

# Association Between Prenatal Phthalate Exposure and Anthropometric Measures of Newborns in a Sample of Iranian Population

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## Research

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## Abstract

**Background:** This study aimed to examine the associations between the urinary concentrations of phthalate metabolites among a sample of Iranian pregnant women with anthropometric measures of neonates.

**Methods:** Urine samples were obtained from 121 pregnant women at their first trimester of pregnancy; the levels of monobutyl phthalate (MBP), monobenzyl phthalate (MBzP), mono-2-ethylhexyl phthalate (MEHP), and mono (2-ethyl-5-hydroxyhexyl) phthalate (MEHHP) metabolites were determined by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS). The correlation between the urinary concentration of these metabolites and some socio-demographic factors of the participants (maternal education, age, family income, pre-pregnancy body mass index), their lifestyle variables (smoking habit, food pattern, and physical activity), cleaning products use data (cosmetic and household cleaning products) with anthropometric measures of neonates were investigated.

**Results:** MBzP, MBP, MEHP, and MEHHP were detected in 100% of participants with the concentration ranged from 120 to 860 µg/g creatinine. Significant correlations were observed between the urinary levels of maternal MBzP (adjusted  $\beta = 0.3$  (0.001),  $p=0.03$ ) and MEHHP and (adjusted  $\beta = 0.3$  (0.001),  $p=0.04$ ) with the birth weight of female neonates. MBP (adjusted  $\beta = -0.3$  (0.02),  $p=0.04$ ) and MBzP (adjusted  $\beta = -0.3$  (0.001),  $p=0.02$ ) were found negatively associated with head circumference in male and female newborns, respectively. Significant differences existed in the birth weight of infants whose mothers used plastic packaging for pickle and those who had history of passive smoking ( $p$ -value < 0.05).

**Conclusions:** the studied metabolites had higher concentration in the Iranian pregnant women urine compared to the other countries. Higher levels of prenatal exposure to phthalate metabolites may adversely impact the health status of newborns.

## Background

Phthalates or phthalic acid esters (PAEs) are a group of compounds widely used in a broad range of industrial products. Low molecular-weight phthalates such as diethyl phthalate (DEP), and dibutyl phthalate (DBP) are commonly used as additives and stabilizing agents in cosmetics, perfumes, lotions, pesticides as stabilizing agents, while high molecular-weight phthalates (with  $\geq 8$  carbons in the alkyl chain) including di-2-ethyl hexyl phthalate (DEHP) and butyl benzyl phthalate (BBzP) are mainly applied as plasticizers in the manufacture of packaging materials, polyvinylchloride (PVC), as well as in the manufacture of blood transfusion devices and catheters [1]. Although, phthalates can easily be released from materials containing these hazardous compounds, and thus may be entered into the body through inhalation, ingestion or dermal adsorption, but dietary intake has been regarded to contribute as the main route of human exposure to phthalates [2]. Upon the absorption, the diester phthalates have been assumed to quickly hydrolyze to monoester phthalates (mono-2-ethylhexyl phthalate, MEHP), which are subsequently oxidized into the more simple products such as MEHHP (mono-2-ethyl-5-hydroxyhexyl), and therefore excreted into the urine and feces [3].

Previous studies have detected substantial amounts of phthalates in the cord blood and amniotic fluid, indicating that these compounds can cross the placenta and may harmfully affect the growing fetus. In this regard, several epidemiological studies have shown a potential relationship between maternal exposure to phthalates and the risk of poor birth outcomes [4]. Due to these potential adverse effects on human health, many developed countries have prohibited the use of di-ethylhexyl phthalate (DEHP), dibutyl phthalate (DBP), and butyl benzyl phthalate (BBzP) in industrial products [5]. However, there is no strict regulation set up yet to manage the use of these chemicals in most of the developing countries, including Iran. Since several physiological changes occur during the pregnancy, pregnant women and their fetus may be more prone to negative health effects by the exposure to environmental chemicals [6]. To the best of our knowledge, there is no previous publication have investigated the association of exposure to phthalates and birth outcomes among Iranian pregnant women. Therefore, in the present study, we aimed to evaluate the urinary concentrations of phthalate metabolites in a sample of Iranian pregnant women at their first trimester and examine the possible association between phthalate exposures during pregnancy with the anthropometric measures of neonates. The findings of this study can also provide an insight into common source exposure to phthalates among Iranian pregnant women which can help decision makers to take the appropriate measures.

