

Maternal cardiovascular and haematological diseases alter the risk associations between environmental exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes

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1 **Original Research**

2 **Maternal cardiovascular and haematological diseases alter the risk associations**
3 **between environmental exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes**

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37 **China’s “three-child policy” in response to population ageing¹ has cast safeguarding perinatal health an**
38 **urgent priority², whereas previous research seldom explored the pregnancy-related cardiovascular and**
39 **haematological diseases. Here we conducted comprehensive epidemiological analyses on 121,090**
40 **pregnant women and their 124,025 neonates from the ZEBRA Chinese prospective maternity cohort. We**
41 **find that unit incremental exposure in PM_{2.5}, O₃, and green space can change the risks of maternal**
42 **pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) by 7.3% (95% confidence interval 6.4–8.2%), 2.7%**
43 **(2.2–3.3%), and –3.6% (1.8–5.2%), respectively. Maternal cardiovascular and haematological diseases**
44 **significantly aggravate the risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes (APOs, including congenital heart disease)**
45 **by 69.3% (61.5–77.5%), and also modify the environment-APO risk associations by amplifying the**
46 **hazards of air pollution and weakening the protective effect of greenness accessibility. Our research**
47 **supports several Sustainable Development Goals^{3,4} by providing first-hand epidemiological evidence and**
48 **clinical guidance for maternal and neonatal health protection.**

49 Studies have assessed the effects of environmental exposures, including ambient air pollution, heatwave,
50 and green space, on the risk of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality⁵⁻¹⁰. However, research that focused on
51 the pregnant woman and the neonate, two groups of vulnerable population, is still limited. Literature has also
52 reported strong associations between maternal exposure to various environmental factors and multiple types of
53 APO¹¹⁻¹⁶, but other pregnancy abnormalities (e.g. neonatal congenital heart disease, CHD) other than preterm
54 birth (PTB), term low birth weight (LBW), and stillbirth have seldom been analysed. It is noteworthy that
55 women with pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases have an increased risk of developing hypertension in
56 later years^{17,18}. Research has shown that women with a history of pre-eclampsia have an approximately four-
57 fold higher incidence of stroke in later years¹⁷, as pre-eclampsia can cause maternal vascular remodelling¹⁹. For
58 the neonates diagnosed with CHD, childhood mortality rates are rather high²⁰; even with medical treatment,

59 adults and adolescents often have lower exercise capability²¹, and a portion of women are even advised against
60 carrying to pregnancy to term in fear of cardiac complications and even sudden death of the child²². Although
61 highly sensitive screening tools are now being widely used for timely prenatal detection of CHD²³, identifying
62 risk factors to minimise the occurrence risk of CHD is always the ultimate pursuit.

63 Therefore, population-based epidemiological research on cardiovascular-related outcomes during the
64 perinatal period holds significant public health implications. By systematic analyses of the medical records of
65 pregnant women enrolled in the ZEBRA Chinese maternity cohort²⁴, our current study aims to explore: 1) the
66 risk associations between environmental exposures and pregnancy-induced CVDs and APO; 2) the mediating
67 role of maternal cardiovascular symptoms (both primary and pregnancy-induced) in the environment-APO risk
68 association; and 3) the early-stage predictability of APO integrating maternal diagnosis of CVDs. Besides
69 contributing to filling the literature gap, the risk prediction models also provide the basis for further clinical
70 validation and application. Protecting the mother's health is not only an important element of gender equality,
71 but also a reflection of civilisation. Ensuring the health of newborns is crucial as it directly impacts the lifelong
72 well-being and human potential of the next generation, serving as a vital factor in advancing society.

73

74 **RESULTS**

75 The ZEBRA (Zhejiang Environmental and Birth Health Research Alliance) maternity cohort recruited 137,392
76 Chinese pregnant women nationwide during 2013–2022, among which 121,090 pregnant women were included
77 for epidemiological analyses (Fig. 1). There were 25,544 (21.1%) pregnant women diagnosed with a variety of
78 cardiovascular and haematological complications, including 814 (0.7%) cases of heart disease, 3,760 (3.1%)
79 cases of vascular disease, and 21,935 (18.1%) cases of haematological disease. Pregnancy-induced
80 cardiovascular complications were found in 1,414 (1.2%) cases (Extended Data Fig. 1). After excluding 802

81 stillbirths, there were 9,501 cases of APOs among the remaining 124,025 live births (3,619 pairs of twins and
82 59 sets of triplets), including 6,604 (5.3%) PTB, 4,849 (3.9%) term LBW, 840 (0.7%) CHD, and 3,334 (2.7%)
83 blood disorders (Extended Data Fig. 2). Detailed cohort profile statistics are listed in Extended Data Table 1,
84 and medical history in Extended Data Table 2.

85

86 Environmental risks on perinatal CVDs

87 To investigate the risk associations between environmental exposure and pregnancy-induced cardiovascular
88 complications, we defined the eighteen month period starting from one year before conception till the end of
89 the second trimester as the exposure window²⁵. This yielded individual-level maternal exposure to ambient
90 PM_{2.5}, O₃, and greenness as 40.3±7.4 µg/m³, 47.1±4.0 ppb, and 0.20±0.07 quantified in the enhanced vegetation
91 index (EVI), respectively. Having adjusted for sociodemographic, physiological and behavioural characteristics,
92 medical and disease history, and other environmental exposures (see details in Extended Data Table 3), the risk
93 of pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases would increase by 7.3% (hazard ratio, HR=1.073, 95% CI:
94 1.064–1.082, $p=7.83\times 10^{-23}$) with each 10-µg/m³ increase in PM_{2.5} exposure, increase by 2.7% (2.2–3.3%,
95 $p=1.78\times 10^{-12}$) with each 10-ppb incremental O₃ exposure, and reduce by 3.6% (1.8–5.2%, $p=1.47\times 10^{-4}$) with
96 every 0.1-EVI additional green space exposure. Significant risk associations were observed for two specific
97 subsets of cardiovascular diseases, that is, the pregnancy-induced hypertension and preeclampsia (Fig. 2).

98 As for the neonatal cardiovascular diseases, it was found that for every 10-µg/m³ exposure increase in
99 PM_{2.5}, 10-ppb O₃, and 0.1-EVI greenness, there would be 1.1% (0.5–1.8%, $p=1.63\times 10^{-3}$), 1.6% (1.2–2.0%,
100 $p=1.79\times 10^{-10}$), and –1.8% (HR=0.982, 95% CI: 0.970–0.995, $p=4.79\times 10^{-3}$) change in the incidence risks,
101 respectively (Fig. 2). The neonatal cardiac anomalies had the most prominent associations with maternal PM_{2.5}
102 and O₃ exposures. The protective effect of maternal greenness exposure was not significant on the neonatal

103 incidence of CHD Environmental exposures also demonstrated additional risks on other adverse perinatal
104 outcomes such as stillbirth, PTB, term LBW, and respiratory diseases, where the quantitative relationships
105 showed monotonically increasing exposure-response tendencies (Extended Data Fig. 3).

106 Synergistic effect between PM_{2.5} and O₃ exposure was observed as 4.2% (effect modification, EM=1.042,
107 95% CI: 1.022–1.062, $p=3.88\times 10^{-5}$) for pregnancy-induced cardiovascular complications, indicating for each
108 10-ppb increase in maternal O₃ exposure, the risk strength between PM_{2.5} exposure (by 10- $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increment)
109 and cardiovascular incidence would rise by 4.2%, and *vice versa*. The synergistic hazard was more significant
110 in the incidence risk of APOs (EM=1.054, 95% CI: 1.046–1.061, $p=2.33\times 10^{-23}$). On the contrary, green space
111 accessibility exhibited antagonistic effects with the two major ambient air pollutants, as -9.7% (EM=0.903, 95%
112 CI: 0.883–0.923, $p=2.41\times 10^{-13}$) on the risk association between PM_{2.5} and pregnancy-induced cardiovascular
113 diseases, implying that with each 0.1-EVI incremental greenness exposure, the PM_{2.5}-cardiovascular risk
114 strength scaled in 10- $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increase of exposure would be compromised by 9.7%. The antagonism of greenness
115 exposure on O₃ was relatively weaker at -4.4% (EM=0.956, 95% CI: 0.938–0.973, $p=2.56\times 10^{-6}$). The protective
116 effect of greenness against the occurrence risk of APO was 8.6% (7.7–9.4%, $p=2.08\times 10^{-5}$) and 4.7% (4.1–5.4%,
117 $p=2.15\times 10^{-20}$) for PM_{2.5} and O₃ exposure, respectively. The foregoing analyses revealed unneglectable risks
118 associated with ambient air pollution on the well-being of expectant mothers and neonates, particularly in terms
119 of cardiovascular health. Conversely, the greenness accessibility not only contributes to the reduction of
120 perinatal anomalies but also offers a partial amelioration of the adverse impacts from PM_{2.5} and O₃ exposure.
121 From a policy perspective, our findings underscore the importance of synergistic PM_{2.5}-O₃ control and urban
122 greening for public health benefits.

123

124 **Impacts of maternal cardiovascular and haematological diseases on APOs**

125 Maternal primary and pregnancy-induced CVDs are significant risk factors for APOs, with an overall HR=1.693
126 (95% CI: 1.615–1.775, $p=1.70\times 10^{-26}$), indicating pregnant individuals with composite CVDs suffer a 69.3%
127 higher risk to develop adverse gestational outcomes compared to those with normal cardiovascular function.
128 More specifically, primary CVDs can lead to a 38.2% (HR=1.382, 95% CI: 1.316–1.452, $p=2.52\times 10^{-19}$) higher
129 risk of APOs, whereas pregnancy-induced CVDs result in a more prominent risk nearly 10-fold higher
130 (HR=9.996, 95% CI: 8.931–11.29, $p=7.96\times 10^{-46}$). Fig. 3 presents the association strengths between specific
131 subtypes of maternal cardiovascular disease during pregnancy and APO subsets, revealing in general that
132 pregnancy-induced maternal cardiovascular diseases, particularly hypertension and preeclampsia, exhibit
133 stronger risk associations with various neonatal anomalies compared to primary cardiovascular diseases.

134 Maternal heart diseases could impact neonatal CVDs (Fig. 3). Notably, an observable mother-to-child
135 heritability is evidenced on CHD of HR=2.949 (95% CI: 1.458–5.965, $p=2.14\times 10^{-3}$). It is worth mentioning
136 that a proportion of females born with CHD factually are not recommended for pregnancy. Among 148
137 expectant mothers with CHD from the ZEBRA maternity cohort, 14 (9.5%) neonates were also diagnosed with
138 CHD, whereas the incidence among the whole cohort was low at 1.2%. This finding is consistent with previous
139 studies²⁶, and the high conditional incidence rate suggests a potential genetic basis for CHD development,
140 although current medical research has yet to fully confirmed the aetiology. As a result, we firmly endorse the
141 implementation of genetic screening among eligible pregnant women with prenatally diagnosed CHD in order
142 to ascertain whether genetic anomalies underlie the congenital defects, since the probability of developing CHD
143 on offspring might be substantially amplified if there are genetic effects, warranting preconception proactive
144 attention in advance.

