

1 **Assessing Oxidative Stress Resulting from Environmental Exposure to Metals**  
2 **(Oids) in a Middle Eastern Population**

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30 **Abstract**

31 Concentrations of metals and metalloids derived mainly from anthropogenic activities have increased  
32 considerably in the environment. Metals might be associated with increase reactive oxygen species (ROS)  
33 damage, potentially related to several health outcomes. This study has recruited 200 adult participants,  
34 including 110 males and 90 females in Shiraz (Iran), to investigate the relationship between chronic  
35 exposure to metals and ROS damage by analyzing malondialdehyde (MDA) and 8-Oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine  
36 (8-OHdG) concentrations, and has evaluated the associations between chronic metal exposure and ROS  
37 damage using regression analysis. Our findings showed that participants are chronically exposed to elevated  
38 As, Ni, Hg, and Pb levels. The mean urinary concentrations of 8-OHdG and MDA were  $3.8\pm 2.35$  and  
39  $214\pm 134$   $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine, respectively. This study shows that most heavy metals are correlated with urinary  
40 ROS biomarkers (R ranges 0.19 to 0.64). In addition, regression analysis accounting for other confounding  
41 factors such as sex, age, smoking status, and teeth filling with amalgam highlights that Al, Cu, Si and Sn  
42 are associated with 8-OHdG concentrations, whilst an association between Cr and MDA and 8-OHdG is  
43 suggested. Smoking cigarettes and water-pipe is considered a significant contributory factor for both ROS  
44 biomarkers (MDA and 8-OHdG).

45 **Keywords:** Biomonitoring, Heavy metals, MDA, Oxidative damage, 8-OHdG.

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## 53 **Introduction**

54 Anthropogenic activities such as manufacturing of metal products, industrial activities, combustion of fossil  
55 fuel, fireworks (Lin, 2016), and generation of electronic waste (Venugopal et al., 2016) have dramatically  
56 increased during recent decades on a global scale (Zhu et al., 2018). As a consequence, the levels of metals  
57 and metalloids elements derived mainly from these activities have increased considerably in the  
58 environment (Liu et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2018). Two sources of comparable contribution to metals and  
59 metalloids-laden fine and coarse particulate matter, especially in cities with trafficked urban areas, are  
60 motor vehicle tailpipe exhaust and non-exhaust emissions (Al Hanai et al., 2019; Dahl et al., 2006; Gietl et  
61 al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2001; Lenschow et al., 2001; Querol et al., 2004). The latter are associated with  
62 brake wear, road wear, tyre wear and road dust resuspension (Amato et al., 2014; Amato et al., 2016;  
63 Boogaard et al., 2011; Denier van der Gon et al., 2013; Keuken et al., 2013; Querol et al., 2007; Thorpe  
64 and Harrison, 2008). Whilst the tailpipe exhaust typically contains Pd, Rh and Pt, the non-exhaust emitted  
65 particles contain a complex mixture of metals and metalloids and some of them are used as markers. Zn is  
66 typically associated with tyre wear, Fe, Sb, Sn, Cu, Ba are dominant in brake wear, while Fe, Ti, Ca, K, Cs,  
67 Al, Rb, Cs are commonly found in re-suspended dust (Kwak et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2013; Varrica et  
68 al., 2013). Some essential elements play an important role in human health at specific concentrations,  
69 including transport of proteins, improvement of enzymes' activity and structure, and other biological system  
70 functions (Amaral et al., 2008). Selenium (Se), for example, serves as a fundamental trace element in  
71 children's growth and in protecting cells against oxidative damage (Fábelová et al., 2018; Ventura et al.,  
72 2005). Zinc (Zn) is an intracellular element engaged in DNA repair and genetic stability, and copper (Cu)  
73 is involved in the immune system and the development of collagen's neuronal connections and synthesis  
74 (Amaral et al., 2008). On the other hand, some metals and metalloids are toxic and accumulate in internal  
75 organs (Gil and Hernandez Jerez, 2009; Molina-Villalba et al., 2015). Cadmium (Cd) is a known  
76 carcinogenic (Group I) heavy metal, and chronic exposure is toxic to the kidneys (Satarug and Moore,  
77 2004). Arsenic (As) and lead (Pb) are ranked at the top of the list of the Agency for Toxic Substances and

78 Disease Registry (ATSDR, 2013). Studies revealed that heavy metals are neurotoxic and associated with  
79 impairment of the central nervous system (Chen et al., 2016). Moreover, some studies reported the  
80 association between metals exposure with detriments in attention and executive function (Bowler et al.,  
81 2007; Rafiee et al., 2020; Soetrisno and Delgado-Saborit, 2020).

82 The mechanisms mediating metals' toxic effects are multifactorial, but oxidative stress is suggested as one  
83 important pathway (Almeida Lopes et al., 2017). Metals generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as  
84 hydroxyl radicals (OH<sup>•</sup>) and non-radical species such as hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) (Halliwell and Cross,  
85 1994) through Fenton reactions (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019a). Metal-induced ROS might lead to an  
86 imbalance in the antioxidant system, subsequently causing lipid peroxidation and cellular injury (Farmand  
87 et al., 2005). Early biological effects of ROS might be detected by increased levels of malondialdehyde  
88 (MDA), a marker of lipid peroxidation, (mainly associated with cellular membrane damage) and 8-  
89 Hydroxydeoxyguanosine (8-OHdG), also known as 8-Oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-oxo-dG), a marker of  
90 DNA damage (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019a; Teichert et al., 2009).

91 Human biomonitoring (HBM) has been widely used as a reliable approach in human exposure assessment  
92 in the general population and occupational settings (Hoseini et al., 2018; Rafiee et al., 2018a; Rafiee et al.,  
93 2018b). Several biological matrices have been used in biomonitoring studies such as blood (Richmond-  
94 Bryant et al., 2014), urine (Hoseini et al., 2018; Rafiee et al., 2018a; Rafiee et al., 2018b), serum (Alimonti  
95 et al., 2007; Skalny et al., 2017), plasma (Vural et al., 2010), nails (Carneiro et al., 2011; Coelho et al.,  
96 2013), and hair (Fábelová et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2014; Rafiee et al., 2020; Soetrisno and Delgado-Saborit,  
97 2020; Varrica et al., 2014b; Zhu et al., 2018).

98 Because of some advantages over urine and blood, such as the high capacity to accumulate metals and  
99 metalloids over long-time periods, using hair allows researchers to monitor past and ongoing exposure to  
100 these pollutants (Amaral et al., 2008; Luo et al., 2014; Pan and Li, 2015). Moreover, hair is considered a  
101 non-invasive matrix and its transport, preparation, and analysis are more convenient than blood or urine  
102 (Drobyshev et al., 2017; Sazakli and Leotsinidis, 2017a; Zhu et al., 2018). Numerous biomonitoring studies  
103 have been investigating the exposure of the general population to metals and metalloids using hair, and in

104 different countries such as Pakistan (Eqani et al., 2018), Russia (Skalny et al., 2015a; Skalny et al., 2015b),  
105 China (Li et al., 2014), Nigeria (Nnorom et al., 2005), Iran (Rafiee et al., 2020) and Egypt (Saad and  
106 Hassanien, 2001). Some studies have focused on children and adolescents as sensitive population sub-  
107 groups (Drobyshev et al., 2017; Fáblová et al., 2018; Molina-Villalba et al., 2015; Peña-Fernández et al.,  
108 2014; Soetrisno and Delgado-Saborit, 2020; Varrica et al., 2014b). In addition, some studies have  
109 investigated the impact of environmental metals and metalloids exposure, such as living in mining areas  
110 (Barbieri et al., 2010; Pan and Li, 2015), industrialized areas (Nnorom et al., 2005) and near e-waste  
111 facilities (Soetrisno and Delgado-Saborit, 2020). Some other studies have investigated the effect of diet and  
112 lifestyle as potential factors affecting the variability of metals and metalloids concentrations in the human  
113 scalp hair (Shao et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018). In addition, some studies have investigated the association  
114 between short-term exposures and oxidative stress (Almeida Lopes et al., 2017; Bortey-Sam et al., 2018;  
115 Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019a), but studies on the effect of chronic exposure to metals and metalloids and  
116 oxidative stress biomarkers in the general population are scarce, and even more in the general population  
117 in low and middle-income countries. With this in mind, the present study aimed to:

- 118 1. characterize exposure to metals and metalloids in scalp hair samples from residents of Shiraz, Iran;
- 119 2. investigate factors that could have a potential impact on metals and metalloids levels in hair,  
120 including sex, age as well as environmental and lifestyle factors; and
- 121 3. assess the relationship between the levels of oxidative stress biomarkers, including  
122 malondialdehyde (MDA) and 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) in the urine with the  
123 corresponding metals and metalloids levels in the hair of Shiraz city residents.

