	49	13	12
Diaphragmatic hernia	594	2168	153	7.1	488	75	25	6
Spina bifida	1,739	6718	464	6.9	1,383	267	73	16
Microtia	1,081	4229	281	6.6	880	145	40	16
Cephalocele	461	1826	118	6.5	369	71	18	3
Septal heart defect	2,247	8313	540	6.5	1,858	285	70	34
Esophageal atresia	502	1879	121	6.4	418	60	16	8
Hypospadias	1,179	4211	270	6.4	980	143	45	11
Talipes equinovarus	3,459	12590	808	6.4	2,869	441	109	40
Cleft palate	654	2548	156	6.1	536	97	13	8
Cleft lip +/- cleft palate	3,541	14384	874	6.1	2,896	482	121	42
Preaxial polydactyly	868	3233	198	6.1	716	116	29	7
Postaxial polydactyly	5,397	20610	1258	6.1	4,489	667	175	66
Anencephaly	1,800	7177	417	5.8	1,496	224	58	22
Anorectal atresia	602	2408	122	5.1	511	67	20	4
Controls	93,853	329921	23258	7.0	76,244	13,534	3,026	1,049

%: N / total gravidities

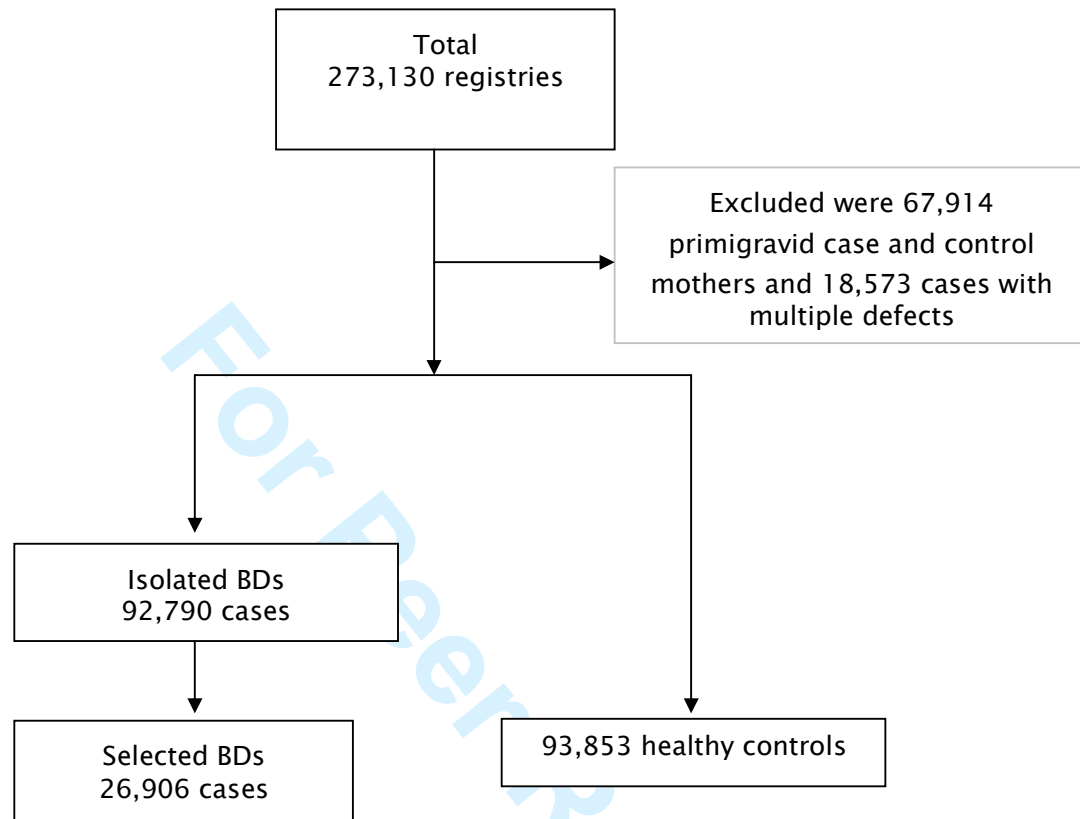
+/-: with or without

Table 3: Previous miscarriage/s and risk for birth defects.