145 Maternal vascular diseases exert a greater impact than cardiac defects on the risk of APOs (HR=3.746, 95%
146 CI: 3.445–4.073, $p=3.71\times 10^{-33}$), but maternal blood disorders seem not to significantly affect neonates,
147 excluding anaemia which increases the risk by 37.3% (HR=1.373, 95% CI: 1.304–1.445, $p=3.33\times 10^{-18}$).
148 Besides neonatal CVDs, maternal vascular and blood anomalies also pose risks on other birth defects (Fig. 3).
149 While the majority of neonates (88.5%, 5,842 out of 6,604) did not exhibit congenital cardiovascular anomalies
150 at birth, a significant proportion of premature and low birth weight infants could potentially encounter growth
151 and developmental impairments, culminating in high medical burden and unforeseeable compromise in long-
152 term quality of life²⁷⁻²⁹. This reiterates the significance of extending specialised medical vigilance towards
153 pregnant individuals afflicted by cardiovascular conditions.

154 Maternal CVDs also modify the risks of APOs from environmental exposures. Pregnant participants with
155 CVDs manifest a 5.2% (4.9–5.5%, $p=1.85\times 10^{-39}$) higher risk regarding the PM_{2.5}-APOs association compared
156 to the control group without cardiovascular symptoms, and 2.2% higher (2.1–2.4%, $p=5.20\times 10^{-29}$) on O₃-APOs
157 risk association. The effect modification of maternal CVDs on greenness-APOs risk association is more
158 pronounced, thereby attenuating the significance of protective effects in certain subtypes of APOs. Fig. 4
159 provides a comprehensive overview of the intricate effect modifications associated with distinct subtypes of
160 maternal cardiovascular diseases. It demonstrates that maternal CVDs during pregnancy accentuate the
161 susceptibility of predisposed individuals to the adverse impacts of air pollution. For reproductive-age women
162 with primary cardiovascular symptoms, proactive strategies such as minimising exposure to ambient air
163 pollution or actively engaging with green spaces in the preconception period (i.e. at least 6–12 months prior to
164 pregnancy) are advised to attenuate the occurrence of perinatal anomalies.

165

166 **Mediation of maternal CVDs between environmental exposure and APOs**

167 From the perspective of a directed acyclic graph, maternal CVDs serve as mediators between environmental
168 exposure and APOs (as illustrated in [Extended Data Table 4](#)). Environmental exposures not only pose direct
169 impacts on APOs, but can also exert indirect effects through maternal CVDs. The indirect effects from PM_{2.5},
170 O₃, and greenness exposure on APOs account for 44.4%, 34.4%, and 23.1% of total effects, respectively,
171 underscoring the significance of mediation by maternal pregnancy-induced CVDs, particularly concerning the
172 risk associations with PM_{2.5} exposure. Environmental exposures still predominantly exert direct effects on APOs,
173 affirming the rationale for prior studies directly investigating the risk associations between environmental
174 exposures and APOs. Indirect effects are most pronounced in PTB and LBW, especially in the impacts on PTB
175 from PM_{2.5} exposure where the indirect effect constitutes over half proportion (50.9%). However, the impact of
176 greenness exposure on APOs is minimally mediated by maternal pregnancy-induced CVDs, particularly in the
177 context of LBW (12.1%) and neonatal CVDs (13.2%). These findings reveal a plausible causality pathway in
178 reproductive epidemiology, where environmental exposure influences maternal cardiovascular function,
179 subsequently impacting pregnancy outcomes. This also suggests the feasibility of reducing the risk of APOs by
180 controlling maternal cardiovascular disorders.

181

182 **Ensemble-learning-based risk prediction and self-administrated assessment**

183 In virtue of the 60 characteristics collected on the ZEBRA maternity cohort participants together with the 40
184 environmental exposure tracking metrics, we developed an ensemble deep learning-based prediction model
185 ([Extended Data Fig. 4](#)) to forecast the incidence risk of APOs. Since early-stage risk prediction is a continuing
186 pursuit in clinical predictive models (i.e. predicting the occurrence of APOs during the third trimester lacks
187 practical value in timely clinical alert), predictive factors were selected upon the availability before the end of

188 the second trimester. The diagnosis of maternal primary and pregnancy-induced cardiovascular symptoms
189 significantly enhances the risk predictive performances of APOs. Without the cardiovascular diagnoses,
190 sensitivity (i.e. true positive predictions out of all cases) of APOs is limited to 59.7% (false positive rate,
191 FPR=0.8%, area under the ROC curve, AUC=0.899). However, cardiovascular diagnoses reinforce the
192 sensitivity of APOs to 80.8% (FPR=0.4%, AUC=0.956). For the collection of obstetric complications (i.e. PTB
193 and term LBW) and neonatal cardiorespiratory disorders (i.e. CHD, congenital cardiovascular defects, and
194 neonatal asphyxia), the ensemble learning prediction framework achieved accuracies as high as 97.9%
195 (sensitivity=82.8%, FPR=0.1%) and 98.5% (sensitivity=90.6%, FPR<0.1%), respectively. This exemplifies the
196 potential practical value of AI-assisted algorithmic risk prediction models for clinical application in obstetrics
197 and gynaecology, while also reaffirming the paramountcy of monitoring for maternal cardiovascular symptoms
198 during pregnancy.

199 Nevertheless, the confidentiality of maternal medical records and the restricted interpretability inherent in
200 machine learning algorithms preclude the feasibility of deploying ensemble-learning-based risk prediction
201 frameworks for public utilisation. To cope with this challenge, we developed a self-directed risk assessment
202 questionnaire (Supplementary Table S1) aimed at rapidly estimating APO risk scores by assigning weights to
203 factors easily collectable via self-reporting (Supplementary Table S2), followed by linear summation. Overall,
204 environmental exposures account for approximately 40% of the scoring weights, socioeconomic factors account
205 for 10%, while maternal medical and surgical history account for 50%, among which cardiovascular diseases
206 constitute 40%, comparable to environmental factors (Extended Data Figs. 5–6). While the predictive accuracy
207 of the self-directed questionnaire (88.2% for obstetric anomalies, 91.9% for neonatal cardiovascular defects)
208 cannot fully emulate the ensemble-learning-based models, its notable high sensitivities (75.7% for obstetric

209 anomalies, 85.2% for neonatal cardiovascular defects) still retain practical significance, inspiring future in-depth
210 exploration and optimisation.

211

212 **DISCUSSION**

213 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first Chinese nationwide prospective maternity cohort study
214 comprehensively exploring the risk patterns of maternal and neonatal cardiovascular abnormalities during the
215 perinatal period, providing robust primary epidemiological evidence specifically for the East Asian population.

216 Our current study has four major merits. Firstly, we conducted comprehensive analyses on the risk patterns of
217 maternal and neonatal cardiovascular abnormalities, including various subcategories such as cardiac
218 abnormalities, vascular diseases, and haematological disorders, expanding beyond the conventional focuses
219 merely on stillbirth, PTB, and term LBW^{30,31}. Secondly, we assessed the health hazards of multiple
220 environmental factors individually as well as investigated the inter-factor synergistic and antagonistic effects,
221 as literature rarely explores the interactions among risk factors. Thirdly, we quantified the mediating effect of
222 maternal pregnancy-induced cardiovascular complications on the risk association between environmental
223 exposures and APOs, emphasising the importance of protecting the pregnant female as a vulnerable population.
224 Finally, we propose the feasibility of using machine learning frameworks for early-stage APO prediction, based
225 on which the designed self-assessment questionnaire demonstrates a methodological innovation.

226 The questionnaire we developed pioneers a new method for practical public health research, that of
227 translating sophisticated machine-learning-based algorithms into interpretable linear algebra for intuitive
228 weighting of risk factors and convenient risk prediction. We encourage more maternity cohort studies to
229 optimise and upgrade our risk prediction models by reporting potential cross-region heterogeneity, so as to
230 strengthen the population generalisability. When filling the self-assessment questionnaire, the environmental

231 exposure levels unavailable for self-report can easily be obtained by cloud matching the residential location and
232 conception dates of the pregnant women with the spatiotemporal resolved environmental records. Therefore, to
233 enable large-scale clinical implementation of APO risk prediction models, the establishment of real-time
234 environmental tracking databases encompassing multiple environmental factors is indispensable.

235 With an increasing body of epidemiological research (including our current study) revealing the beneficial
236 impacts of greenness exposure on population health, we suggest policy recommendations for nature-based
237 interventions consider: i) enhancing residential greenery, such as the implementation of green roofs and the
238 creation of green streetscapes, particularly in areas heavily affected by air pollution; ii) enhancing the quality
239 of existing parks and gardens, which could involve improving the greenness accessibility, increasing the density
240 of vegetation, and providing outdoor fitness facilities; iii) advising pregnant women with cardiovascular
241 diseases to engage in outdoor nature-based activities as part of their treatment plans; iv) expanding the range of
242 community-led activities within green spaces, which could include initiatives like urban farms and retreat
243 centres; and v) promoting awareness and encouraging participation in wilderness programs, ecotherapy, and the
244 practice of forest bathing³².

245 The self-administrated risk assessment questionnaire designed from the ZEBRA prospective maternity
246 cohort will be continuously calibrated and updated as more participants are recruited and more risk factors are
247 collected, which will be shared on medRxiv preprint platform. The intended value of the risk assessment form
248 is enabling the pregnant women to understand her pregnancy risks based on various exposures. Entrusting the
249 complete authority of risk assessment to authoritative institutions may give rise to corruption issues, like
250 healthcare institutions categorising more low-risk pregnant women as high-risk individuals for financial benefits.
251 Empowering pregnant women to be the sword-holders of their own health can result in pre-emptive action which
252 then effectively prevents such unnecessary medical overtreatment.

253 Our study has several limitations that cannot be addressed at this current stage. Firstly, ZEBRA has not yet
254 collected any genetic information from the cohort participants, which theoretically is the gold standard for
255 distinguishing endogenous differences among populations. Given that genetic markers can often substantially
256 improve the predictive accuracy of disease occurrence³³, the ZEBRA team plans to collect genetic material of
257 the maternity cohort in the near future. Secondly, we have not measured any internal exposure of organic
258 pollutants such as pesticide residuals, phthalates, and endocrine-disrupting chemicals. However, we have
259 initiated pilot studies to determine the exposure doses of pregnant women and foetuses^{34,35}, with the aim of
260 expanding to the entire cohort once the technology matures. Last but not the least, our findings may not be
261 representative of the entire Chinese population due to sparse participant enrolment in Northwest China.
262 Therefore, readers should use our results cautiously, particularly when generalising to broader populations, and
263 hence meta-analyses and heterogeneity tests are strongly recommended when more relevant studies come out.
264 It is optimistically hoped that multi-centre collaborative communities will be established soon to enhance the
265 representativeness and generalisability of epidemiological findings.

266

267 **METHODS**

268 **Cohort participant recruitment**

269 From 1 January 2017 to 31 December 2022, ZEBRA maternity cohort enrolled a total of 131,155 parturient women. In
270 addition to the 6,237 participants from the pilot study conducted during 2013–2016³⁶, the full cohort now includes a total
271 of 137,392 participants. Although the host institution (Women’s Hospital, Zhejiang University School of Medicine) of
272 ZEBRA is based in Zhejiang Province, it serves as one of the top three flagship maternity and child hospitals in China,
273 attracting expectant mothers from across the nation. Particularly, when pregnant women encounter complex medical
274 conditions during pregnancy and their local healthcare facilities are unable to provide definitive care, they are transferred
275 to Zhejiang, thus joining the ZEBRA maternity cohort. Among the current enrolled cohort participants, 122,440 (89.1%)
276 were from Zhejiang, while 14,952 (10.9%) were from other provinces, making the ZEBRA maternity cohort a nationwide

277 cohort in terms of its scale.