## 124 **Materials and methods**

### 125 **Study area description**

126 The present cross-sectional study was implemented in Shiraz, the capital of Fars province and the sixth  
127 most populous city in Iran, with approximately 1.8 million inhabitants living in an area of about 240 km<sup>2</sup>.  
128 The city is enclosed by the mountains on its North, East, and Southeast sides, restricting air circulation. In

129 addition, there is an industrial park on the Southside of the city, which along with traffic congestion, has  
130 contributed to elevating air pollution in the city (Mirzaei et al., 2018; Shahsavani et al., 2017).

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### 132 **Subjects recruitment**

133 The cohort in this study comprised 110 males and 90 females, aged between 15 to 70, who were randomly  
134 selected to participate if they satisfied a set of criteria. Detailed information on the study recruitment are  
135 provided in (Rafiee et al., 2020). Briefly, the inclusion criteria required the subjects to be healthy with no  
136 chronic conditions, not occupationally exposed to metals and metalloids and must have been living in  
137 Shiraz's urban area for the last decade. In addition, given the study's nature, the subjects were required to  
138 have hair longer than 5 mm. Pregnant and breastfeeding women were excluded.

139 Following approved written consent to take part in this study, scalp hair samples were collected from  
140 participants to be analyzed for metals and metalloids concentrations and urine samples to be analyzed for  
141 markers of oxidative stress, including MDA and 8-OHdG. The Ethical Committee approved the present  
142 study at the Shiraz University of Medical Sciences (IR.SUMS.REC.1398.320).

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### 144 **Hair sampling and metals and metalloids identification**

145 Hair sampling was performed in June 2019 during the subjects' visits to the hairdresser salons for haircuts.  
146 Around 2.5 g of hair from 1-1.5 cm of each subject's scalp in both groups was collected using stainless-  
147 steel scissors (Rafiee et al., 2020). Hair samples were then stored in labelled polyethylene zip bags and sent  
148 to the laboratory for further analysis. Hair samples cleaning was performed based on the procedures  
149 developed by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). The method included dispersing hair  
150 samples in acetone for 10 minutes, followed by washing with ultra-pure water (Milli-pore, MA, France)  
151 and then washed with acetone. Detailed information on sample preparation and the digestion method was  
152 described in our previous work (Rafiee et al., 2020). Briefly, nitric acid 65% and perchloric acid 70%  
153 (Merck, Darmstadt Germany) were used for digestion. 100 mg sample was microwave digested using a

154 nitric acid-perchloric acid V/V 3:1 solution and then diluted with 18 MΩ cm demineralized water. The  
155 microwave digestion program is given in Table S1 (Supplementary information).

156 Quantification of 17 selected metals and metalloids, including Al, As, Cd, Cr, Hg, Fe, Mn, Cu, Pb, Zn, B,  
157 Ni, Be, Sb, Ba, Li, and Sn was performed using Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry  
158 (ICP-OES) with EOP flared end torch 2.5 mm (SPECTRO Analytical Instruments Inc. Germany). Details  
159 of the ICP-OES operating setup, as well as quality assurance and quality control protocols, are presented in  
160 Table S2 and S3, respectively.

### 161 **Determination of oxidative stress markers in urine samples**

162 The levels of MDA and 8-OHdG were determined in urine samples collected from the participants to  
163 investigate the relationship between environmental metals and metalloids exposure and markers of  
164 oxidative stress. Spot urine samples were collected in the middle of the day from subjects who donated hair  
165 samples. Urine samples were collected in polypropylene bottles, wrapped in foil, and stored at 4 °C in a  
166 portable fridge and transferred immediately to the laboratory for further analysis. At the laboratory, urine  
167 samples were first centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 10 minutes, and then supernatants were collected. Both  
168 markers were corrected for creatinine, determined by the Jaffé reaction method (Butler, 1975). The MDA  
169 equivalents were quantified from the formation of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances due to the lipid  
170 peroxidation in urine according to the method described in (Chatziargyriou and Dailianis, 2010). In  
171 summary, about 500 μL of urine was exposed to phorbol-myristate acetate (PMA) (10 μg mL<sup>-1</sup>). The  
172 samples were then centrifuged at 1200 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C and the supernatant was removed. After  
173 vortexing for 5 s, butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) at a concentration of 0.02% was added to prevent further  
174 lipids' peroxidation. In the last stage, the samples were incubated at 90-100 °C for 15 min and cooled at  
175 room temperature, centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min and measured spectrophotometrically at 535 nm.  
176 Oxidative stress ELISA kit (Zell Bio, GmbH., Germany) was used to determine the concentration of 8-  
177 OHdG in the urine based on the method described elsewhere (Ściskalska et al., 2014). In brief, 100 μL of  
178 conjugate 8-OHdG/ bovine serum albumin (BSA) were added to each of the 96-well plates of the ELISA

179 kit and incubated overnight at 4 °C and washed with water, followed by 200 µL blocking buffer and  
180 incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. 50 µL of samples and 50 µL 8-OHdG standards were added, and  
181 after 10 minutes of incubation, 100 µL of monoclonal anti-8-OHdG was added and incubated for 1 hour at  
182 room temperature, then washed three times by the addition of secondary antibody conjugated to 100 µL of  
183 horseradish peroxidase, followed by 1-hour incubation at room temperature. Next, 100 µL of substrate for  
184 peroxidase was added to the plate and incubated for 20 minutes. Then, 100 µL of reaction stop solution was  
185 added. Absorbance was spectrophotometrically measured at a wavelength of 450 nm. The amount of 8-  
186 OHdG was calculated by comparison with a standard curve determined from standards treated similarly to  
187 the samples.

#### 188 **Questionnaire to assess potential confounders**

189 The subjects were given a questionnaire to identify possible confounders of chronic metals and metalloids  
190 exposure based on a previous study (Rafiee et al., 2020) to self-report their demographic (age, sex, height,  
191 weight, BMI), socioeconomic and health (types of diet, use of health supplements) status. In addition,  
192 lifestyle characteristics that influence their environmental exposure (cigarette and water-pipe smoking,  
193 environmental tobacco smoke, amalgam tooth filling, traffic density near home, frequency of hair product  
194 use, insecticide use) were also collected.

195

#### 196 **Statistical approach**

197 In this study, SPSS 21.0 package software (SPSS Inc. Chicago, IL) and Graph Pad Prism software 8.0 were  
198 used to perform statistical analysis on metals and metalloids data in hair samples and oxidative stress  
199 markers in urine samples. The normality of the data distribution was performed using the Kolmogorov–  
200 Smirnov test. Sociodemographic and environmental differences according to sex were assessed with an  
201 independent t-test for numeric variables and the Chi-squared test for categorical ones. Mann–Whitney U  
202 test was employed to assess differences in metals and metalloids levels in hair and markers of oxidative  
203 stress among studied groups. Multiple linear regression analysis was applied to evaluate the association



204 between concentrations of oxidative stress biomarkers and individual metals and metalloids levels in hair  
205 samples as well as covariate factors including sex, age, smoking status, and teeth filling with amalgam.  
206 Oxidative stress biomarkers concentrations were treated as continuous variables (MDA per 1  $\mu\text{mol/mol}$   
207 creatinine and 8-OHdG per 1 ng/mmol creatinine). Individual metals and metalloids concentrations in hair  
208 samples were considered continuous variables (per 1  $\mu\text{g/g}$ ). Covariates were considered categorical for  
209 sex (male/female), cigarette smoking (no/yes), waterpipe smoking (no/yes), and teeth filling with amalgam  
210 (no/yes). Age was considered a continuous variable (per 1 year). Collinearity between variables was  
211 analyzed by conducting the spearman correlation test. The pairwise correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) of  $< 0.5$  was  
212 used as the indicator for introducing variables in the model.

213

## 214 **Results**

### 215 **Participants' characterizations**

216 Results of the socio-demographic characterization, health status, and lifestyle habits of the studied men and  
217 women participants are shown in Table 1. Significant differences were observed among males and females  
218 regarding demographic characterizations such as age, height, weight and BMI ( $P<0.05$ ). All participants  
219 were educated, and 84% of them held tertiary education degrees. According to the information gathered  
220 from the questionnaires and face-to-face interviews, 44% of subjects were smokers (cigarettes), and 29%  
221 were water-pipe smokers, with a higher prevalence among males ( $p<0.05$ ). In addition, 34% of subjects  
222 were classified as passive smokers, with a higher prevalence among women ( $p<0.05$ ) (Table 1). No sex  
223 differences were observed for teeth filling with amalgam ( $p>0.05$ ), but it was considerably higher among  
224 smokers than non-smokers in both males and females participants ( $p<0.05$ ). The largest proportion of  
225 subjects (58%) lived in houses with medium residential traffic levels, but more women lived in areas with  
226 low residential traffic, compared to men participating in this study ( $p<0.05$ ). Sex differences were also  
227 observed according to hair cosmetic products usage, with 70% of women reporting to use them every day  
228 or once per two days, while only 30% reported cosmetic usage with that frequency ( $p<0.05$ ). No sex

229 differences were observed for taking health supplements, with 57% taking these, nor was observed for fish  
230 consumption, with 58% of subjects reporting eating fish ( $p>0.05$ ).