## Methods

### *Study population*

This cross-sectional study was conducted between the years 2018–2019 on 121 pairs mother-newborn who lived in Isfahan, Iran. The participants were selected randomly among those pregnant women at their first trimester who attended at health care centers in Isfahan city in the context of the PERSIAN birth cohort. The distributions of participants' location are given in Fig. 1. The participants were completely informed about the objectives, methodology as well as the voluntary nature of the survey, and a signed consent letter was taken from them. It should be mentioned that, the protocols and ethical issues related to this study were approved and observed by Ethics Committees of Isfahan university of Medical sciences.

The early morning urine samples were taken from the participants, collected in borosilicate containers and transferred to the laboratory to be kept at  $-20$  °C until the future experiments. During the sample collection, the PERSIAN Birth Cohort questionnaires were used to gather the data on socio-demographic variables (maternal education, age, family income), lifestyle factors (pre-pregnancy BMI, smoking habit, and physical activity (PA)), and food habits and household cleaning products use [7]. The total physical activity (MET-minutes/week) score were computed by IPAQ (International Physical Activity Questionnaire) [8]. To obtain the data regarding the food intake habits of the participants, food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) was

applied. The questionnaire included the questions asking about the frequency of consuming fried foods (as daily, 1–2 per week, 1–3 per month, seldom, and never), and the use of plastics for packaging certain foods including bread, lemon juice, pickle, leftover and water.

### ***Measuring urinary metabolites of phthalate***

All the measurements were done along with the standard solutions of MBP, MBzP, MEHP, and MEHHP in methanol, which were provided separately, collected in Teflon capped amber glass containers, and stored at temperatures below zero. To measure the phthalate content of urine samples the following steps were taken: at first, 10 ml from each of the urine samples were defrosted and digested by 20 µl of β-glucuronidase enzyme for 18 h incubation at 37 °C in order to extract the to extract MBP, MBzP, MEHP, and MEHHP metabolites. Then, 0.2 g of sodium chloride was added to the preparation and shaken for 24 h at 37 °C. Afterwards, 5 ml of the obtained mixture was diluted with the same volume of distilled water and the solution pH was adjusted to 2 using 10% sulfuric acid solution. In the next step, 1 mL acetone and 20 µl of chlorobenzene were added to the previously obtained mixture, and centrifuged for 5 min at 5000 rpm. Then, the sediments were withdrawn from the bottom of the tubes using a micro-syringe and collected in different microtubes and dried under nitrogen gas stream. Thereafter, 10 µL of MSTFA was mixed with the sediment and centrifuged. At the final, 10 µl of the prepared solution was injected into the GC/MS (Model A 7890 of Agilent technologies, USA) to measure the concentration of investigated phthalate metabolites [9]. To minimize the bias of the dilution difference between the samples, the phthalate concentrations were adjusted using creatinine levels. The limits of detection (LOD) were 0.017, 0.0126, 0.018, and 0.019 µg/L for MBP, MBzP, MEHP, and MEHHP, respectively. For the metabolite concentrations below the LOD, LODs divided by 2 was considered in the statistical analyzes [10].

### ***Anthropometric measures of neonates***

Data on the anthropometric indices (weight, length, and head circumference) and other related information of neonates of corresponding mothers who participated in this study were extracted from the hospital records which had been measured by experienced obstetric nurses using standardized procedures.

### ***Quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC)***

To confirm the reliability of the analytical data and to increase confidence in the relevance of obtained responses, the quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) were performed. Accordingly, the linear regression gave a good fit ( $R^2 \geq 0.98$ ) with high precision ( $\leq 13.2\%$  RSD). The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) were based on the signal-to-noise ratio of 3 and 10, respectively. For the metabolite concentrations below the LOD, LODs divided by 2 was considered in the statistical analyzes [10]. Furthermore, to minimize the bias of the dilution difference between the samples, the phthalate concentrations were adjusted using creatinine levels. The  $R^2$ , precision (% RSD), LOD, LOQ, and mean recovery are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1  
QA/QC parameters of Phthalate metabolites.