Birth defect	Previous miscarriage/s		Number of previous miscarriages			
			1		2 +	
	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p
Gastroschisis	1.91 (1.46-2.99)	<0.001	1.76 (1.33-2.33)	<0.001	3.04 (1.35-1.72)	<0.001
Omphalocele	1.72 (1.26-2.36)	<0.001	1.49 (1.06-2.10)	<0.001	3.13 (1.79-5.49)	<0.001
Talipes equinovarus	1.48 (1.31-1.68)	<0.001	1.49 (1.30-1.70)	<0.001	1.45 (1.14-1.84)	0.002
Hypoplastic left heart	1.31 (0.78-2.21)	0.306	1.25 (0.72-2.18)	0.434	1.70 (0.60-4.80)	0.313
Spina bifida	1.27 (1.08-1.48)	0.001	1.29 (1.08-1.43)	0.003	1.18 (0.88-1.58)	0.262
Cephalocele	1.23 (0.91-1.28)	0.174	1.17 (0.85-1.62)	0.334	1.65 (0.87-3.10)	0.334
Hypospadias	1.18 (0.97-1.44)	0.089	1.06 (0.86-1.32)	0.578	1.84 (1.27-2.65)	0.001
Esophageal atresia	1.18 (0.85-1.63)	0.326	1.13 (0.79-1.60)	0.498	1.40 (0.75-2.60)	0.293
Preaxial polydactyly	1.14 (0.91-1.44)	0.255	1.14 (0.89-1.46)	0.299	1.17 (0.73-1.89)	0.517
Cleft lip +/- cleft palate	1.13 (1.00-1.27)	0.031	1.10 (0.97-1.25)	0.118	1.26 (0.99-1.59)	0.052
Microtia	1.10 (0.90-1.36)	0.345	1.08 (0.36-1.86)	0.498	1.19 (0.81-1.75)	0.379
Truncus arteriosus	1.09 (0.86-1.39)	0.460	1.07 (0.83-1.38)	0.609	1.22 (0.76-1.94)	0.411
Transverse limb reduction	1.08 (0.73-1.51)	0.677	1.04 (0.71-1.43)	0.838	1.18 (0.66-2.08)	0.574
Anorectal atresia	1.04 (0.77-1.42)	0.788	1.01 (0.73-1.41)	0.940	1.18 (0.65-2.13)	0.583
Diaphragmatic hernia	1.03 (0.77-1.38)	0.839	1.01 (0.74-1.39)	0.928	1.10 (0.64-1.87)	0.736
Cleft palate	1.00 (0.76-1.31)	0.962	1.09 (0.82-1.44)	0.557	0.69 (0.39-1.21)	0.194
Anencephaly	0.98 (0.83-1.16)	0.825	0.99 (0.82-1.19)	0.915	0.96 (0.67-1.30)	0.736
Septal heart defect	0.97 (0.83-1.13)	0.684	0.96 (0.81-1.12)	0.593	1.02 (0.76-1.37)	0.870
Postaxial polydactyly	0.96 (0.89-1.05)	0.365	0.94 (0.85-1.05)	0.273	1.01 (0.84-1.22)	0.903

OR= odds ratio; CI= confidence interval
+/-: with or without

Appendix: ECLAMC data base. 209 participating hospitals in 10 South American countries, 1967 – 2013.



Birth defect	N
Omphalocele	438
Gastroschisis	864
Anencephaly	1,800
Spina bifida	1,739
Cephalocele	461
Microtia	1,081
Cleft palate	654
Cleft lip +/- cleft palate	3,541
Esophageal atresia	502
Ano-rectal atresia	602
Truncus arteriosus	821
Septal defects	2,247
Hypoplastic left heart	208
Hypospadias	1,179
Transverse limb reduction	451
Talipes equinovarus	3,459
Preaxial polydactyly	868
Postaxial polydactyly	5,397
Diaphragmatic hernia	594