### 231 **Distribution of metals and metalloids concentrations among participants**

232 Results of selected metals and metalloids levels in the hair samples of studied subjects are given in Table  
233 2. The highest and lowest mean metals and metalloids levels were observed for B and As, respectively. The  
234 order of mean metals and metalloids levels in the hair samples of the studied subjects was as follows: B>  
235 Zn> Al> Fe> Si> Ba> Cr> Hg> Pb> Mn> Cu> Ag> Cd> Ni> Sn> As. The mean metals and metalloids  
236 concentrations were significantly different between men and women participants ( $p<0.05$ ) for some metals.  
237 The mean levels of Ag, Ba, and Cd were considerably higher in the hair samples of females than males  
238 (Mann-Whitney U test,  $p<0.05$ ). On the other hand, the mean concentrations of Cr, Fe, Ni, Pb, and Si of  
239 males' hair samples were significantly higher than the corresponding values in females (Mann-Whitney U  
240 test,  $p<0.05$ ). No significant differences were observed for Al, As, B, Cu, Hg, Mn, Sn, and Zn levels  
241 between the studied groups (Mann-Whitney U test,  $p>0.05$ ). Levels of Hg and Ag in the hair of subjects  
242 who had dental amalgam fillings were significantly higher than those with no teeth fillings with amalgam  
243 ( $p<0.05$ , Fig 1). Figure 2 shows the results of metals and metalloids levels in the hair of smokers and non-  
244 smokers subjects. Significant differences in the levels of metals and metalloids, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Zn, and Pb,  
245 were observed between smokers and non-smokers subjects in both studied groups (Mann-Whitney U test,  
246  $p<0.05$ ). However, no significant differences were observed for Cd, As, Ba, Mn, and Sn levels between  
247 smokers and non-smokers (Mann-Whitney U test,  $p>0.05$ ).

### 248 249 **Urinary MDA and 8-OHdG in studied groups**

250 Results of MDA and 8-OHdG levels in the urine of studied subjects are provided in Table 3 and Figures 3  
251 and 4. Significant differences were observed between men and women regarding urinary MDA and 8-  
252 OHdG levels (Mann-Whitney U test,  $p<0.05$ ). Levels of MDA and 8-OHdG in the urine of smoker subjects  
253 were significantly higher than in non-smokers in both groups (Mann-Whitney U test,  $p<0.05$ ). The median

254 MDA and 8-OHdG in smokers' urine were 5 and 5.5 times higher than the corresponding values in non-  
255 smokers, respectively.

256

### 257 **Association between exposure to metals and metalloids and oxidative stress biomarkers**

258 Total metals and metalloids concentrations correlated with the levels of 8-OHdG and MDA were inversely  
259 correlated with age (Table S4). The biomarker of oxidative stress (8-OHdG) is correlated with Al, B, Cr,  
260 Cu, Fe, Hg, Ni, Pb, Si ( $p<0.001$ ) and Zn ( $p<0.05$ ). Likewise, MDA is correlated with Ag, Al, B, Cd, Cr,  
261 Cu, Fe, Hg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Si ( $p<0.01$ ) and with As, Ba, Zn ( $p<0.05$ ). Age is inversely correlated with As, Si,  
262 Sn ( $p<0.01$ ) and Ag, Al and Ba ( $p<0.05$ ).

263 Table 4 presents the result of regression analysis to evaluate the effects of exposure to metals and metalloids  
264 on oxidative stress biomarkers considering sex, age, smoking status, and teeth filling with amalgam as  
265 covariates. The levels of Si had significant positive associations with MDA concentration, while Sn showed  
266 a negative association ( $p\text{-value}<0.05$ ). An association between Cr, Cu, Fe with MDA was also suggested  
267 ( $p<0.10$ ).

268 Regarding the 8-OHdG, higher concentrations were significantly associated with increased levels of Al,  
269 Cu, Si ( $p<0.05$ ) and Cr ( $p<0.1$ ), whereas higher levels of Ba, Sn, and Zn in hair samples were significantly  
270 associated with lower levels of 8-OHdG ( $p<0.05$ ). In addition, sex was also found to be significantly  
271 associated with higher levels of 8-OHdG, with males showing higher 8-OHdG concentrations.

272 Significant associations were observed for cigarette and water-pipe smoking for both MDA and 8-OHdG  
273 biomarker levels, with higher biomarker concentrations in smokers.

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## 279 **Discussion**

### 280 **Concentrations of metals and metalloids in hair samples**

281 The concentrations of metals and metalloids measured in the current study are compared with values  
282 reported in the literature from Tehran, a nearby megacity (Rafiee et al., 2020), as well as with concentrations  
283 reported elsewhere. The levels of Ag, Al and As were very similar to those reported from Tehran subjects  
284 (Rafiee et al., 2020), while concentrations of As in this study were higher than those reported in Portugal  
285 (Coelho et al., 2014), Greece (Sazakli and Leotsinidis, 2017b) and Italy (Varrica et al., 2014a). Thus,  
286 exposure to As in Iran appears to be associated with drinking water and dietary intake (Alamdar et al., 2019;  
287 Derakhshan et al., 2018; Rahmdel et al., 2018; Torghabeh et al., 2019). Concentrations of Ni are higher  
288 than those reported in Portugal, Greece and Italy (Coelho et al., 2013; Sazakli and Leotsinidis, 2017a;  
289 Varrica et al., 2014b), although lower than concentrations reported in Taiyuan (China) (Zhu et al., 2018).  
290 Concentrations of Hg were higher than those reported in Tehran (Rafiee et al., 2020), China and Spain  
291 (Molina-Villalba et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2018). A similar trend was observed for Zn (Rafiee et al., 2020;  
292 Tamburo et al., 2016; Varrica et al., 2014b; Zhu et al., 2018), Ni (Rafiee et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2018) and  
293 Pb (E et al., 2016; Peña-Fernández et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2018). Although the concentration of Pb in the  
294 hair in Shiraz are lower than those reported in Tehran (Rafiee et al., 2020). The study in Shiraz reported Fe  
295 levels higher than those previously reported in Tehran (Rafiee et al., 2020) and Sant' Antioco (Italy)  
296 (Varrica et al., 2014b), although lower than those measured in Taiyuan (China) (Zhu et al., 2018).  
297 Most probably, the routes of exposure to Pb in Shiraz are similar to those identified in Tehran, mainly being  
298 dietary, associated with the use of lead water pipes (Rabin, 2008) and drinking contaminated underground  
299 water (because of electronic waste management) (Li and Achal, 2020). Other routes might be inhalation of  
300 re-suspended contaminated soil (due to wastewater irrigation) (Qishlaqi et al., 2008) and road dust (e.g.  
301 from disk brakes) (Sanderson et al., 2014; Sanderson et al., 2016). Finally, dermal exposure from the  
302 application of hair and cosmetic products (Iwegbue et al., 2016; Salama, 2016) and dietary intake (Galal-  
303 Gorchev, 1993) could also contribute to Pb exposure in the studied population. Pb in hair was higher in  
304 males than in females (Table 2), consistent with some studies (Ashraf et al., 1995; Rafiee et al., 2020; Sanna

305 et al., 2003; Szykowska et al., 2015), whereas other studies observed higher Pb concentrations in females  
306 (Peña-Fernández et al., 2014; Tamburo et al., 2016). The elevated concentrations of Pb in men are most  
307 likely because of the use of hair dyes that contain Pb (Zhu et al., 2018). Exposure to Hg could be attributed  
308 to participants having teeth filling with a Hg amalgam (Rafiee et al., 2020), dietary exposures, e.g. from  
309 canned tuna (Zhu et al., 2018), and industrial activities (Zhu et al., 2018). Zn exposure could be attributed  
310 to males' use of health supplements (Rafiee et al., 2020). Exposure to Zn through inhalation of PM<sub>10</sub>  
311 (Parvizimehr et al., 2020) and re-suspended soil particles (Jahandari, 2020; Keshavarzi et al., 2015;  
312 Moghtaderi et al., 2020; Moghtaderi et al., 2019; Torghabeh et al., 2019) cannot be ignored, as well as from  
313 dietary intake (Ahmadi and Ziarati, 2015; Derakhshan et al., 2018; Rahmdel et al., 2018; Sepehri et al.,  
314 2018). The intake of Fe could be attributed to the use of health supplements, inhalation of particulate matter  
315 or dietary intake of kebab and grilled sheep's liver rich in iron and popular with males (Rafiee et al., 2020).