	MBP	MBzP	MEHP	MEHHP
$R^2$	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98
RSD (%)	7	6.9	13.2	6.2
LOD (µg/L)	0.017	0.013	0.018	0.019
LOQ (µg/L)	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.07
Recovery (%)	83	94	90	69

### ***Data analysis***

Continuous variables have been presented as mean ± SD and median (minimum-maximum) while categorical variables were expressed as percentages. Normality of continuous data was evaluated by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Q-Q plot. One-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) or independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean values of birth outcomes cross categories of possible demographic and lifestyle determinants while Pearson or non-parametric correlation coefficients were used for evaluation the bivariate association of metabolites with infants' anthropometric measures and continuous determinants. Multiple linear regression was used for evaluation of the association of metabolites with infants' anthropometric measures and adjustment was done for mothers' basic demographic and clinical characteristics. All statistical analyses were done using SPSS software version 23 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).  $P < 0.05$  was considered as statistically significant.

## **Results And Discussion**

The characteristics of the participants are summarized in Table 2. Descriptively, 59% (n = 71) of participants were ≥ 30-years old, and 41% (n = 50) of them were ≤ 30 years old, 69% of subjects (n = 83) were categorized into overweight, while 29% of them (n = 35) had normal weight and only 2% (n = 3) were classified as underweight. The main part of the participants were educated academically (n = 105, 86.8%). The majority of the participants had family income of 100–300 \$ per month and grouped into the middle income category (n = 69, 57%). Household cleaning products and cosmetic

products were found as the most common products used by 92.6% (112) and 100% (121) of the participants, respectively. Moreover, more than half (51.26%) of the pregnant women have reported the use of plastics for packaging of bread (n = 76, 62.8%), lemon juice (n = 67, 55.4%), pickle (n = 55, 45.5%), leftover (n = 52, 43%) and water (n = 60, 49.6%). The data showed that 31.4% (n = 38) of the participants have used fried foods more than 1 time per week (1–2 times/week), however 4.1% (n = 5) of them had never used fried food item. The majority of the participants did not have enough physical activity, where 53.7% of study population (n = 65) were grouped into the low physical activity category. Among the studied pregnant women only 6.6% of (n = 8) had high physical activity.

The mean ( $\pm$  SD) of birth weight, birth length, and head circumference of infants of the corresponding mother who participated in this survey was 3204.04  $\pm$  480.94 g, 50.35  $\pm$  3.16 cm, and 34.5  $\pm$  1.71 cm, respectively.

Table 2  
Maternal characteristics of 121 pregnant women enrolled in the study

Variables	Mean, n (%)	Variables	Mean, n (%)
<b>Maternal age (years)</b>		<b>Cosmetic usage</b>	No 9(7.4)
			Yes 112(92.6)
< 25	8(6)	<b>Smoking during pregnancy</b>	No 121(100)
			Yes 0(0)
25–29	42(35)	<b>Passive smoking during pregnancy</b>	No 56(46.3)
			Yes 65(53.7)
30–34	47(39)	<b>Using household cleaning products</b>	No 0(0)
			Yes 121(100)
> 34	24(20)	<b>Plastic packaging usage</b>	Bread
			No 45(37.2)
<b>Pre-pregnancy BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>			Yes 76(62.8)
			Lemon juice
Underweight (< 18.5)	3(2)		No 54(44.6)
			Yes 67(55.4)
Normal weight (18.5–23.9)	35(29)		Pickle
			No 66(54.5)
Overweight ( $\geq$ 24)	83(69)		Yes 55(45.5)
			Leftover
<b>Education</b>			No 69(57)
			Yes 52(43)
Less than high school	7(5.8)		Water
			No 61(50.4)
High school	9(7.4)	<b>Physical activity</b>	Yes 60(49.6)
			High
College	105(86.8)		No (48.74)
			Yes (51.26)
<b>Family income (\$/month)</b>			Moderate
			48(39.7)
High (> 300)	12(9.9)		Low
			65(53.7)
Middle (100–300)	69(57)	<b>Eating fried foods</b>	
			daily
Low (< 100)	40(33.1)		30(24.8)
			1–2 per week
<b>Birth weight (g)</b>	3204.04(480.94)		38(31.4)
<b>Head circumference(cm)</b>	34.5(1.71)	1–3 per month	35(28.9)
<b>Birth length (cm)</b>	50.35(3.16)	Seldom (< once a month)	13(10.7)
			Never
			5(4.1)