278 After excluding participants with missing records for more than 20% of the variables (N=16,091), those with
279 gestational ages less than 20 or greater than 44 weeks (N=39), and pregnant women aged under 18 or over 45 years (N=172),
280 our analyses cover 121,090 pregnant women in total (Fig. 1). There were 124,025 live births, with 116,610 singletons,
281 3,619 pairs of twins, and 59 sets of triplets, after excluding 802 stillbirths.

282 ZEBRA maternity cohort collects comprehensive sociodemographic and behavioural features from pregnant women
283 residing in Zhejiang Province, China throughout the study period. Trained obstetric nurses conduct questionnaire-based
284 face-to-face interviews to record residential address, household registration, ethnicity, education attainment level, smoking
285 habits (active and second-hand), alcohol history, age at current delivery, gravidity, parity, and date of the last menstrual
286 period. Physical examinations are performed to measure the height and weight of the women before conception and at the
287 end of the second trimester.

288 Gestational ages are primarily determined through ultrasound examinations conducted in the first or second trimester.
289 In cases where ultrasound records are unavailable, the date of the last menstrual period (LMP) is used as an alternative
290 method to estimate the gestational age. In this study, ultrasound examination was used for 98.4% (N=119,153) of the
291 pregnant women to determine gestational age, while the remaining 1.6% (N=1,937) relied on the date of the last menstrual
292 period.

293 To ensure data accuracy, the medical history of the pregnant women is cross-referenced with the hospital's medical
294 records using unique medical IDs. Face-to-face consultations with obstetricians are conducted to verify the referenced
295 information. The cohort profile provides a comprehensive overview of the collected information and the processes
296 involved²⁴. Stringent quality control measures are in place, including regular training for healthcare and medical personnel,
297 standardised medical examinations, use of uniform-standard physiological and biochemical measurement equipment, and
298 double validation of questionnaire-based interviews.

299 **Outcome definition**

300 In our study, we identified primary (referring to the non-pregnancy-cause diseases throughout all ZEBRA-based studies
301 no matter congenital or acquired) and pregnancy-induced (a type of secondary) cardiovascular complications in all enrolled
302 cohort participants. Primary maternal CVDs include primary hypertension (ICD10: I10), pulmonary hypertension (I27),
303 congenital heart diseases (Q20–Q28), heart failure (I30–I45), and cardiac arrhythmias (I47–I49). Haematological disorders
304 (D50–D89) include anaemia (including nutritional anaemia, D50–D53, and haemolytic anaemia, D55–D59), and lymphatic
305 system abnormalities (D76). Pregnancy-induced CVDs include gestational hypertension (O13) and pre-eclampsia (O14).

306 The hierarchical classification and occurrence rates of the studied diseases can be found in [Extended Data Fig. 1](#).

307 Adverse pregnancy outcomes (APOs) include stillbirth, obstetric anomalies, neonatal cardiovascular diseases,
308 neonatal haematological diseases, and neonatal respiratory disorders. Obstetric anomalies include preterm birth (PTB, O60)
309 and term low birth weight (LBW, P07.1). PTB is defined as gestation less than 37 weeks, and very preterm birth (VPTB)
310 is defined as gestation less than 32 weeks. Term LBW is defined as birth weight less than 2500 grams on the term-birth
311 neonates, while very low birth weight (VLBW) refers to term-birth neonates with birth weight less than 1500 grams. When
312 evaluating risk associations related to obstetric complications, we only considered singleton births.

313 Neonatal cardiovascular complications mainly include cardiac disorders and pulmonary hypertension. Cardiac
314 abnormalities encompass congenital heart diseases and cardiac arrhythmias, while haematological abnormalities include
315 coagulation defects, purpura, and other haemorrhagic disorders (D65–D69). ZEBRA provides accurate diagnoses for
316 congenital heart diseases in newborns, with subcategories mainly including transposition of great vessels, ventricular septal
317 defects (Q21.0), atrial septal defects (Q21.1), tetralogy of Fallot (Q21.3), patent ductus arteriosus (Q25.0), coarctation of
318 the aorta (Q25.1–Q25.3), and pulmonary stenosis (Q25.5–Q25.6). In this study, we do not further classify maternal
319 congenital heart diseases into subcategories. Neonatal respiratory abnormalities include birth asphyxia (P21) and
320 respiratory distress (P22). The classification and incidence rates of the analysed diseases can be found in [Extended Data](#)
321 [Fig. 2](#).

322 It should be clarified that throughout our present analyses, APOs are defined as all the conditions mentioned above.
323 The cases of PTB and term LBW are counted per pregnancy (equivalent to the number of women with abnormal pregnancy
324 outcomes), as multiple births are often associated with medically induced premature delivery.

325 **Environmental exposure assessment**

326 In this study, we evaluated maternal exposure to three major environmental factors: ambient PM_{2.5}, O₃, and green space.
327 We tracked the historical concentrations of ambient PM_{2.5} (in daily average) and O₃ (in daily maximum 8-hour moving
328 average) during the period from 2013 to 2022 using the TAP (Tracking Air Pollution) database^{37,38}. The TAP database
329 integrates various data sources, including *in situ* observations, numerical simulations from chemical transport models,
330 satellite-based remote sensing measurements, and land cover information. These data are combined using an ensemble
331 machine learning framework to provide highly accurate daily concentration estimates. The spatial resolution of PM_{2.5} data
332 is 1×1 km², while the resolution of O₃ data is 10×10 km². Green spaces are assessed using the Enhanced Vegetation Index
333 (EVI) provided by MODIS Vegetation Index Products³⁹. The spatial resolution of EVI data is 0.5×0.5 km², and
334 measurements are available every 16 days. Maternal exposures were averaged over an 18-month period, from one year

335 before pregnancy until the end of the second trimester (the 6th month since conception).

336 We also tracked individual-level exposure to three additional ambient air pollutants, NO₂, SO₂, and CO, as covariates
337 for confounding adjustment. These exposure measurements were obtained from other well-established datasets⁴⁰⁻⁴². Due
338 to the limitations of historical data availability, the tracking of these air pollutants is only available until December 2020.
339 To overcome this limitation, we extrapolated the pollution concentrations from the corresponding day in 2020 to serve as
340 proxies for the years 2021–2022. Considering the temporal extrapolation and the absence of significant risk associations,
341 the analysis results for these three air pollutants are not presented as the main findings. Furthermore, we accounted for the
342 influence of temperature exposure by controlling for the impact of heat index, which is a humidity-calibrated temperature
343 measure that better captures the perceived sensation of temperature exposure^{43,44}. We quantified two heat exposure metrics:
344 daily mean heat index and daily maximum heat index. Daily ambient air temperature data with a resolution of 0.1°×0.1°
345 and humidity data with a resolution of 0.25°×0.25° were retrieved from ECMWF Reanalysis v5 (ERA5) products⁴⁵.

346 **Statistical analyses**

347 **Risk association quantification.** Extended Cox proportional hazard regression models with time-varying variables were
348 applied to investigate i) the hazard ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) of environmental exposures on maternal
349 pregnancy-induced cardiovascular complications; ii) the HR of environmental exposures on APO and subtypes; and iii)
350 the HR of maternal cardiovascular complications (both primary and pregnancy-induced) on APO and subtypes. Assuming
351 consistent HRs over time, the temporal granularity was delineated on a weekly basis, spanning from the preconception
352 year to the occurrence of the specified health outcomes rather than the conventional gestational age.

353 The crude regression models solely examine the direct association between the studied risk factor, denoted as X_0 , and
354 the occurrence of the target health outcomes (Equation 1). The fully adjusted regression model considers other risk factors
355 and potential confounders (such as other environmental exposure factors, socioeconomic characteristics, medical history,
356 and the sex of neonates, denoted as X_i) (Equation 2). Additionally, interaction terms between the studied pairs of factors
357 are included in the extended model to assess the effect modification (EM) between risk factors (Equation 3).

$$h(t) = h_0(t)e^{\beta_0 X_0} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

$$h(t) = h_0(t)e^{\beta_0 X_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

$$h(t) = h_0(t)e^{\beta_0 X_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i + \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_{ij} X_i X_j} \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

358 The coefficients β_i obtained from the Cox regression models accompanied with standard errors (SE_i) are transformed
359 to HR following Equation 4, where Δx represents a unit incremental exposure in the risk factor. For binary variables, Δx
360 is defined as 1, and transformed HRs indicate the increased risk comparing with and without the corresponding risk factor.

361 For environmental exposures, Δx is defined as 10- $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 10-ppb, and 0.1-EVI increments of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, O_3 , and greenness,
 362 respectively. The transformed HR signifies the increased risk associated with each 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ increment in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ exposure;
 363 the interpretations for O_3 and green space follow the similar way. EM is calculated by Equation 5, which can be interpreted
 364 as the alteration of one exposure factor on the association between another environmental exposure and risk of the studied
 365 adverse health outcome, under the specified increment of environmental exposure.

$$HR = e^{\beta\Delta x} \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$

$$EM = e^{\gamma_{ij}\Delta x_i\Delta x_j} \quad (\text{Equation 5})$$

366 **Direct and indirect effect evaluation.** Given that maternal CVDs are positioned along the causal pathway between
 367 environmental exposure and APOs, maternal CVDs are considered mediators from a biostatistical perspective. Multivariate
 368 Cox regression models were applied to examine the risk associations quantified in log-transformed HR between i)
 369 environmental exposure and APOs having adjusted for all the other covariates except the maternal CVDs, marked as β_1 ,
 370 and ii) environmental exposure and APOs having adjusted for all studied covariates including the maternal CVDs, marked
 371 as β_2 . β_2 represents the direct effects on APOs from environmental exposure, while $\beta_1 - \beta_2$ indicates the indirect effects.
 372 Analysed maternal CVDs as mediators include pregnancy-induced hypertension and preeclampsia, and APOs include PTB,
 373 LBW, and neonatal CVDs.

374 **Exposure-response trend determination.** We employed restricted cubic spline regression with no more than 4 degrees of
 375 freedom to investigate the risk association trends of maternal $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, O_3 , and greenness exposures on pregnancy-induced
 376 cardiovascular diseases (including hypertension), obstetric adverse pregnancy outcomes (including preterm birth and term
 377 low birth weight), and neonatal cardiovascular diseases. All covariates considered in the multivariate models are retained.
 378 The risk thresholds for the three environmental factors are defined as the 5th percentile of exposure levels among all cohort
 379 participants⁴⁶.

380 **Inter-group comparison of risk associations.** We performed Cox regressions on participants with specific cardiovascular
 381 symptoms (including subcategories) and those without specific cardiovascular symptoms to obtain grouped HRs with 95%
 382 CIs. Subsequently, we conducted Levene's tests on the paired log-transformed HRs (i.e. $\beta_i \pm SE_i$) for each group to
 383 determine the homogeneity of variances between SE_1 and SE_2 , in order to decide whether to use a homoscedastic or
 384 heteroscedastic t -test. Statistical significance (p -value) was defined as $\alpha < 0.05$ for two-sided tests; the t -test p -values
 385 (p_{hom} or p_{het}) are calculated following Equations 6–11, where n_1 and n_2 represent the sample sizes of the two
 386 groups; df stands for degrees of freedom; s_1 and s_2 for the standard deviations of either group; s_p for the pooled standard
 387 deviation; t_{hom} and t_{het} for homoscedastic and heteroscedastic t -statistics, respectively; Γ for gamma distribution; p_i for
 388 p -values of homoscedastic and heteroscedastic t -tests, respectively.

$$df_{hom} = n_1 + n_2 - 2 \quad (\text{Equation 6})$$

$$df_{het} = \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{\frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right)^2}{n_1 - 1} + \frac{\left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{n_2 - 1}} \quad (\text{Equation 7})$$

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{df_{hom}} \quad (\text{Equation 8})$$

$$t_{hom} = \frac{\beta_1 - \beta_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_p^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_p^2}{n_2}}} \quad (\text{Equation 9})$$

$$t_{het} = \frac{\beta_1 - \beta_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}} \quad (\text{Equation 10})$$

$$p_i = \int_{|t_i|}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{df_i + 1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{df_i} \pi \Gamma\left(\frac{df_i}{2}\right)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{df_i}\right)^{-\frac{df_i + 1}{2}} dx \quad (\text{Equation 11})$$

389 All statistical analyses in this study were performed in Stata 17. The prediction model was performed via the “*scikit-*
 390 *learn*” (version 1.2.0) and “*xgboost*” package (version 1.6.2) in Python 3.8.0. Computations were supported by JASMIN
 391 supercomputer.