### 316 **Markers of oxidative stress**

317 The concentrations of MDA and 8-OHdG in the present study (Table 3) are higher than concentrations  
318 measured in the general population in Ghana (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018). MDA concentrations in Shiraz are  
319 also higher than those reported in a rural population in China (Yang et al., 2015). Similarly, 8-OHdG were  
320 higher than those reported for university staff in Verona (Italy) (Zanolin et al., 2015) and a Korean  
321 population living at different distances from an oil spillage in Korea (Kim et al., 2017). On the other hand,  
322 concentrations of 8-OHdG are similar to those reported in school children in Taiwan (Wong et al., 2005),  
323 college students in China (Lu et al., 2016) and the general population in Japan (Kimura et al., 2006) and  
324 Turkey (Basaran et al., 2020).

### 325 **Association between metals and metalloids exposure and markers of oxidative stress**

326 No associations are observed between chronic exposure to Ag, B, Mn, and any of the two oxidative stress  
327 biomarkers studied. No associations were observed either for Ag with MDA in a group of subjects exposed  
328 to Ag from local e-waste activities (Li et al., 2020b). A study in a Turkish population neither found an  
329 association between B and 8-OHdG (Basaran et al., 2020). Results of our study are consistent with results

330 reported in a study in a pregnant population in Bangladesh, in which chronic Mn exposure was not  
331 associated with 8-OHdG (Engstrom et al., 2010).

332 This study shows that chronic Fe exposure is associated with MDA but not with 8-OHdG. A randomized  
333 controlled trial study supplementing Fe in lactating mothers found neither an association between Fe  
334 exposure and 8-OHdG (Jorgensen et al., 2017). On the other hand, a study conducted on asthmatic children  
335 found a significant association between Fe and MDA concentrations (Kocyigit et al., 2004).

336 Chronic Al exposure was associated with increased levels of 8-OHdG, but not MDA, which is consistent  
337 with results reported in a Japanese study for short-term Al exposure, although in their case, the association  
338 was suggestive ( $p>0.10$ ) (Kimura et al., 2006). On the other hand, the Japanese study shows a positive  
339 association for short-term As exposure with 8-OHdG, consistent with He et al (2020) and other study of  
340 chronic As exposure in pregnant women in Bangladesh (Engstrom et al., 2010), and at odds with our  
341 observations. In contrast, a study conducted among school children in Taiwan, neither found an association  
342 between short-term exposure and 8-OHdG (Wong et al., 2005), consistent with our observations.

343 This study shows an inverse association between chronic Ba exposure and 8-OHdG, but not for MDA.  
344 Domingo-Relloso et al (2019) did not find any association with MDA either, but found a significant positive  
345 association between short-term Ba exposure and 8-OHdG (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b).

346 Chronic Cd exposure did not show any association with MDA or 8-OHdG in this study. Whilst Domingo-  
347 Relloso et al (2019) did not observe any association for 8-OHdG either, they report an association with  
348 MDA for short-term Cd exposure (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b). On the other hand, a positive association  
349 was reported between short-term Cd exposure and 8-OHdG levels in a study in Wuhan (He et al., 2020),  
350 Korea (Eom et al., 2017) and chronic exposure in rural Bangladesh (Engstrom et al., 2010).

351 This study shows a suggestive ( $p<0.10$ ) association between chronic Cr exposure and urinary MDA and 8-  
352 OHdG concentrations. This is consistent with observations for short-term Cr exposure and 8-OHdG in  
353 Taiwanese school children (Wong et al., 2005) and the Japanese general population (Kimura et al., 2006),  
354 which show a positive association ( $p<0.05$ ). On the other hand, no associations were reported for short-  
355 term Cr exposure with MDA or 8-OHdG in the Spanish Hortega study (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b).

356 Chronic Cu exposure shows an association with 8-OHdG, whilst the association is only suggestive ( $p>0.10$ )  
357 for MDA. In contrast, no associations were reported between short-term Cu exposure and 8-OHdG nor  
358 MDA in the Spanish Hortega study (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b), nor was it found for 8-OHdG in a  
359 Japanese population study (Kimura et al., 2006).

360 No association was reported between chronic Hg or Ni exposure and MDA or 8-OHdG levels (Table 4),  
361 consistent with results for short-term exposure in a Japanese study, although in their case, the association  
362 with Ni was suggestive ( $p>0.10$ ) (Kimura et al., 2006).

363 He et al (2020) showed a significant dose-dependent relationship between urinary Pb with 8-OHdG. In this  
364 study, whilst Pb concentrations in hair show a significant correlation with 8-OHdG (Table S1); results of  
365 the regression model that take into account the effect of other covariates, do not show any dose-dependent  
366 association (Table 4). Our results are consistent with observations in a Japanese study (Kimura et al., 2006).

367 This study shows a positive association between chronic Si exposure and MDA and 8-OHdG  
368 concentrations. On the other hand, chronic Sn exposure is inversely associated with MDA and 8-OHdG  
369 concentrations, which is at odds with a study assessing the effect of metals on AHDH in children, which  
370 reported positive correlations instead (Li et al., 2020a).

371 An inverse association between chronic Zn exposure and 8-OHdG, but not with MDA, is at odds with the  
372 Spanish Hortega study results, which report positive associations between short-term Zn exposure and both  
373 MDA and 8-OHdG (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b), whilst no associations were reported in a Japanese  
374 population study (Kimura et al., 2006).

375 The differences observed between observations of the current study with the literature might be related to  
376 the fact that different matrices were used to characterize metal exposure (e.g. hair vs urine or blood); to the  
377 fact that our study captures chronic exposure, whilst the other studies reflect short-term exposure. E.g. As,  
378 Cr, Ni tend to be excreted quickly from the body through urine. Therefore, urinary concentrations represent  
379 short-term exposure (Kuo et al., 2003). It can also be related to the covariates used to adjust each model,  
380 which although most of them try to capture socioeconomic factors, the variables themselves might vary  
381 among the different studies presented. Finally, although these studies examine the effect of exposure to

382 metals on oxidative stress biomarkers, no information on other environmental exposures is considered in  
383 these studies, which might be (at least partially) driving the associations observed. All these factors could  
384 be important determinants explaining the differences observed.

385 Age has not been identified as an important covariate in the regression analysis in this study (Table 4),  
386 despite showing an inverse correlation in the Pearson analysis (Table S1). In the study by Bortey-Sam et  
387 al. (2018), only Co correlated statistically with age, but age was not identified as a significant covariate for  
388 any of the other metals analyzed in the Ghanaian study (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018), consistent with our  
389 results. The link between the ageing factor and 8-OHdG has been debatable (Miwa et al., 2004b; Toraason  
390 et al., 2003; Wong et al., 2005).

391 Sex has been identified as a significant covariate for the 8-OHdG analysis only, but not for the MDA.  
392 Differential sex effects have been reported when comparing both oxidative biomarker concentrations in the  
393 present study (Table 3). The effect of sex on oxidative stress levels warrants further investigation, as  
394 conflicting results are reported in the various studies examined (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018; Eom et al., 2017;  
395 Kimura et al., 2006; Wong et al., 2005; Zanolin et al., 2015). This might indicate that the sex differences  
396 observed in this study might not truly reflect sex inherent differences but could be attributed to other factors,  
397 e.g. socioeconomic or exposures to other environmental factors not considered in the present study.

398 Figures 3 and 4 show that smokers have higher levels of oxidative stress biomarkers 8-OHdG and MDA,  
399 respectively. Consistent with this observation, the regression analysis highlights smoking cigarettes and  
400 water-pipe as significant contributing factors to increased ROS damage, with increased levels of MDA and  
401 8-OHdG (Table 4). This is consistent with results in several studies that report significantly higher  
402 concentrations of these ROS biomarkers in smokers (Tagesson et al., 1996; Yang et al., 2015; Zanolin et  
403 al., 2015). In contrast, no smoking effect was observed in 8-OHdG concentrations collected from a sample  
404 of general population in Japan (Kimura et al., 2006). The complexity of cigarette type, quality of tobacco  
405 and compounds produced during passive smoking might explain the difference across studies.

406 Amalgam filling has not been identified as a significant factor explaining elevated MDA or 8-OHdG  
407 concentrations in the present study (Table 4). This is consistent with the study by de Almeida Lopes et al



408 (2017), in which the correlation between blood levels of Pb, Cd and Hg was not statistically significant with  
409 MDA in environmentally exposed Brazilian adults, even though the Hg levels were higher in subjects  
410 having amalgam fillings.

#### 411 **Limitations and strengths**

412 Other factors that might be associated with increase oxidative stress might have not been captured in the  
413 current study design. For instance, urinary 8-OHdG levels are susceptible to environmental pollutant  
414 exposure, such as diesel exhaust emissions, electronic waste dismantling (Wang et al., 2010), and cooking  
415 fumes (Ke et al., 2009). Such factors might also contribute to the high oxidative stress biomarker  
416 concentrations obtained in this study. Another limitation of our study was using spot urine samples to assess  
417 the association between ROS markers with metals and metalloids. Ideally, 24-h pooled or fasting urine  
418 samples should be employed to assess biomarkers of oxidative stress, especially when including smokers  
419 in the population under study (Zanolin et al., 2015). However, Miwa et al (2004) studied the diurnal  
420 variability of 8-OHdG and concluded that a morning spot urine sample could be used to measure 8-OHdG  
421 instead of inconvenient 24-h sampling, despite the inherent variability in the biomarker excretion across  
422 the day (Miwa et al., 2004a).