Table 3 shows the mean, minimum, and maximum concentration of phthalate metabolites adjusted by creatinine. All the urine samples (n = 121) were positive for phthalate metabolites. MEHHP had the highest concentration (866.5  $\pm$  307.6  $\mu$ g/g creatinine), while MEHP was detected in the all samples

with the lowest levels ( $126.5 \pm 118.3 \mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine). The mean concentration of MBP, MBzP, MEHP, and MEHHP found in this study were 13, 30, 20, and 44 times greater than those levels have reported by other studies in the US and European countries [6, 11, 12]. These results are in accordance with the findings of Amin et al. who previously reported a higher levels of exposure to phthalates in Iranian population [9]. Several factors including the socio-demographic, environmental, regional, size of study population and etc. can be attributed to the different levels of exposure obtained in this survey and those reported by other countries.

Table 3  
Mean concentration of phthalate metabolites ( $\mu\text{g/g}$  creatinine) in pregnant women urine

Creatinine-adjusted phthalate metabolites( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )	MBP	MBzP	MEHP	MEHHP
LOD ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ )	0.017	0.013	0.018	0.019
%> LOD*	100	100	100	100
Min	8.5	15.6	4.2	37.8
Max	602.2	705.4	455.9	1285.9
Mean (SD)	342.5 (193.8)	308.5 (229.4)	<b>126.5 (118.3)</b>	<b>866.5 (307.6)</b>
* Counts of detectable sample] / [Total sample counts] $\times$ 100(%).				

The results of correlation analysis between the creatinine-adjusted urinary levels of phthalate metabolites and birth outcome measures are presented in Table 4. None of the phthalate metabolites exhibited significant correlation with the birth outcomes, and only the correlation between MBzP with birth weight was of borderline significance ( $\beta = 0.2$  (0.16),  $p = 0.06$ ). Based on the results, it is obvious that the concentration of phthalates in first trimester maternal urine is positively correlated to the birth weight of neonates; however negative correlation is existed between urinary phthalate levels with birth length and head circumference of newborns.

Table 4  
Correlation between urinary phthalate concentrations and anthropometric measures of neonates

Phthalate Metabolites	Birth weight		Birth length				Head circumference					
	Crude		Adjusted		Crude		adjusted		Crude		adjusted	
	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>**</sup> )	P	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>**</sup> )	P	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>*</sup> )	P	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>**</sup> )	P	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>**</sup> )	P	$\beta^*$ (SE <sup>**</sup> )	P
MBP	-0.2(0.2)	0.02	0.1(0.001)	0.9	-0.08(0.001)	0.4	-0.03(0.001)	0.8	-0.13(0.2)	0.2	-0.06(0.001)	0.6
MBzP	-0.3(0.2)	0.006	0.2(0.16)	<b>0.06</b>	-0.1(0.001)	0.1	-0.11(0.001)	0.3	-0.07(0.001)	0.4	-0.15(0.001)	0.2
MEHP	-0.2(0.3)	0.02	0.01(0.0004)	0.9	-0.2(0.002)	0.07	-0.14(0.002)	0.2	-0.07(0.001)	0.4	-0.2(0.001)	0.09
MEHHP	-0.2(0.1)	0.06	0.1(0.001)	0.8	-0.2(0.001)	0.04	-0.16(0.001)	0.1	-0.14(0.3)	0.2	-0.07(0.001)	0.5
Adjusted for maternal age, Pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational age, educational level, Family annual income, Total exposure to chemical products, plastic packaging.												
* $\beta$ : Regression coefficient												
** SE: Standard error												

In line with the results found in this study, Suzuki et al. [13] and Philippat et al. [14] have also found no statistically significant associations between phthalate exposure and birth outcomes. Furthermore, Huang et al. have reported negative association between the maternal urinary phthalates concentration with the head circumference of their newborns, however the significant correlations was only noted in female neonates [15]. Consistent with our results, Zhu et al. has also shown no significant relationship between maternal urinary phthalates and birth length[16].