392 **Ensemble machine learning algorithm for risk prediction**

393 We integrated 10 socioeconomic features, 30 environmental exposure indicators, 10 items for pregnancy-relevant maternal
 394 cardiovascular diagnoses, 21 items for obstetric disease diagnoses, and 29 items of other aspects of medical history to
 395 predict the risks of obstetric APOs and neonatal cardiovascular diseases by virtue of ensemble learning. Initially, we
 396 employed 6 classical base learners, as i) linear logistic regression classifier, ii) decision tree classifier, iii) random forest
 397 classifier, iv) extra-trees classifier, v) bootstrap aggregating (bagging) classifier, and vi) gradient boosting classifier, to
 398 construct the supervised training models and generate predicted probability scores of the studied adverse health outcomes.
 399 Subsequently, we used a fully connected multi-layer perceptron classifier to integrate the original predictive factors and
 400 the risk probability scores obtained from the base learners to build a final predictive model for the occurrence of the two
 401 categories of APOs. The multi-layer perceptron classifier consists of a fully connected artificial neural network with 5
 402 hidden layers, each composed of 256, 256, 128, 64, and 32 nodes, respectively (refer to Extended Data Fig. 4 for the
 403 algorithm structure). The hyperparameters (number of hidden layers and nodes) of the multi-layer perceptron are
 404 determined by learning curves.

405 We evaluated the predictive performance of the final multi-layer perceptron classifier by randomly selecting 80% of
 406 the samples for model training and performed 10-fold cross-validation tests; the remaining 20% of the samples (N=24,218)

407 were used for external validation of the model. Evaluation also included assessing the sensitivity, false positive rate, and
408 the overall power of the prediction model (area under the ROC curve, AUC).

409 **Design of self-administrated APO risk assessment questionnaire**

410 We utilised ensemble learning algorithms to forecast the probability of risk events transpiring, employing the prediction
411 score as the dependent variable. We consider all discretised risk factors as independent variables and ascertain the weighting
412 coefficients through linear regression. Continuous variables were discretised using quartiles (e.g. environmental exposure
413 levels) or predetermined segmenting criteria (e.g. BMI). The procedure for determining the weights of the risk factors can
414 be outlined as follows:

- 415 1) Perform a linear regression with intercept β on the target score P against the discrete risk factors \mathbf{X}_D , generating
416 an initial weight matrix \mathbf{A}_0 , in terms of $P = \mathbf{A}_0\mathbf{X}_D + \beta$.
- 417 2) For risk factors with negative weights, reverse the sequence of the corresponding discrete labels $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_D$, and
418 transform the weight matrix \mathbf{A}_0 into a non-negative matrix, $\mathbf{A}_0^+ = |\mathbf{A}_0|$.
- 419 3) Define $\mathbf{A}_1 = \mathbf{A}_0^+$, where subscript indicates the round of iteration.

420 **Iteration start:**

- 421 - Compute the weighted score excluding the intercept: $\hat{P} = \mathbf{A}_i\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_D$.
- 422 - Select the case-control overlapping samples, based on 95% interval (2.5–97.5th percentile) of the score
423 distribution for cases and controls.
- 424 - Perform a linear regression with intercept on sample set, generate a new weight matrix, \mathbf{A}' , for the current
425 iteration.
- 426 - Adjust the weight matrix: $\mathbf{A}_{i+1} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_i + \mathbf{A}'}{i+1}$.
- 427 - Check if either i) $|\mathbf{A}_{i+1} - \mathbf{A}_i| < 0.001$, or ii) the number of overlap samples is less than 5% of the total
428 number of cases.

429 **Iteration ends.**

- 430 4) Calculate the sum of the maximum weights for each factor under the adjusted weight matrix after iteration, \mathbf{A}_{i+1} ,
431 and rescale it to 100, yielding the final weights, \mathbf{A}_S .
- 432 5) Compute the fully optimised risk scores for all pregnant women in the cohort with rescaled weights: $\hat{P} = \mathbf{A}_S\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_D$.
433 Define the median score of the overlap interval for cases and controls as the risk forecast threshold.
- 434 6) Complete the tabulation (see [Supplementary Table S1](#) for a sample table).

435 We conducted external validation for the self-directed APO risk prediction questionnaire on 5,217 pregnant women

436 recruited between 1 January and 31 May 2023. The de-identified questionnaires of two pregnant women with the highest
437 predicted risk scores of obstetric APOs and neonatal cardiovascular defects are enclosed in [Supplementary Tables S3–S4](#)
438 as samples.

439 **Sensitive analysis**

440 We conducted multiple sensitivity analyses to ensure the robustness of our results. These analyses include: 1) randomly
441 selecting 50% of the original samples for five times of statistical analysis ([Supplementary Tables S5–S6](#)); 2) using different
442 combinations of environmental exposures to adjust for potential confounders ([Supplementary Table S7](#)); and 3) dividing
443 the whole studied population into two subgroups, within Zhejiang and outside Zhejiang Province, so as to test the inter-
444 group heterogeneity of the estimated risk associations ([Supplementary Table S8](#)).

445 **Ethics Approval**

446 The current cohort-based study was approved by the ethics committee of the Women’s Hospital, Zhejiang University
447 School of Medicine (IRB-20220189-R) and we obtained written informed consent from all cohort participants upon
448 enrolment. As an original investigation providing first-hand epidemiological evidence, Strengthening the Reporting of
449 Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) guidelines for result reporting (see in [Supplementary Table S9](#)) was
450 strictly followed.

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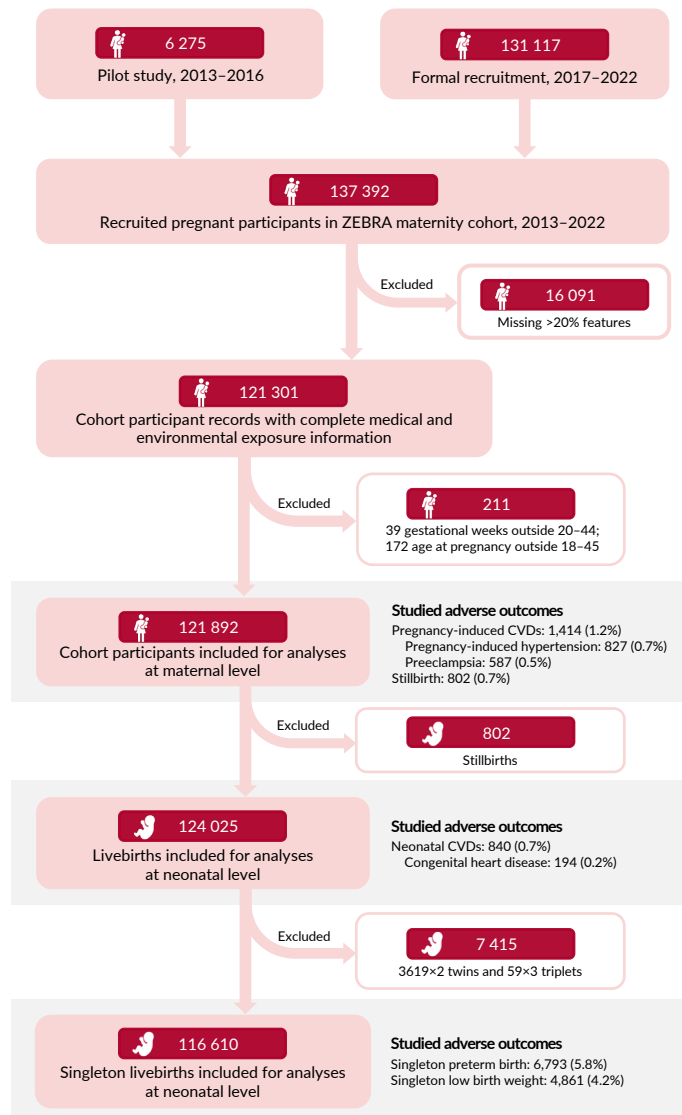
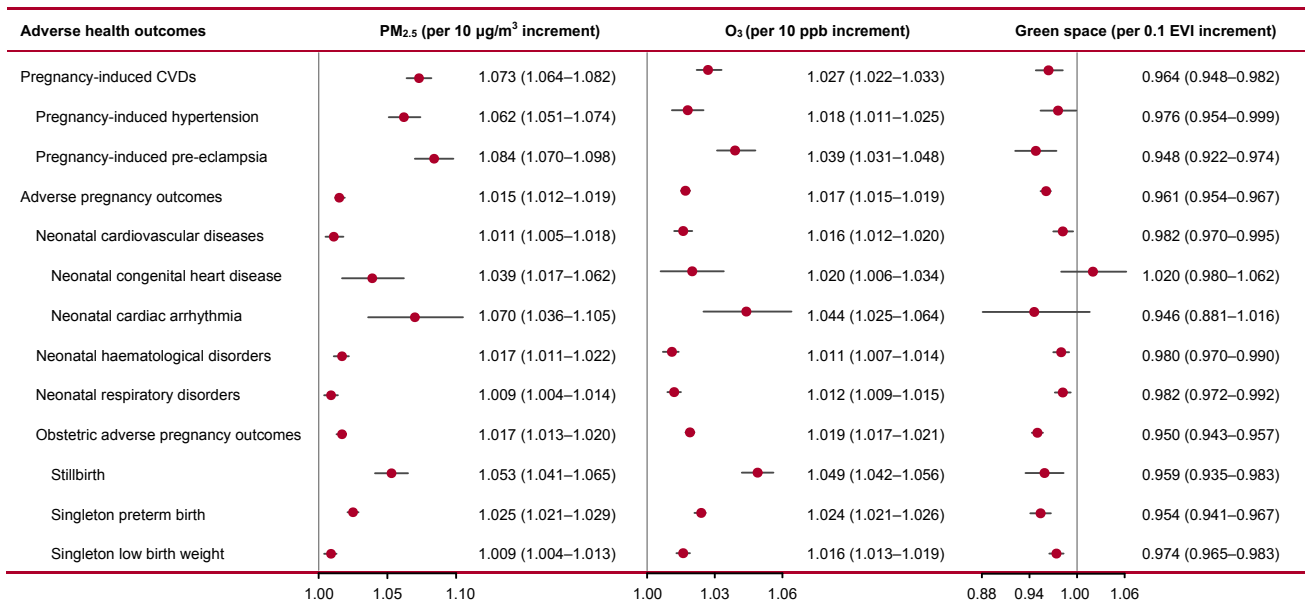


Fig. 1 | Recruitment flowchart of ZEBRA maternity cohort participants, 2013–2022.