423 This study reports chronic exposure to metals in an urban population from a middle-income country in the  
424 Middle East, providing valuable information about metal exposures for a population where such evidence  
425 is scarce. In addition, it has also analyzed levels of two different oxidative stress biomarkers and analyzed  
426 the associations between chronic metal exposures and oxidative stress. Most of the available studies focus  
427 on short-term exposures, whilst information on such associations on chronic exposures is very limited, even  
428 more from low and middle-income countries in the Middle East or elsewhere. Therefore, this study provides  
429 valuable evidence to evaluate chronic exposure to metals in this region of the world and their effects on  
430 oxidative stress.

#### 431 **Conclusion**

432 The carcinogenic effects due to chronic exposure to metals is not well characterized. However, it is  
433 generally assumed that the concept of additivity applies when the exposure is associated with low-level

434 chemical mixtures (Hartwig and Schwerdtle, 2002). This study shows that urban residents of Shiraz, one  
435 of the main urban centers in the Middle East, are chronically exposed to elevated concentrations of As, Ni,  
436 Hg and Pb. Concentrations of MDA are lower than concentrations reported in other studies, whilst  
437 concentrations of 8-OHdG are intermediate. Results of regression analyses assessing the association  
438 between urinary ROS markers with metals and metalloids, adjusted for other confounders, highlight that  
439 Al, Cu, Si and Sn are associated with 8-OHdG concentrations, while Cr is suggestive of an association with  
440 both MDA and 8-OHdG. In addition, smoking cigarettes and water-pipe is considered a significant risk  
441 factor increasing the concentrations of both ROS biomarkers (MDA and 8-OHdG).  
442 Given that several metals have been significantly associated with ROS biomarkers and considering that  
443 ROS might be a significant factor in the etiology of many health diseases, further research of the health  
444 effect of metal in dose-effect relationships of environmentally exposed subjects should be implemented.

445

446 **Declaration**

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450 **Conflict of Interest:**

451 Authors declare that they do not have any competing financial interests in relation to this study.

452 **Availability of data and material**

453 Authors d Not applicable.

454 **Code availability**

455 Not applicable.

456 **Authors' contributions**

457 **Ata Rafiee:** Conceptualization, Methodology development, Formal Analysis, Writing- Original draft  
458 preparation, Reviewing and Editing. **Juana Maria Delgado-Saborit:** Writing- Reviewing and Editing.  
459 **Noel J. Aquilina:** Writing. **Hoda Amiri:** Data curation. **Mohammad Hoseini:** Funding acquisition and  
460 Project administration.

461 **Ethics approval**

462 The Ethical Committee approved the present study at the Shiraz University of Medical Sciences  
463 (IR.SUMS.REC.1398.320).

464 **Consent to participate**

465 All subjects were informed about study's objectives and gave written consent to participate in this study.

466

467 **Figures legend:**

468 **Figure 1.** Ag and Hg levels in hair of subjects who are smoker/non-smokers and with/without amalgam  
469 teeth fillings ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )

470 **Figure 2.** Sum of metals and metalloids, Pb, and Cd levels in hair of smoker and non-smoker subjects  
471 ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )

472 **Figure 3:** Comparison of urinary 8-OHdG levels ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) in (a) men and women and (b) smokers  
473 and non-smokers

474 **Figure 4:** Comparison of urinary MDA levels ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) in (a) smokers and non-smokers and (b)  
475 men and women

476

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**Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics and health status of the participants stratified by sex**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Men (n=110)</b>	<b>Women (n=90)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>	<b>Group differences p-value</b>
<b>Age (years)</b>	38 ± 10	29 ± 12	35 ± 14	<0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Height (cm)</b>	179 ± 6	160 ± 8	172 ± 8	<0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Weight (kg)</b>	78 ± 11	61 ± 9	70 ± 13	<0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	26 ± 4	24 ± 5	24 ± 4	<0.0019 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Education (%)</b>				0.9156 <sup>b</sup>
High school Diploma	17	15	16	
Bachelor	45	45	45	
Master	38	40	39	
<b>Cigarette smoking (%)</b>				0.0006 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	55	31	44	
No	45	69	56	
<b>Water-pipe smoking (%)</b>				0.0389 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	31	27	29	
No	69	73	71	
<b>Environmental Tobacco Smoke (%)</b>				0.0161 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	25	41	34	
No	75	59	66	
<b>Teeth filling with amalgam (%)</b>				0.4335 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	74	69	72	
No	26	31	28	
<b>Traffic situation near the place of residence (%)</b>				0.0219 <sup>b</sup>
Low	20	35	26	
Medium	60	55	58	
High	20	10	16	
<b>Hair cosmetic products usage (%)</b>				<0.0001 <sup>b</sup>
Everyday	20	25	21	
Once per two days	10	45	26	
Once a week	15	20	18	
Seldom	55	10	35	
<b>Taking health supplement (%)</b>				0.0318 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	60	53	57	
No	40	47	43	
<b>Fish consumption (%)</b>				0.4744 <sup>b</sup>
Yes	55	60	58	
No	45	40	42	

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a) t-student independent means test; b) Chi-squared test

**Table 2. MM levels in hair of the participants ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ) stratified by sex**

Metal	Total (N=200)		Men (N=110)		Women (N=90)	
	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)
<b>Ag</b>	3 $\pm$ 2.14 (0.5-9)	2.05 (1.85-2.27)	1.7 $\pm$ 0.9 (0.4-5)	1.5 (1.3-1.6)	<b>4 <math>\pm</math> 2.5</b> <b>(0.7-9)</b>	3.1 (2.65-3.6)
<b>Al</b>	97 $\pm$ 40 (19.6-215)	89 (83.7-94.6)	101 $\pm$ 42.5 (20-215)	92 (92-100)	93 $\pm$ 37 (28-215.6)	85.5 (78.3-93.3)
<b>As</b>	0.3 $\pm$ 0.18 (0.1-1)	0.27 (0.25-0.3)	0.32 $\pm$ 0.18 (0.1-1)	0.29 (0.27-0.32)	0.3 $\pm$ 0.18 (0.1-1)	0.26 (0.23-0.29)
<b>B</b>	271.5 $\pm$ 139 (8-613)	224 (203-248)	288.6 $\pm$ 142.9 (44.5-613)	245 (217-276)	250.5 $\pm$ 132 (8-454.5)	202 (238.4)
<b>Ba</b>	24 $\pm$ 24 (3-112)	17 (14.9-18.6)	15 $\pm$ 13 (3-88)	12 (11-13.5)	<b>35 <math>\pm</math> 29</b> <b>(7-112)</b>	24.6 (20.5-29.5)
<b>Cd</b>	2.2 $\pm$ 3 (0.2-13)	1.3 (1.1-1.43)	1 $\pm$ 1.2 (0.2-13)	0.82 (0.73-0.9)	<b>3.7 <math>\pm</math> 4</b> <b>(0.5-13)</b>	2.14 (1.7-2.7)
<b>Cr</b>	21 $\pm$ 18 (2-79.5)	14.6 (12.9-16.5)	<b>26.3 <math>\pm</math> 21.5</b> <b>(2-79.5)</b>	18 (14.9-21)	14 $\pm$ 8 (3-27)	11.4 (10-13.4)
<b>Cu</b>	4.9 $\pm$ 3 (0.9-19)	4 (3.7-4.4)	5 $\pm$ 3 (0.9-19)	4.2 (3.7-4.65)	5 $\pm$ 3 (0.9-14)	3.9 (3.4-4.5)
<b>Fe</b>	69 $\pm$ 37 (8-215)	59.5 (55-64.5)	<b>76 <math>\pm</math> 35</b> <b>(23-215)</b>	69 (64-75)	61 $\pm$ 38 (8-177.5)	49.5 (43.1-57.04)
<b>Hg</b>	16.5 $\pm$ 11 (1.5-48.5)	12 (10.45-13.5)	18 $\pm$ 12 (1.6-48.5)	12.3 (10-15)	14.8 $\pm$ 10 (2-37)	11.4 (9.6-13.4)
<b>Mn</b>	5 $\pm$ 4.3 (1-23)	3.6 (3.3-4)	5 $\pm$ 3.3 (1-17)	3.6 (3.1-4.2)	5 $\pm$ 5.2 (1-23.3)	3.7 (3.1-4.3)
<b>Ni</b>	2 $\pm$ 1.9 (0.2-11)	1.35 (1.2-1.5)	<b>2.5 <math>\pm</math> 2.24</b> <b>(0.5-11)</b>	1.8 (1.5-2.1)	1.36 $\pm$ 1.1 (0.2-3.5)	1 (0.82-1.17)
<b>Pb</b>	7.6 $\pm$ 5 (0.7-24)	6 (5.5-6.7)	<b>9 <math>\pm</math> 5.2</b> <b>(0.7-24)</b>	7 (6.2-8.3)	6 $\pm$ 3.7 (1-18)	5 (4.4-5.65)
<b>Si</b>	34.5 $\pm$ 12 (12.6-67.5)	32.5 (31-34)	<b>37 <math>\pm</math> 11</b> <b>(12.5-66)</b>	35 (33-37)	32 $\pm$ 13 (15-67.4)	30 (27.5-32.2)
<b>Sn</b>	0.4 $\pm$ 0.19 (.03-1)	0.32 (0.2-0.38)	0.35 $\pm$ 0.16 (0.03-0.8)	0.3 (0.2-0.3)	0.4 $\pm$ 0.21 (0.1-0.8)	0.34 (0.3-0.4)
<b>Zn</b>	199 $\pm$ 93 (79-1002)	183 (173-193)	206 $\pm$ 107 (79-1002)	187 (173-203)	190 $\pm$ 73 (114-336)	178 (165-191.5)