On the contrast, Shoaff et al. previously showed that a ten-fold increase in the maternal urinary MEP levels is associated with a 0.23 standard deviation reduction (95% CI:  $-0.46, -0.01$ ) in birth weight z-score, however after adjustment for confounding factors this relationship was attenuated towards the null [17]. In a Spanish cohort, Casas et al. have assessed the effect of prenatal exposure to eight phthalates on fetal growth, but found no significant association between the maternal urinary  $\sum$ DEHP concentrations and any of the growth outcome measures [18]. In another study conducted by Wolff et al. they investigated the association between maternal urinary phthalates concentration at third-trimester with the body size measures of infants at birth. They found that low molecular weight phthalates had a positive, but not statistically significant association with the head circumference of newborns. [19].

Despite the mentioned studies, there are several other reports have shown inverse [20, 21] or negative associations [22, 23] between maternal urinary levels of phthalate metabolites and birth outcomes. In this regard, Lenters et al. [20] and Zhang et al. [21] have shown that maternal urinary levels of

some DEHP metabolites during pregnancy is associated with low birth weight or increased risk of low birth weight. The discrepancy between the results might be explained by the potential contamination with phthalate di-esters or the difference in the levels of exposure to these compounds among different populations [24].

Table 5  
The crude and adjusted associations of phthalate metabolite concentrations in first-trimester maternal urines with anthropometric measures of neonates

Phthalate Metabolites			Birth weight		Birth length		head circumference	
			Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy
MBP	Crude	$\beta$ (SE)	-0.2(0.2)	-0.2(0.3)	-0.1(0.001)	-0.05(0.002)	-0.07(0.001)	-0.1(0.001)
		p	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4
	adjusted	$\beta$ (SE)	0.1(0.2)	-0.1(0.4)	-0.1(0.002)	0.06(0.002)	-0.2(0.001)	-0.3(0.2)
		p	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.7	0.1	<b>0.04</b>
MBzP	Crude	$\beta$ (SE)	-0.3(0.2)	-0.2(0.2)	-0.16(0.001)	-0.1(0.001)	-0.2(0.001)	0.08(0.001)
		p	0.007	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.6
	adjusted	$\beta$ (SE)	0.3(0.001)	-0.1(0.3)	-0.1(0.001)	-0.1(0.002)	-0.3(0.001)	0.08(0.001)
		p	<b>0.03</b>	0.6	0.3	0.5	<b>0.02</b>	0.7
MEHP	Crude	$\beta$ (SE)	-0.3(0.3)	-0.1(0.5)	-0.1(0.003)	-0.2(0.003)	-0.1(0.002)	-0.02(0.001)
		p	0.02	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.9
	adjusted	$\beta$ (SE)	0.1(0.1)	0.04(0.6)	-0.1(0.003)	-0.2(0.004)	-0.2(0.002)	-0.09(0.002)
		p	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.2	0.08	0.6
MEHHP	Crude	$\beta$ (SE)	-0.2(0.1)	-0.2(0.2)	-0.2(0.001)	-0.1(0.001)	0.03(0.001)	-0.04(0.001)
		p	0.2	0.2	0.06	0.4	0.8	0.8
	adjusted	$\beta$ (SE)	0.3(0.001)	-0.2(0.2)	-0.2(0.001)	-0.1(0.002)	-0.2(0.001)	-0.1(0.001)
		p	<b>0.04</b>	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.6

Adjusted for maternal age, Pre-pregnancy BMI, gestational age, educational level, Family annual income, Total exposure to chemical products, plastic packaging.