ZEBRA maternity cohort comprises a comprehensive dataset, including sociodemographic characteristics, medical history prior to conception, diagnoses during pregnancy, obstetric-related diagnoses during the perinatal period, physiological and biochemical parameters obtained through routine blood and urine tests, and a retrospective record of environmental exposure tracing. Participants who changed their place of residence during the 18-month period for analysis (from one year before conception to the end of the second trimester) or had records missing >20% of studied variables were excluded from the analysis. Additionally, participants with gestational durations <20 or >44 weeks and aged <18 or >45 years were censored to eliminate potential effects on pregnancy outcomes. Shaded participants represent the cohort members included in designed analyses investigating three epidemiological aspects: i) the influence of risk factors on the occurrence of maternal pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases and stillbirths; ii) the relationship between risk factors and neonatal cardiovascular disorders; and iii) the association between risk factors and obstetric anomalies in singleton neonates.



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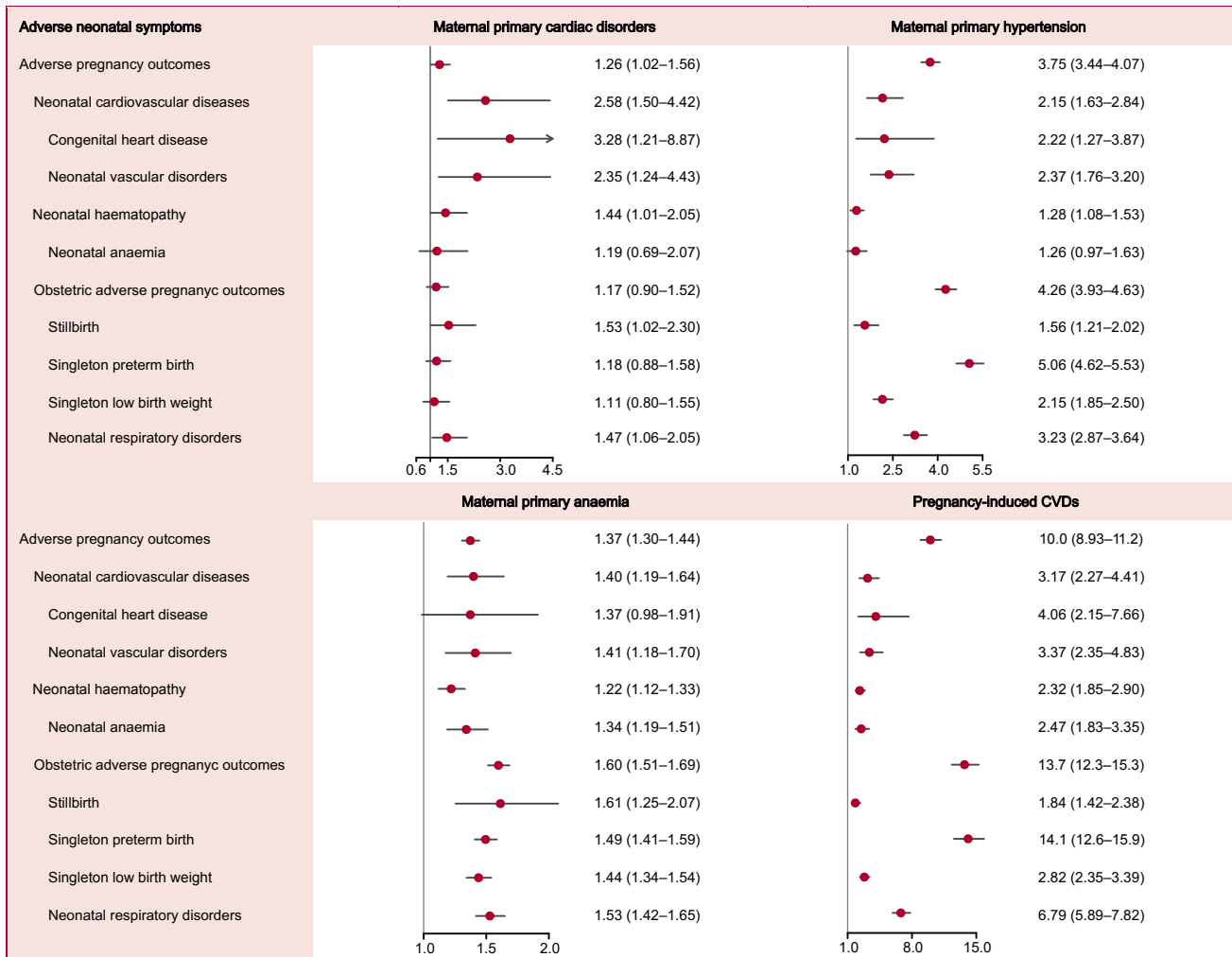
Fig. 2 | Risk association between environmental exposure and perinatal abnormalities.

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Epidemiological analyses encompass a variety of adverse health outcomes, including maternal pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) (excluding primary CVDs), neonatal cardiovascular and haematological disorders, as well as stillbirth, singleton preterm birth, and singleton low birth weight. Environmental exposure tracking covers PM_{2.5}, O₃, and greenness, to which hazard ratios (HR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated sufficiently having adjusted for covariates for 10-µg/m³, 10-ppb, and 0.1-EVI incremental exposure, respectively. Subcategories of adverse health outcomes that did not exhibit significant risk associations with three environmental exposures were not included in the forest-plot. The indentation degree of listed subcategories of adverse health outcomes represents hierarchical tiers.

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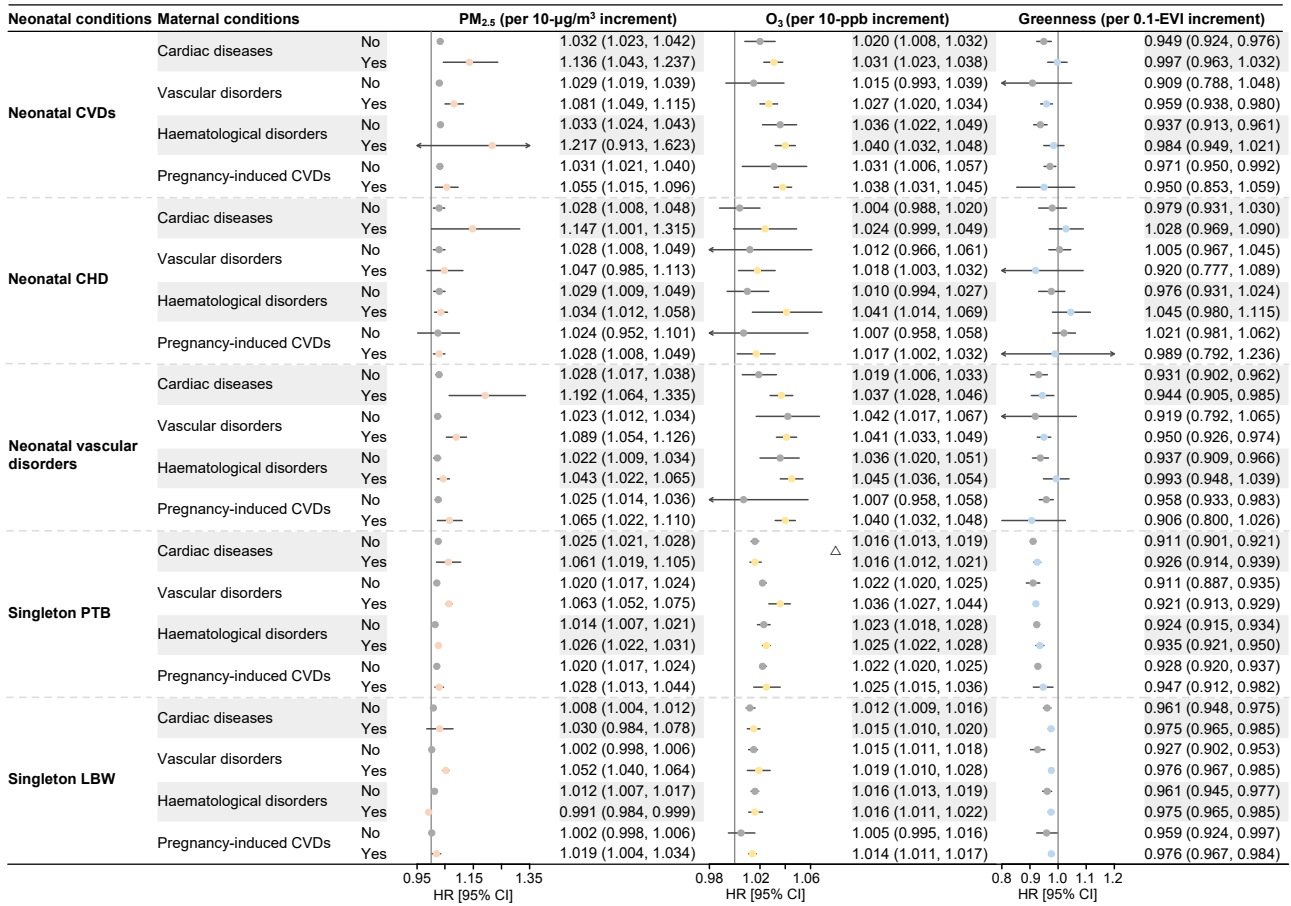
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480 **Fig. 3 | Risk association between maternal cardiovascular and haematological complications and**
 481 **adverse pregnancy outcomes.**

482 Risk factors are defined as maternal CVDs, including primary cardiac disorders, primary hypertension, primary
 483 anaemia, and pregnancy-induced CVDs. Adverse health outcomes encompass obstetric anomalies (stillbirth,
 484 singleton PTB, singleton LBW, and neonatal respiratory disorders), as well as neonatal cardiovascular and
 485 haematological disorders. Multiple pregnancies are highly likely to be associated with medically indicated PTB and
 486 naturally occurring LBW, and thus are typically excluded from the analysis on investigating obstetric anomalies.
 487 Hazard ratios (HR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated by Cox regression models having adjusted for
 488 covariates for 10- $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 10-ppb, and 0.1-EVI incremental exposure, respectively.
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Fig. 4 | Effect modification of maternal cardiovascular complications on the risk association between environmental exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes.

Four effect modifiers, including maternal primary cardiac diseases, primary vascular disorders, primary haematological disorders, and pregnancy-induced CVDs, were examined. The presentations of estimated hazard ratios (HRs) are defined along three dimensions: neonatal adverse health condition (N), maternal primary and pregnancy-induced diseases (M), and environmental exposure (E), in which context HRs represent the strength of the risk association between E and N, with or without the presence of M. Within the M group, no significant difference at $\alpha=0.05$ between the two HR levels was indicated by Δ , while the unmarked groups signify that there is a significant difference in risks with or without M.