799 Bold represents the highest concentration between the two sexes ( $p < 0.05$ ).

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802 **Table 3. Urinary levels ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) of stress oxidative markers in the studied groups stratified**  
 803 **by gender**

Markers	Total		Men		Women		Group differences p-value
	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)	Mean $\pm$ S.D (Min-Max)	Geometric mean (95% CI)	
<b>8-OHdG</b>	3.8 $\pm$ 2.35 (0.35-8.35)	2.9 (2.45-3.34)	4.97 $\pm$ 2.03 (1.12-8.35)	4.47 (3.92-5.1)	2.6 $\pm$ 2.03 (0.35-7.12)	1.83 (1.45-2.31)	<b>&lt;0.0001<sup>a</sup></b>
<b>MDA</b>	214 $\pm$ 134 (20.6-522)	167 (145-192.5)	261 $\pm$ 126 (57.5-522)	230 (200-263.7)	167 $\pm$ 125 (20.6-518)	122 (97.5-152)	<b>&lt;0.0001<sup>a</sup></b>

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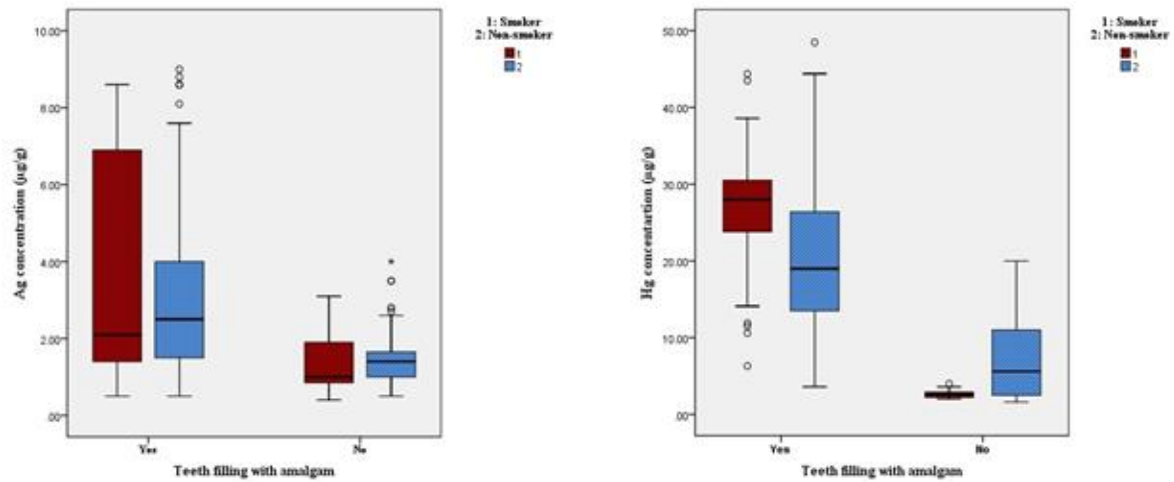
805 **Table 4. Association between oxidative stress biomarkers and chronic exposure to MM and other**  
 806 **potential confounders**

MM Levels and covariates	MDA ( $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ creatinine)			8-OHdG (ng/mmol creatinine)		
	Estimate	[95% Conf. Interval]		Estimate	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Ag	0.193	-0.250	1.547	0.079	-0.805	1.607
Al	0.171	-0.008	0.069	<b>0.226</b>	<b>0.010</b>	<b>0.112</b>
As	-0.019	-8.862	7.014	0.008	-10.093	11.209
B	-0.066	-0.015	0.008	-0.081	-0.021	0.008
Ba	-0.161	-0.121	0.019	<b>-0.203</b>	<b>-0.190</b>	<b>-0.003</b>
Cd	0.082	-0.435	0.810	.038	-0.704	0.967
Cr	<i>0.200</i>	<i>-0.008</i>	<i>0.156</i>	<i>0.176</i>	<i>-0.012</i>	<i>0.209</i>
Cu	<i>0.207</i>	<i>-0.072</i>	<i>1.181</i>	<b>0.355</b>	<b>0.593</b>	<b>2.275</b>
Fe	<i>0.275</i>	<i>-.008</i>	<i>0.129</i>	0.209	-0.023	0.161
Hg	0.051	-0.087	0.151	0.090	-0.074	0.245
Mn	0.000	-0.421	0.422	-0.012	-0.597	0.534
Ni	-0.134	-1.259	0.349	-0.080	-1.485	0.672
Pb	-0.124	-0.492	0.131	-0.052	-0.532	0.305
Si	<b>0.322</b>	<b>0.032</b>	<b>0.341</b>	<b>0.358</b>	<b>0.106</b>	<b>0.520</b>
Sn	<b>-0.329</b>	<b>-20.249</b>	<b>-4.347</b>	<b>-0.393</b>	<b>-32.746</b>	<b>-11.409</b>
Zn	-0.097	-0.017	0.004	<b>-0.142</b>	<b>-0.029</b>	<b>-0.001</b>
Sex (m/f)	-0.100	-4.573	1.715	<b>-0.212</b>	<b>-8.790</b>	<b>-0.353</b>
Age	0.024	-0.069	0.094	-0.030	-0.134	0.086
Cigarette Smoking (n/y)	<b>0.402</b>	<b>0.396</b>	<b>2.008</b>	<b>0.382</b>	<b>0.154</b>	<b>0.542</b>
Waterpipe Smoking (n/y)	<b>0.302</b>	<b>0.117</b>	<b>2.859</b>	<b>0.281</b>	<b>0.182</b>	<b>0.908</b>
Teeth filling with amalgam (y/n)	-0.024	-3.448	2.693	0.025	-3.534	4.706

807 **Bold type font in grey cell represent regression coefficients with p-value <0.05. Italic font represents coefficients**  
 808 **with p-value<0.1. Red font represents positive associations; blue font represents negative associations.**

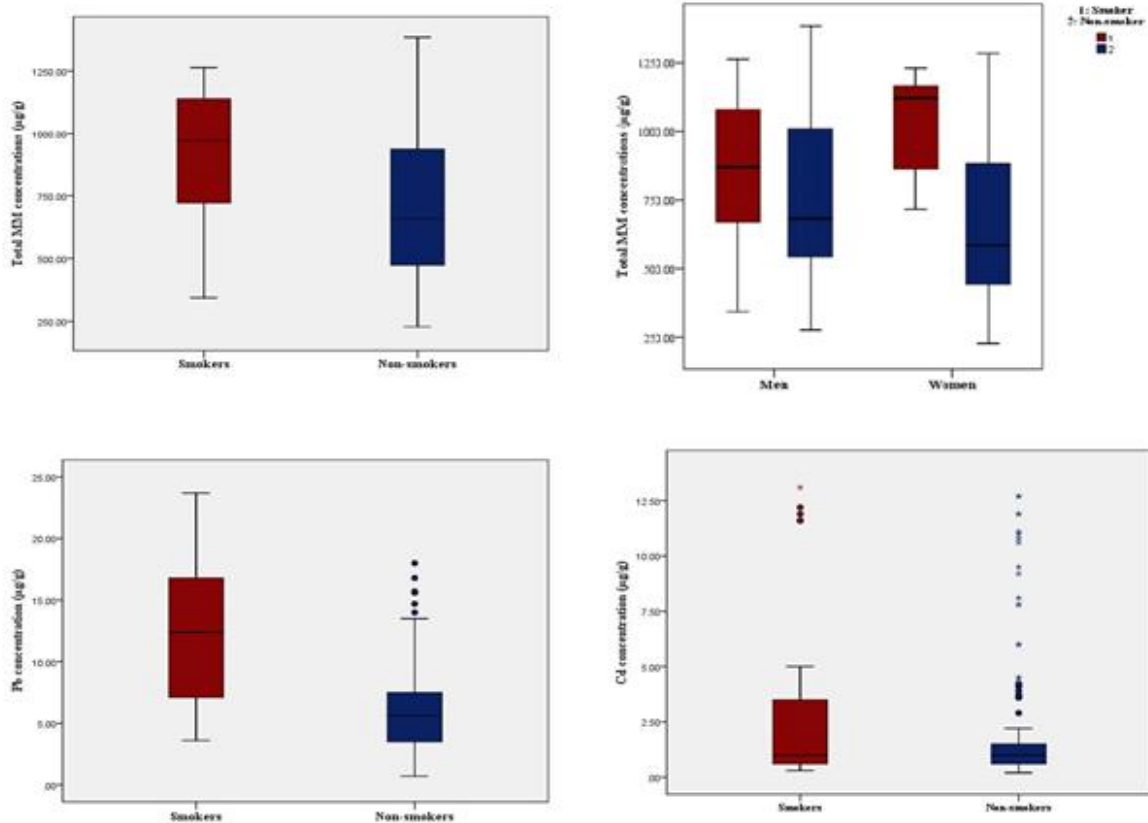
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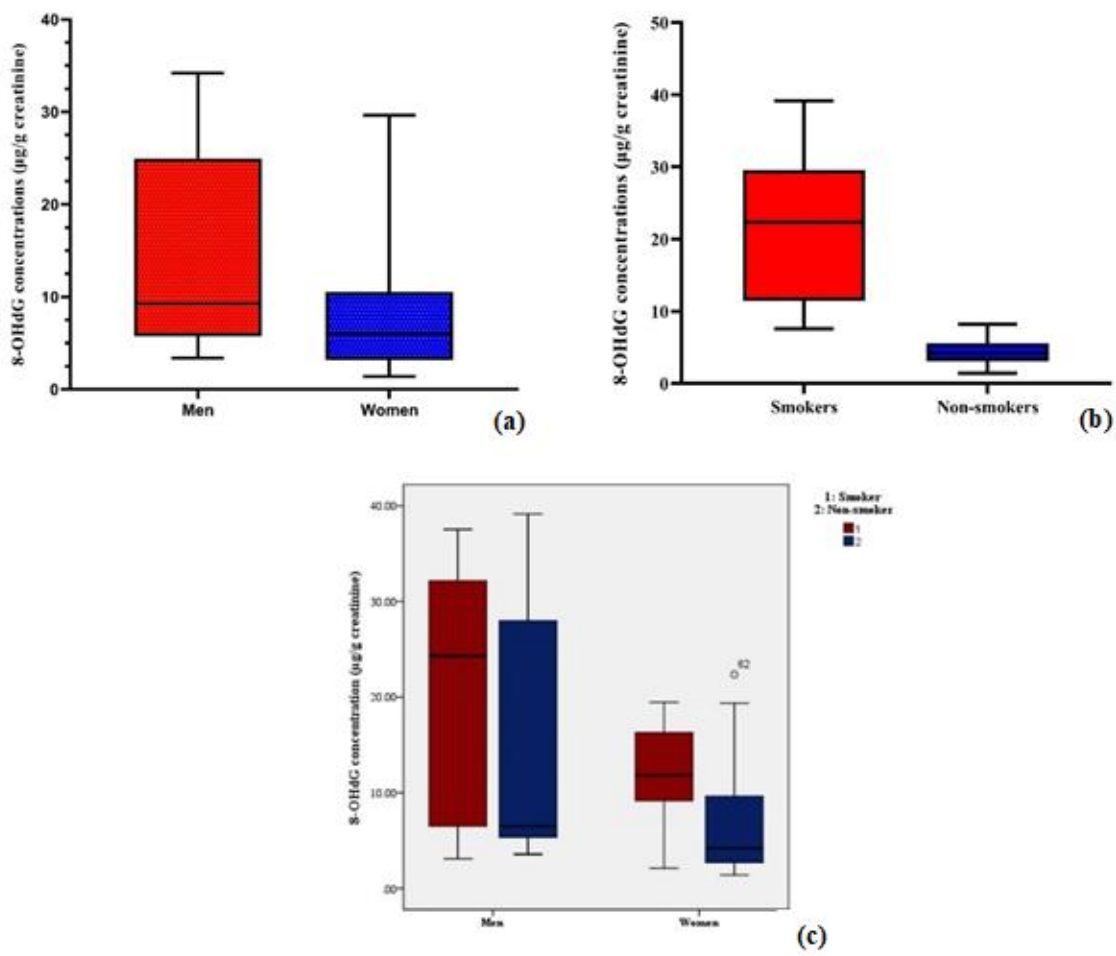
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812 Fig. 1 Ag and Hg levels in hair of subjects who are smoker/non-smokers and with/without amalgam teeth



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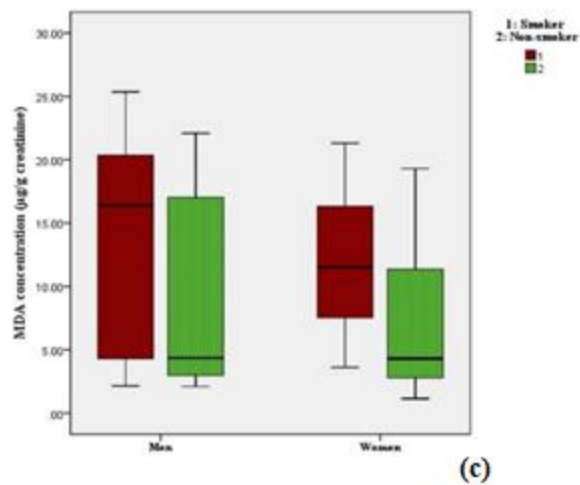
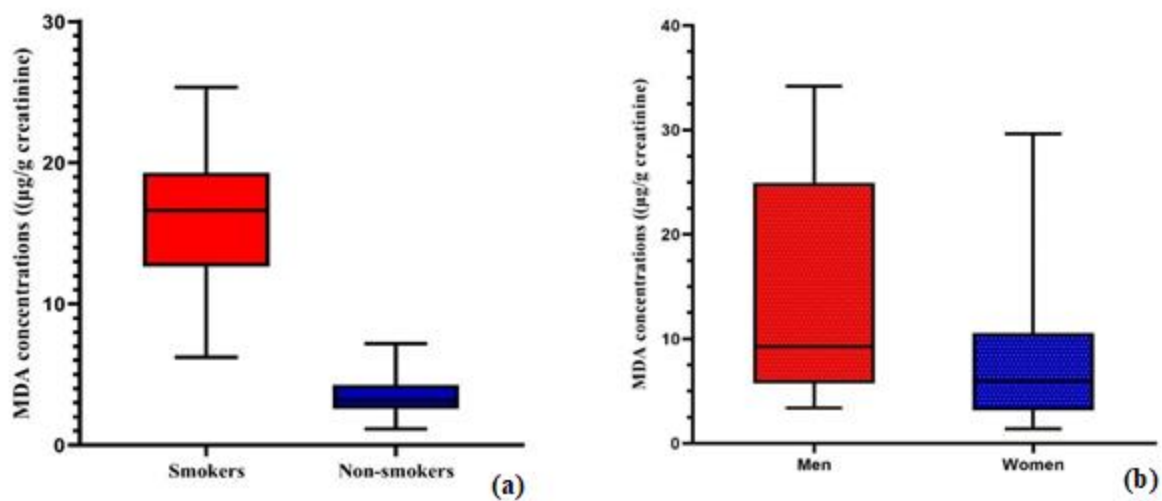
815 Fig. 2 Sum of metals and metalloids, Pb, and Cd levels in hair of smoker and non-smoker subjects (lg/g)



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817 Fig. 3 Comparison of urinary 8-OHdG levels (µg/g creatinine) in a men and women and b smokers and non-smokers





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 819 Fig. 4 Comparison of urinary MDA levels ( $\mu\text{g/g creatinine}$ ) in a smokers and non-smokers and b men and women

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**Table S1. Microwave digestion program using HClO<sub>4</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> mixtures**

Step	Duration, min	Temperature, °C	Pressure, bar
1	10	100	80
2	10	130	80
3	10	180	80
4	50	Cooling	-

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**Table S2. Operating parameters of ICP-OES**

Parameter	Setting
Sample uptake time (s)	240
Sample uptake delay (s)	0
Rinse time (s)	45
Stabilization time (s)	45
RF power (kW)	14
frequency of RF generator (MHz)	27
Nebulizer gas flow (L/min)	0.85
Plasma gas flow (L/min)	14.5
Aux gas flow (L/min)	0.9
Sample loop size (mL)	1
Bubble inject time (s)	4.5
Sample injection pump speed (rpm)	30
Pre-wash time (s)	45
Prewash pump speed (rpm)	60 (for 15 sec), 30 (for 30 sec)

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**Table S3. Limit of Detection and Limit of Quantification for MM in hair**

<b>Element</b>	<b>LOD (<math>\mu\text{g/g}</math>)</b>	<b>LOQ (<math>\mu\text{g/g}</math>)</b>
Cd	0.03	0.09
As	0.06	0.18
B	0.03	0.09
Be	0.08	0.24
Co	0.04	0.12
Hg	0.02	0.06
Sb	0.01	0.03
Sn	0.04	0.12
V	0.03	0.09
Al	0.07	0.21
Ba	0.03	0.09
Cr	0.02	0.06
Cu	0.01	0.03
Fe	0.07	0.21
Li	0.02	0.06
Mn	0.03	0.09
Ni	0.04	0.12
Pb	0.01	0.03
Zn	0.01	0.03

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834 Table S4: Correlation analysis between MM concentrations, urinary MDA and 8-OHdG ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine)  
 835 and age of participants (N=200).