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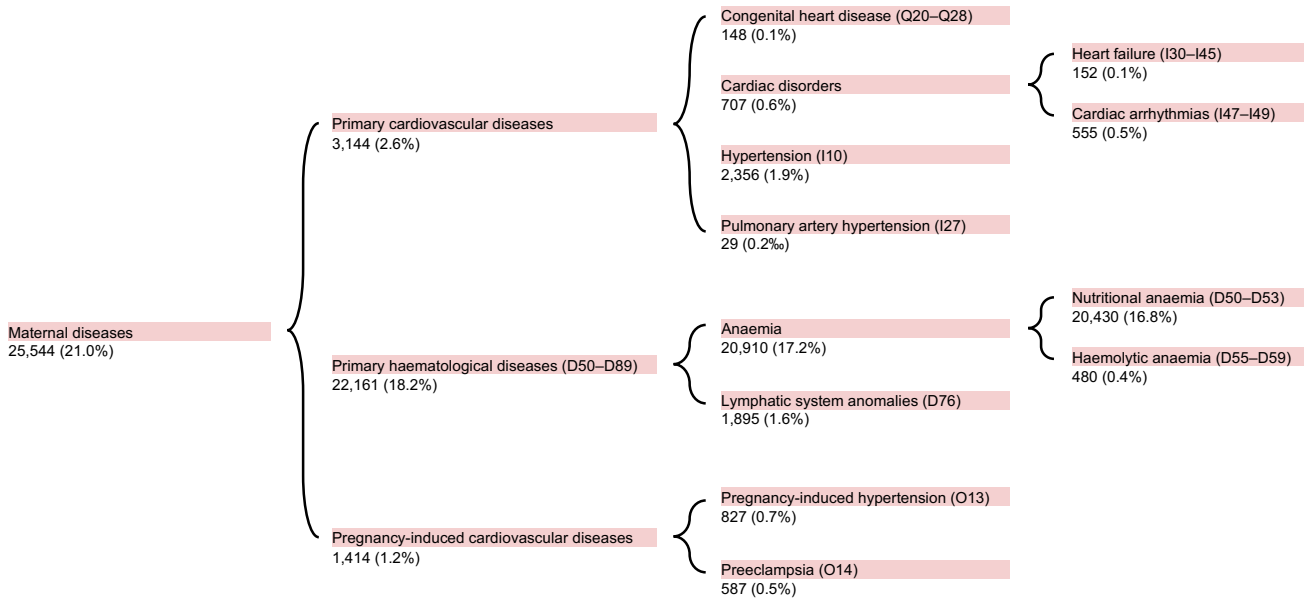
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604 **EXTENDED DATA**

605



606

607 **Extended Data Fig. 1 | Incidence of adverse maternal health outcomes by hierarchical categorisation.**

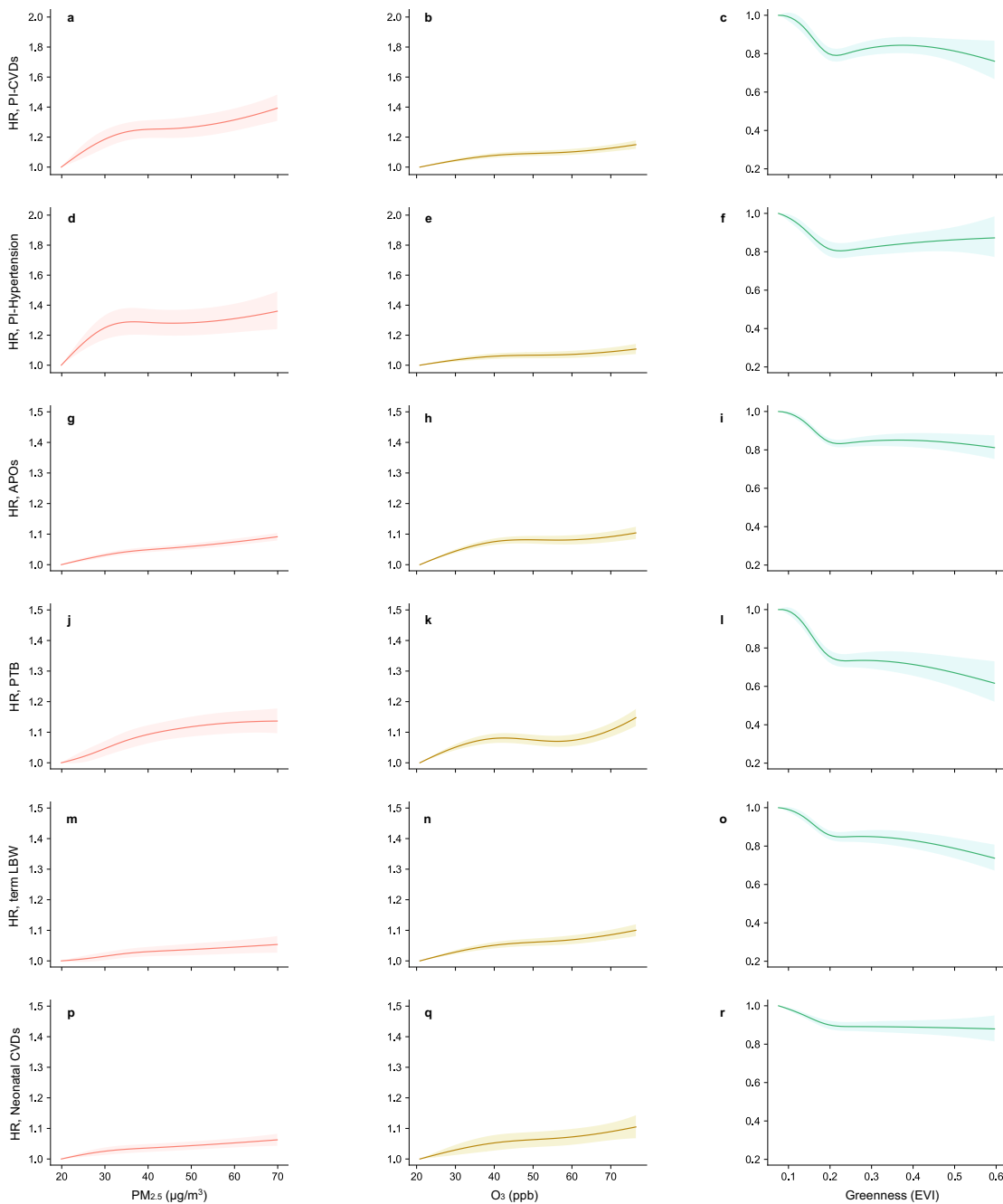
608 Studied maternal diseases encompass three major categories: primary CVDs, primary haematological diseases, and pregnancy-induced
 609 CVDs. The diagnosis of specific diseases corresponds to the International Classification of Diseases 10th Revision (ICD-10) coding
 610 system. The number of cases and incidence rates for each hierarchical level of disease are indicated beneath the disease labels.

611



614 **Extended Data Fig. 2 | Incidence of adverse pregnancy outcomes by hierarchical categorisation.**

615 Adverse pregnancy outcomes encompass four aspects: obstetric anomalies, neonatal CVDs, neonatal haematological diseases, and
 616 neonatal respiratory disorders. The figure configuration follows the layout of [Extended Data Fig. 1](#).



619

620 **Extended Data Fig. 3 | Risk association curves of environmental exposures on adverse maternal**
 621 **pregnancy-induced cardiovascular complications and adverse pregnancy outcomes.**

622 Restricted cubic spline regression models with no more than 4 degrees of freedom are applied to investigate the curved risk association
 623 trends (quantified in hazard ratio, HR) between maternal PM_{2.5}, O₃, greenness exposure (presented in columns) and adverse health
 624 outcomes. **a-c**, pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases; **d-f**, pregnancy-induced hypertension; **g-i**, adverse pregnancy outcomes, **j-l**,
 625 preterm birth, **m-o**, term low birth weight, **p-r**, neonatal cardiovascular diseases. Thresholds are defined as the lowest 5th percentiles of
 626 the exposure levels among the studied cohort participants, as 19.8 µg/m³, 20.9 ppb, and 0.076 EVI for PM_{2.5}, O₃, and greenness,
 627 respectively. The trend observation ranges are determined by 1st-99th percentiles, as 16.4–76.4 µg/m³, 16.1–76.2 ppb, and 0.044–0.542
 628 EVI for PM_{2.5}, O₃, and greenness, respectively.

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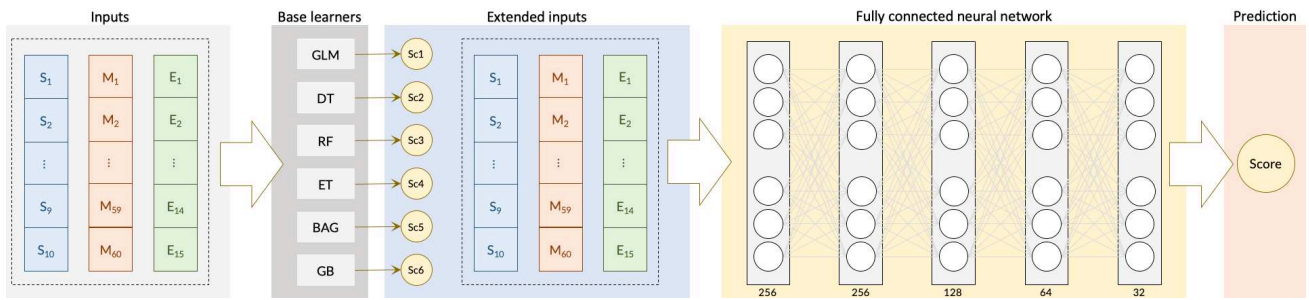
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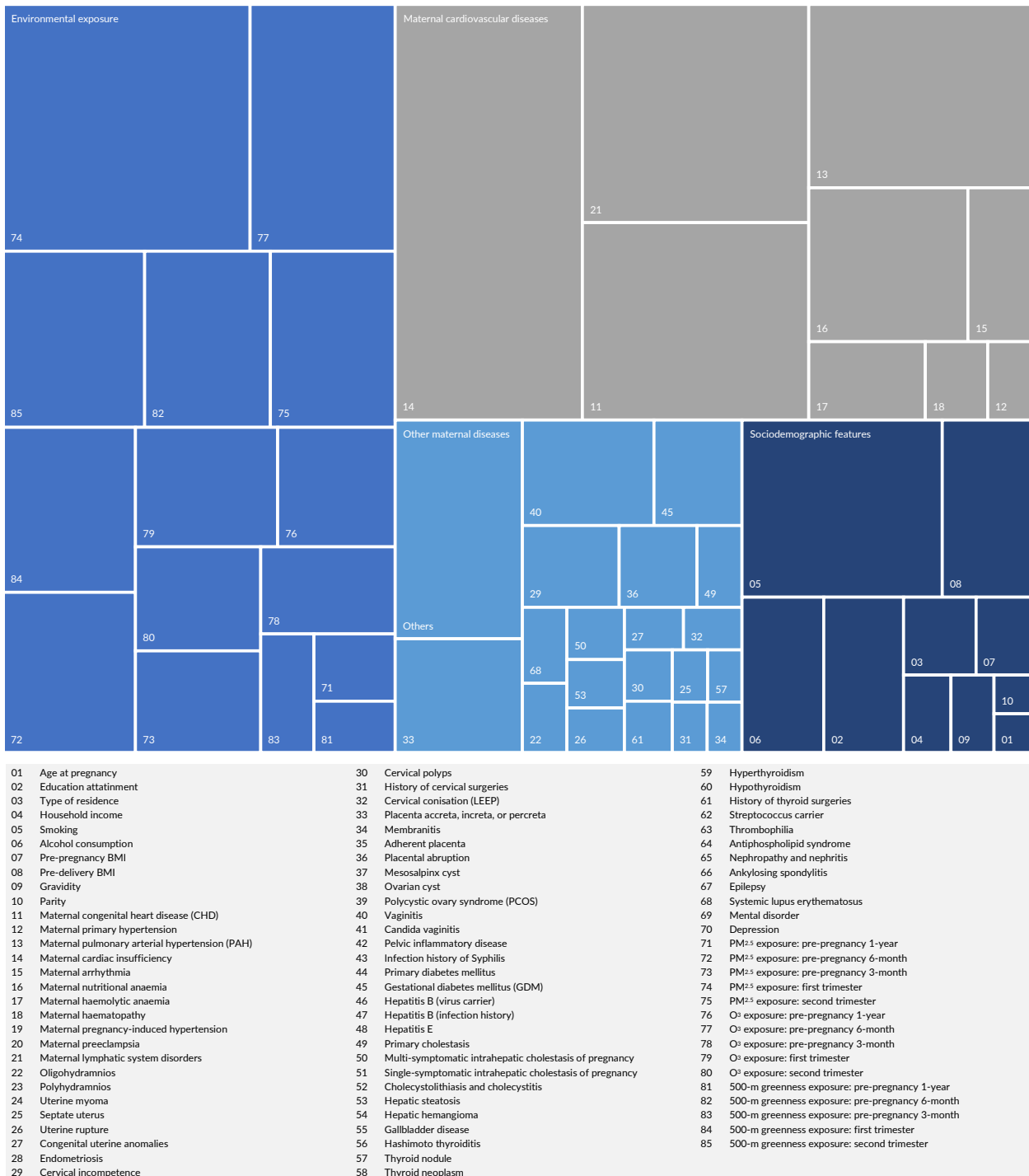
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Extended Data Fig. 4 | Schematic diagram of ensemble-learning-based risk prediction algorithm framework for adverse pregnancy outcomes.