Variables	Total	8-OHdG	MDA	Ag	Al	As	B	Ba	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Hg	Mn	Ni	Pb	Si	Sn	Zn	Age
Total	1	.557**	.598**	.493**	.727**	.385**	.820**	.386**	.310**	.622**	.610**	.764**	.434**	.316**	.512**	.526**	.709**	.466**	.611**	-.218*
8-OHdG	.557**	1	.901**	.063	.573**	.174	.443**	.001	.084	.562**	.455**	.571**	.352**	.160	.397**	.405**	.592**	.074	.215*	-.084
MDA	.598**	.901**	1	.287**	.578**	.202*	.462**	.193*	.269**	.508**	.464**	.641**	.331**	.192*	.372**	.343**	.632**	.164	.233*	-.057
Age	-.218*	-.084	-.057	-.204*	-.180*	-.308**	-.163	-.233*	-.106	-.027	-.150	-.300**	-.116	-.104	-.086	-.114	-.239**	-.317**	-.073	1

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837 \*\* p<0.01, \* p<0.05 (2-tailed).

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840 **Discussion of the observed correlations in view of existing literature**

841 This study shows correlations between two markers of oxidative stress, namely 8-OHdG and MDA (Table  
 842 S3), and chronic exposure to most metals and metalloids. This includes correlation with Ag, Al, As, B, Ba,  
 843 Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Si and Zn. Sn did not correlate with any of the two biomarkers measured,  
 844 whereas Ag, As, Ba, Cd, Mn and Sn did not correlate with 8-OHdG. Results of regression analysis adjusted  
 845 by sociodemographic (sex, age) and environmental differences (smoking status, and teeth filling with  
 846 amalgam) show consistent associations between MDA and Si and Sn (p<0.05), as well as smoking status  
 847 (cigarette and water-pipe smoking). In addition, MDA was likely associated (p<0.1) with Cr, Cu and Fe.  
 848 On the other hand, 8-OHdG is associated (p<0.01) with a larger number of metals measured in hair, such  
 849 as Al, Ba, Cu, Si, Sn, Zn, in addition to age, cigarette and water-pipe smoking. Cr has shown an association  
 850 but not statistically significant (p<0.1) with 8-OHdG (Table 4).

851 This is the first study to the best of our knowledge to assess chronic metal exposure and oxidative stress.

852 Published studies have generally focused on assessing the associations among short-term metal exposure

853 (generally measured in urine or blood) and oxidative stress biomarkers. Therefore, caution should be

854 exercised when comparing chronic exposure results with results extracted from studies using metals  
855 concentrations measured from urine or blood, which reflect short-term exposures. A detailed comparison  
856 with previous studies reporting correlations between short-term exposure to metals and metalloids and  
857 biomarkers of oxidative stress can be found hereunder.

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859 Published studies have generally focused on assessing the associations among short-term metal exposure  
860 (generally measured in urine or blood) and oxidative stress biomarkers. Therefore, caution should be  
861 exercised when comparing chronic exposure results with results extracted from studies using metals  
862 concentrations measured from urine or blood, which reflect short-term exposures.

863 In a study by Lopes et al. (2017), the correlation between blood levels of Pb, Cd and Hg was not statistically  
864 significant with MDA in environmentally exposed Brazilian adults, even though the Hg levels were higher  
865 in subjects having amalgam fillings. They also reported an inverse correlation between short-term exposure  
866 to Hg and 8-OHdG, which contradicts the current observations (Lopes et al., 2017). On the other hand,  
867 short-term Hg exposure did not show any correlation with 8-OHdG in a study of college students in  
868 Guangzhou (China) (Lu et al., 2016).

869 Chronic Pb exposure correlates with 8-OHdG and MDA, consistent with results from short-term exposure  
870 reported in the general population in Japan (Kimura et al., 2006). On the contrary, Almeida Lopes et al  
871 (2017) did not report any correlation among short-term Pb exposure and 8-OHdG concentrations, nor was  
872 reported among college students in Guangzhou (China) (Lu et al., 2016). Bortey-Sam et al (2018) reported  
873 correlations among short-term Pb exposure and MDA, but not 8-OHdG, whilst this study found correlations  
874 between both biomarkers with chronic Pb exposure.

875 This study shows that chronic exposure to Cr correlates with urinary biomarkers of oxidative stress, 8-  
876 OHdG and MDA, consistent with observations with short-term Cr exposure in the general population in  
877 Japan (Kimura et al., 2006) and schoolchildren in Taiwan (Wong et al., 2005). In contrast, no correlation  
878 was observed for college students in Guangzhou (China) or in Ghana among short-term Cr exposure and

879 8-OHdG (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2016), whereas, short-term Cr exposure was correlated with  
880 MDA in Ghana (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018).

881 Our findings revealed that chronic exposure to Cd in the general population of Shiraz correlated with MDA  
882 levels, but not with 8-OHdG concentrations. Similar findings were observed for MDA in Kumasi  
883 (Ghana)(Bortey-Sam et al., 2018), college students in Guangzhou (China) (Lu et al., 2016), participants of  
884 the Spanish Hortega cohort study (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b), the study population in Wuhan (He et  
885 al., 2020) and a study of the general population in Korea (Eom et al., 2017) and Brazil (Lopes et al., 2017).  
886 This study shows that chronic As exposure correlates with MDA, but not with 8-OHdG. This is at odds  
887 with several studies that report a correlation among short-term As exposure with 8-OHdG in the general  
888 population in Japan (Kimura et al., 2006), Wuhan (China) (He et al., 2020), Kumasi (Ghana) (Bortey-Sam  
889 et al., 2018), school children in Taiwan (Wong et al., 2005) and college students in Guangzhou (Lu et al.,  
890 2016). The correlation with MDA is consistent with observation in Ghanaian population (Bortey-Sam et  
891 al., 2018).

892 Chronic Al and Ni exposure in Shiraz correlates with both MDA and 8-OHdG, consistent with observation  
893 of short term exposure with 8-OHdG in the general population in Japan (Kimura et al., 2006) and college  
894 students in Guangzhou (Lu et al., 2016). Likewise, Ni correlated with MDA and 8-OHdG in a children  
895 study in Guangzhou (Li et al., 2020a). On the other hand, short term Ni exposure correlated with MDA, but  
896 not with 8-OHdG in a Ghanaian population (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018).

897 Chronic Zn exposure correlates with MDA and 8-OHdG, consistent with observations between short-term  
898 Zn exposure and MDA in the Hortega study in Spain (Domingo-Relloso et al., 2019b). On the other hand,  
899 a study of the general population in Kumasi (Ghana) reported correlation with short-term Zn exposure with  
900 MDA but not the 8-OHdG (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018).

901 This study found correlations among chronic exposure to Cu and Al with 8-OHdG, whilst no correlation  
902 was found for Fe or Sn, consistent with correlations found among short-term exposure in college students  
903 in Guangzhou (Lu et al., 2016). On the other hand, a study with children in Guangzhou found significant  
904 associations between Cu and Sn with MDA and 8-OHdG (Li et al., 2020a). Mn chronic exposure correlates

905 with MDA, but not with 8-OHdG, consistent with the observation in a Ghanaian population for short-term  
906 Mn exposures (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018). On the other hand, the Ghanaian study is consistent with our  
907 results for Cu, for which correlations among short-term Cu exposure and MDA and 8-OHdG were reported  
908 (Bortey-Sam et al., 2018).

909 In the study by Bortey-Sam et al (2018), metals and metalloids levels in the urine of subjects living in urban  
910 areas showed a similar significant correlation ( $p < 0.01$ ) with MDA as the correlation observed in adults in  
911 a highly urbanized city like Shiraz. However, only Cu was statistically correlated with 8-OHdG in the  
912 Ghanaian study. In contrast, in this study, 8-OHdG correlates statistically with Al, B, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Ni,  
913 Pb and Si ( $p < 0.01$ ) and with Zn ( $p < 0.05$ ).

914 The differences observed between this study and previous studies could be attributed to the fact that this  
915 study assesses chronic metal exposure, whilst the other studies assess short-term exposures. Differences  
916 could be also attributed to the different matrix from which the metals and metalloids were extracted, which  
917 could be an important determinant.

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