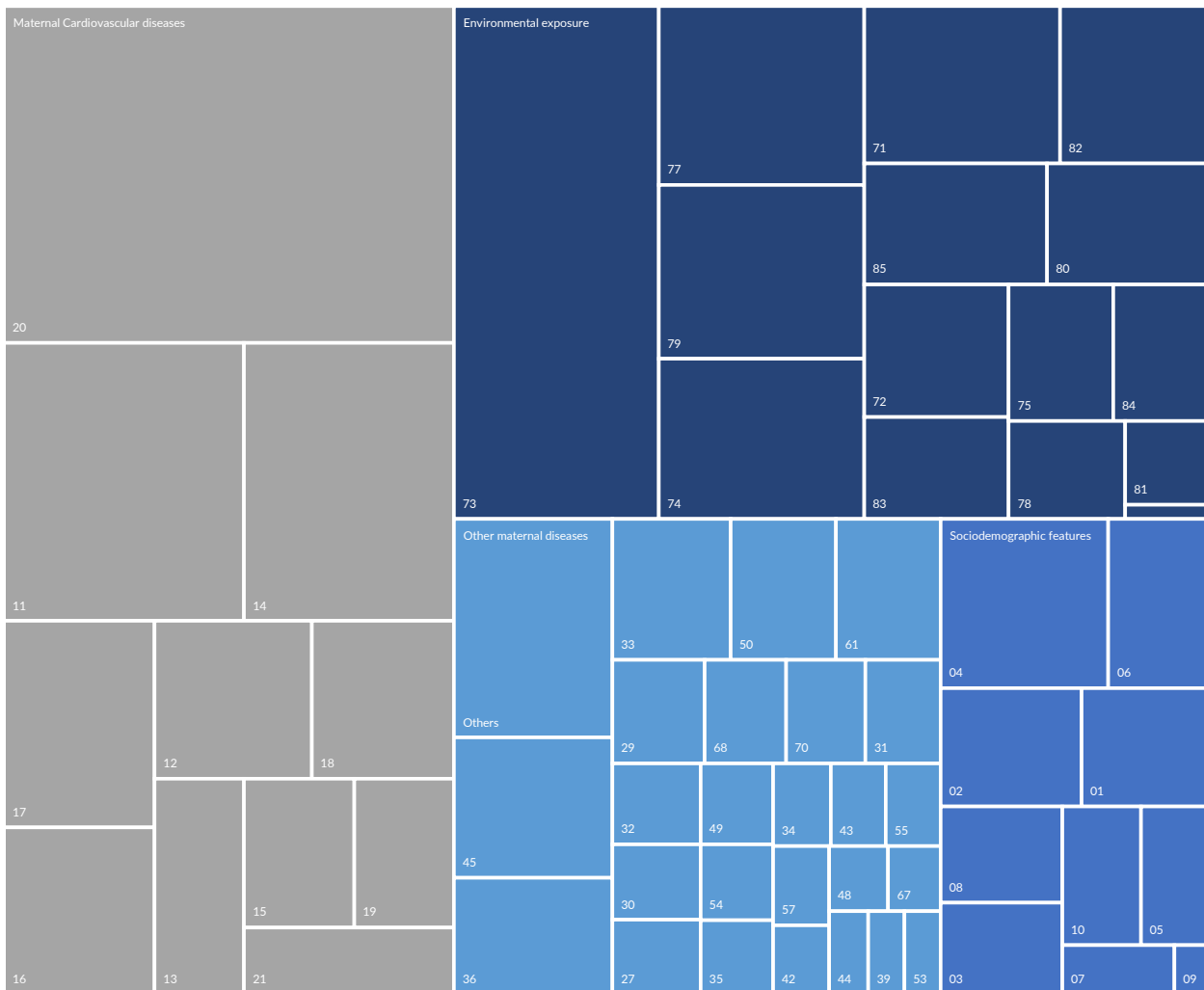
The prediction targets of the algorithm are i) total obstetric anomalies and ii) total neonatal CVDs, without distinguishing any subsets. Initially, the algorithm takes 10 socioeconomic features (denoted as S), 60 medical diagnostic records (M), and 15 environmental exposure factors (E) as input layers. It conducts first-stage risk prediction using six base learners: generalised linear model (GLM), decision tree classifier (DT), random forest classifier (RF), extra-tree classifier (ET), bootstrap aggregating classifier (BAG), and gradient boosting classifier (GB). The predicted risk scores (Sc) obtained in the first-stage algorithm, together with the raw initial inputs, serve as the new input layers for the second-stage fully connected neural network (FCNN). The FCNN comprises five hidden layers, each consisting of 256, 256, 128, 64, and 32 nodes, respectively. The outputs of the second-stage algorithm ultimately represent the predicted occurrence probabilities for the two designed prediction targets.



644

645 **Extended Data Fig. 5 | Treemap chart of weighted risk scores of obstetric adverse pregnancy outcomes.**

646 The treemap illustrates the weights of the 85 risk factors used for prediction via the self-assessment questionnaire. These risk factors
 647 are categorised into four groups: sociodemographic features, environmental exposure, maternal CVDs, and other maternal diseases,
 648 comprising 12.6%, 38.0%, 34.5%, and 14.9% of the total weight, respectively. In clinical practice, pregnant women who develop
 649 pregnancy-induced hypertension or even preeclampsia are almost inevitably subjected to caesarean section, leading to medically
 650 indicated preterm birth. Therefore, maternal pregnancy-induced hypertension and preeclampsia were excluded in risk weighting.
 651



01 Age at pregnancy	30 Cervical polyps	59 Hyperthyroidism
02 Education attainment	31 History of cervical surgeries	60 Hypothyroidism
03 Type of residence	32 Cervical conisation (LEEP)	61 History of thyroid surgeries
04 Household income	33 Placenta accreta, increta, or percreta	62 Streptococcus carrier
05 Smoking	34 Membranitis	63 Thrombophilia
06 Alcohol consumption	35 Adherent placenta	64 Antiphospholipid syndrome
07 Pre-pregnancy BMI	36 Placental abruption	65 Nephropathy and nephritis
08 Pre-delivery BMI	37 Mesosalpinx cyst	66 Ankylosing spondylitis
09 Gravidity	38 Ovarian cyst	67 Epilepsy
10 Parity	39 Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)	68 Systemic lupus erythematosus
11 Maternal congenital heart disease (CHD)	40 Vaginitis	69 Mental disorder
12 Maternal primary hypertension	41 Candida vaginitis	70 Depression
13 Maternal pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH)	42 Pelvic inflammatory disease	71 PM ²⁻³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 1-year
14 Maternal cardiac insufficiency	43 Infection history of Syphilis	72 PM ²⁻³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 6-month
15 Maternal arrhythmia	44 Primary diabetes mellitus	73 PM ²⁻³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 3-month
16 Maternal nutritional anaemia	45 Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM)	74 PM ²⁻³ exposure: first trimester
17 Maternal haemolytic anaemia	46 Hepatitis B (virus carrier)	75 PM ²⁻³ exposure: second trimester
18 Maternal haematopathy	47 Hepatitis B (infection history)	76 O ³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 1-year
19 Maternal pregnancy-induced hypertension	48 Hepatitis E	77 O ³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 6-month
20 Maternal preeclampsia	49 Primary cholestasis	78 O ³ exposure: pre-pregnancy 3-month
21 Maternal lymphatic system disorders	50 Multi-symptomatic intrahepatic cholestasis of pregnancy	79 O ³ exposure: first trimester
22 Oligohydramnios	51 Single-symptomatic intrahepatic cholestasis of pregnancy	80 O ³ exposure: second trimester
23 Polyhydramnios	52 Cholelithiasis and cholecystitis	81 500-m greenness exposure: pre-pregnancy 1-year
24 Uterine myoma	53 Hepatic steatosis	82 500-m greenness exposure: pre-pregnancy 6-month
25 Septate uterus	54 Hepatic hemangioma	83 500-m greenness exposure: pre-pregnancy 3-month
26 Uterine rupture	55 Gallbladder disease	84 500-m greenness exposure: first trimester
27 Congenital uterine anomalies	56 Hashimoto thyroiditis	85 500-m greenness exposure: second trimester
28 Endometriosis	57 Thyroid nodule	
29 Cervical incompetence	58 Thyroid neoplasm	

653

654 **Extended Data Fig. 6 | Treemap chart of weighted risk scores of neonatal cardiovascular diseases.**

655 The layout of the figure follows the configuration presented in Extended Data Fig. 5. The four groups of risk factors: sociodemographic
 656 features, environmental exposure, maternal CVDs, and other maternal diseases, account for weights of 10.7%, 32.5%, 37.3%, and 19.5%,
 657 respectively.

658

Extended Data Table 1 | Statistical summary of ZEBRA maternity cohort profile, 2013–2022.

Characteristics		Mean (SD) or Cases (%)
Maternal age at delivery		31.2 (4.3)
Height (cm)		160.6 (4.9)
Weight before pregnancy (Kg)		53.4 (8.0)
BMI before pregnancy		21.1 (2.8)
Weight before delivery (Kg)		67.9 (8.4)
BMI before delivery		26.3 (3.0)
Gestational age (day)		272.6 (13.3)
Menarche age		13.9 (1.4)
Gravidity (including current pregnancy)	1	50,089 (41.1%)
	2	36,255 (29.7%)
	3–5	33,684 (27.6%)
	>5	1,864 (1.5%)
Parity (including current pregnancy)	1	72,412 (59.4%)
	2	46,667 (38.3%)
	3	2,653 (2.2%)
	>3	160 (0.1%)
Ethnicity	Hàn	120,170 (98.6%)
	Manchu	246 (0.2%)
	Tǔ-Jiā	240 (0.2%)
	Huí	224 (0.2%)
	Zhuàng	187 (0.2%)
	Shē	181 (0.1%)
	Others	644 (0.5%)
Occupation	Office staff	97,392 (79.9%)
	Worker	14,505 (11.9%)
	Professional and specialist	3,291 (2.7%)
	Farmer	975 (0.8%)
	Medical staff	366 (0.3%)
	Student	123 (0.1%)
	Others	5,240 (4.3%)
Education attainment	High school or below	19,511 (16.0%)
	College education	23,249 (19.1%)
	Undergraduate	62,083 (50.9%)
	Graduate or above	17,049 (14.0%)
Type of residence	Urban	93,846 (77.0%)
	Rural	28,046 (23.0%)
Type of medical insurance	NCMS	8,644 (7.1%)
	URBMI	7,530 (6.2%)
	UEBMI	105,718 (86.7%)
Alcohol and smoking history	Alcohol	124 (0.1%)
	Smoking	35 (0.3%)
	Second-hand smoking	2,214 (1.8%)

History of diseases and medical treatments	Cases (%)
Uterine fibroids	7,951 (6.5%)
Septate uterus	613 (0.5%)
Uterine rupture	474 (0.4%)
Congenital uterine malformation	293 (0.2%)
Cervical incompetence	1,107 (0.9%)
History of cervical surgery	687 (0.6%)
Cervical polyps	427 (0.4%)
Cervical conisation (LEEP)	314 (0.3%)
Membranitis	527 (0.4%)
Placenta accreta, increta, or percreta	825 (0.7%)
Morbidly adherent placenta	3,369 (2.8%)
Placental abruption	2,675 (2.2%)
Mesosalpinx cyst	2,758 (2.3%)
Ovarian cyst	2,136 (1.8%)
Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)	356 (0.3%)
Vaginitis	552 (0.5%)
Pelvic inflammatory disease (PID)	455 (0.4%)
Systemic lupus erythematosus	71 (0.1%)
Syphilis (infection history)	423 (0.3%)
Gestational diabetes mellitus	290 (0.2%)
Antiphospholipid syndrome (APS)	902 (0.7%)
Hepatitis B (virus carrier)	6,825 (5.6%)
Hepatitis B (infection history)	5,349 (4.4%)
Hepatic haemangioma	64 (0.1%)
Gallbladder diseases	386 (0.3%)
Single-symptomatic intrahepatic cholestasis of pregnancy	2,864 (2.3%)
Multi-symptomatic intrahepatic cholestasis of pregnancy	805 (0.7%)
Cholecystolithiasis and cholecystitis	313 (0.3%)
Hepatic steatosis (HS)	61 (0.1%)
Other liver diseases or anomalies	1,932 (1.6%)
Hashimoto thyroiditis	1,043 (0.9%)
Thyroid cancer	720 (0.6%)
Hyperthyroidism	231 (0.2%)
Hypothyroidism	406 (0.3%)
History of thyroid surgery	402 (0.3%)
Kidney diseases	255 (0.2%)
Endometriosis	815 (0.7%)
Thrombophilia	2,031 (1.7%)
Ankylosing spondylitis	160 (0.1%)
Epilepsy	88 (0.1%)
Mental disorders	82 (0.1%)
Depression	187 (0.2%)

Extended Data Table 3 | Sensitivity analyses on risk associations by adjusting for combinations of confounders.

Confounder Adjustment	PM _{2.5} (10 µg/m ³)	O ₃ (10 ppb)	Greenness (0.1 EVI)
Maternal pregnancy-induced cardiovascular diseases			
Crude HR	1.053 (1.046–1.060)	1.006 (1.002–1.011)	0.946 (0.931–0.962)
Combo 1: Physiological and lifestyle characteristics, including age at pregnancy, BMI, ethnicity, alcohol and smoking history.	1.050 (1.043–1.058)	1.008 (1.003–1.013)	0.947 (0.931–0.963)
Combo 2: Combo 1 + socioeconomic status, including urban/rural residence, medical insurance, occupation, education attainment.	1.054 (1.047–1.062)	1.008 (1.003–1.013)	0.929 (0.914–0.945)
Combo 3: Combo 2 + obstetric and relevant surgical history, including gravidity, parity, history of cervical, hysteroscopic and placental surgeries.	1.057 (1.050–1.064)	1.008 (1.003–1.013)	0.930 (0.915–0.946)
Combo 4: Combo 3 + non-cardiovascular medical history, including liver and gallbladder diseases, thyroid diseases, metabolic disorders, immune system diseases, mental disorders, etc.	1.057 (1.050–1.064)	1.008 (1.003–1.013)	0.931 (0.916–0.947)
Combo 5: Combo 4 + cardiovascular and haematological medical history.	1.055 (1.048–1.062)	1.009 (1.005–1.014)	0.931 (0.916–0.947)
Combo 6: Combo 5 + multiple studied environmental exposures, as PM _{2.5} , O ₃ , and greenness.	1.070 (1.061–1.079)	1.029 (1.024–1.035)	0.968 (0.951–0.985)
Combo 7: Combo 6 + additional environmental exposures, as NO ₂ , SO ₂ , CO, temperature and humidity.	1.073 (1.064–1.082)	1.027 (1.022–1.033)	0.964 (0.948–0.982)
Adverse pregnancy outcomes			
Crude HR	1.013 (1.010–1.016)	1.010 (1.008–1.012)	0.974 (0.968–0.980)
Combo 1: Physiological and lifestyle characteristics, including age at pregnancy, BMI, ethnicity, alcohol and smoking history.	1.012 (1.009–1.015)	1.010 (1.009–1.012)	0.977 (0.971–0.983)
Combo 2: Combo 1 + socioeconomic status, including urban/rural residence, medical insurance, occupation, education attainment.	1.015 (1.013–1.018)	1.011 (1.009–1.013)	0.955 (0.949–0.961)
Combo 3: Combo 2 + obstetric and relevant surgical history, including gravidity, parity, history of cervical, hysteroscopic and placental surgeries.	1.018 (1.015–1.021)	1.010 (1.008–1.012)	0.951 (0.945–0.957)
Combo 4: Combo 3 + non-cardiovascular medical history, including liver and gallbladder diseases, thyroid diseases, metabolic disorders, immune system diseases, mental disorders, etc.	1.018 (1.015–1.021)	1.010 (1.008–1.012)	0.952 (0.946–0.958)
Combo 5: Combo 4 + cardiovascular and haematological medical history.	1.016 (1.013–1.018)	1.011 (1.009–1.013)	0.951 (0.945–0.957)
Combo 6: Combo 5 + multiple studied environmental exposures, as PM _{2.5} , O ₃ , and greenness.	1.019 (1.016–1.023)	1.016 (1.014–1.019)	0.960 (0.954–0.967)
Combo 7: Combo 6 + additional environmental exposures, as NO ₂ , SO ₂ , CO, temperature and humidity.	1.015 (1.012–1.019)	1.017 (1.015–1.019)	0.961 (0.954–0.967)

669

670 **Extended Data Table 4 | Direct and indirect effects of maternal pregnancy-induced cardiovascular**
 671 **diseases as mediator between environmental exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes.**

672 Total adverse pregnancy outcomes (APO) together with three subsets, preterm birth (PTB), low birth weight (LBW), and neonatal
 673 cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are assessed for mediation effects via maternal pregnancy-induced CVDs. Environmental exposures
 674 include PM_{2.5}, O₃ and greenness, quantified in 10- $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 10-ppb, and 0.1-EVI increment, respectively. Effects are quantified in β , log-
 675 transformed hazard ratio (HR), estimated from Cox proportional hazard regression models with 95% confidence intervals (CI).
 676 Proportions of direct and indirect effects are estimated in percentages (%).

		PM _{2.5} (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)			O ₃ (10 ppb)			Greenness (0.1 EVI)		
		β	95% CI	%	β	95% CI	%	β	95% CI	%
APO	total effect	0.026	(0.022–0.029)		0.022	(0.020–0.024)		–0.048	(–0.054 to –0.041)	
	direct effect	0.014	(0.011–0.018)	55.6	0.015	(0.013–0.017)	65.6	–0.037	(–0.043 to –0.030)	76.9
	indirect effect	0.011		44.4	0.008		34.4	–0.011		23.1
PTB	total effect	0.013	(0.008–0.017)		0.022	(0.020–0.025)		–0.029	(–0.038 to –0.020)	
	direct effect	0.006	(0.002–0.011)	49.1	0.012	(0.010–0.015)	55.2	–0.022	(–0.031 to –0.013)	75.1
	indirect effect	0.006		50.9	0.010		44.8	–0.007		24.9
LBW	total effect	0.039	(0.035–0.042)		0.031	(0.029–0.034)		–0.077	(–0.086 to –0.069)	
	direct effect	0.023	(0.019–0.027)	60.9	0.020	(0.018–0.023)	65.5	–0.068	(–0.077 to –0.059)	87.9
	indirect effect	0.015		39.1	0.011		34.5	–0.009		12.1
CVD	total effect	0.062	(0.051–0.073)		0.043	(0.036–0.049)		–0.027	(–0.049 to –0.005)	
	direct effect	0.048	(0.038–0.059)	78.2	0.036	(0.029–0.042)	84.3	–0.024	(–0.046 to –0.002)	86.7
	indirect effect	0.014		21.8	0.007		15.7	–0.004		13.3

677

678 **Data and code availability**

679 The information of the ZEBRA maternity cohort participants for privacy protection it is not disclosed for public use.
680 Researchers interested in accessing the data are encouraged to contact the principal investigators with a brief research
681 proposal. Access to the data will be granted after approval by the ZEBRA committee and the Health Commission of
682 Zhejiang Province. The codes for analysis can be shared upon request.

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692 maternity cohort.

693 **Author contributions**

694 H.Z.S., Y.G., and X.B. conceptualised and designed the study. W.X. and X.B. were responsible for the administration
695 of the maternity cohort. H.T., H.Z., Q.X., Y.T., and other non-academic members from the ZEBRA collaborative group
696 collected, censored, and pre-processed medical records and associated data for analysis. H.Z.S. performed analyses and
697 wrote the manuscript with comprehensive supports from all authors. K.R.D., K.T., E.X.L., and L.P.S. supervised the study
698 design, reviewed and edited the manuscript.

699 **Competing interests**

700 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have
701 appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

702 **Additional information**

703 Supplementary Materials include 6 long-list supplementary contents and 4 tables in 55 pages.

704

705

706 **SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

707

708 [Supplementary Table S1](#) | Self-directed risk assessment questionnaire for early-stage forecasting of obstetric
709 adverse pregnancy outcomes and neonatal congenital cardiovascular diseases.

710 [Supplementary Table S2](#) | Scoring for risk factors of self-directed questionnaire for early-stage risk forecasting
711 of obstetric adverse pregnancy outcomes and neonatal congenital cardiovascular diseases.

712 [Supplementary Table S3](#) | A sample filled self-directed questionnaire with the highest risk score of obstetric
713 ad-verse pregnancy outcomes.

714 [Supplementary Table S4](#) | A sample filled self-directed questionnaire with the highest risk score of neonatal
715 cardiovascular diseases.

716 [Supplementary Table S5](#) | Sensitivity analysis: Fully adjusted risk associations between environmental
717 exposure and adverse health outcomes by bootstrap resampling.

718 [Supplementary Table S6](#) | Sensitivity analysis: Fully adjusted risk associations between maternal
719 cardiovascular diseases (primary and pregnancy-induced) and adverse pregnancy outcomes (obstetric and
720 neonatal diseases) by bootstrap resampling.

721 [Supplementary Table S7](#) | Sensitivity analysis: Risk associations between environmental exposure and adverse
722 health outcomes by different combination of multi-factor adjustment.

723 [Supplementary Table S8](#) | Sensitivity analysis: Robustness of estimated risk associations at Zhejiang
724 Provincial scale and China nationwide scale.

725 [Supplementary Table S9](#) | STROBE checklist: Checklist of items that should be included in reports of
726 observational studies.

727 [Supplementary Table S10](#) | ZEBRA Collaborative Group full roster.

728

Supplementary Files

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