\*  $\beta$ : Regression coefficient

\*\* SE: Standard error

The results of crude and adjusted associations between maternal urinary phthalates concentration with the birth outcomes in boys and girl neonates are presented in Table 5. According to these findings, MBP (adjusted  $\beta$  = -0.3(0.2),  $p$  = 0.04) and MBzP (adjusted  $\beta$  = -0.3(0.001),  $p$  = 0.02) were negatively associated with head circumference in boys and girls, respectively. Furthermore, positive associations were observed between maternal urinary levels of MBzP (adjusted  $\beta$  = 0.3(0.001),  $p$  = 0.03) and MEHHP (adjusted  $\beta$  = 0.3(0.001),  $p$  = 0.04) with birth weight in girls after adjusting for potential confounding factors.

The correlation between prenatal exposure to MBzP and MEHHP with higher birth weight in female neonates may suggest that exposure to these chemicals during pregnancy can influence the function of feminine hormones, thus increase fetal growth or induce fat accumulation. Consistently, it has been demonstrated that phthalates have weak estrogenic activities [25, 26] and can promote adipocyte differentiation by activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARs) [27]. Furthermore, due to their estrogenic activities, phthalates may engage nuclear receptors and induce the expression of several other genes involved in obesity. Additionally, it is possible that prenatal phthalate exposure may affect thyroid axis function, disrupt energy balance and metabolism, and thus result in the fat accumulation [28]. These compounds may also affect the pituitary-adrenal axis, which is crucial for fetal growth [29]. Since we observed a sex difference in the associations of maternal urinary phthalate metabolite levels with birth weight of infants, hence it can be concluded that the most potential mechanism by which these compounds have resulted in higher birth weight might be related to their influence on sexual hormones or sex related biological variables [30]. However, further studies are warranted to shed insights into this claim.

We also examined the effects of some potential factors which may be associated with prenatal exposure to phthalates including maternal education level, family income per month, plastic packaging (bread, lemon juice, pickle, leftover, water) on their birth outcomes (Table 6).

Table 6  
Association of some maternal factors with possible influence on prenatal exposure to phthalates with the neonatal anthropometric measures

Variables			Birth weight		Birth length		Head circumference	
			Mean ± SD	p-value	Mean ± SD	p-value	Mean ± SD	p-value
<b>Education</b>	College	3120 ± 315	0.8	49.5 ± 2.5	0.9	33.9 ± 2	0.4	
	High school	3160 ± 252		49.9 ± 1.6		33.7 ± 1		
	<high school	3271 ± 305		50.6 ± 2.5		33.4 ± 1		
<b>Family income per month (\$)</b>	< 100	3161 ± 429	0.5	49.6 ± 2.6	0.9	33.9 ± 1	0.7	
	100–300	3124 ± 322		49.5 ± 1.9		33.7 ± 1.5		
	> 300	3014 ± 388		49.9 ± 4		33.8 ± 1		
<b>Plastic packaging</b>	Bread	Yes	0.7	49.3 ± 2.2	0.1	33.8 ± 1.3	0.8	
		No		3142 ± 348		50 ± 2.6		33.8 ± 1.4
	Lemon juice	Yes	0.5	49.4 ± 2.4	0.3	33.8 ± 1.4	0.9	
		No		3153 ± 302		49.8 ± 2.4		33.8 ± 1.3
	Pickle	Yes	<b>0.04*</b>	49.3 ± 2.4	0.3	33.7 ± 1.4	0.6	
		No		3188 ± 324		49.8 ± 2.4		33.8 ± 1.3
	Leftover	Yes	0.4	49.7 ± 2.7	0.7	34 ± 1.6	0.3	
		No		3148 ± 406		49.5 ± 2.1		33.7 ± 1.1
Water	Yes	0.07	49.3 ± 2.1	0.3	33.9 ± 1.4	0.5		
	No		3185 ± 386		49.8 ± 2.6		33.7 ± 1.3	
<b>Passive smoking during pregnancy</b>	Yes	3050 ± 326	<b>0.01*</b>	49.3 ± 2.2	0.2	34 ± 1.2	0.1	
	No	3213 ± 393		50 ± 2.6		33.6 ± 1.5		
<b>Physical activity</b>	Low	3109 ± 322	0.08	49.5 ± 1.9	0.07	33.7 ± 1	0.8	
	Moderate	3188 ± 368		50 ± 2.8		33.9 ± 1.7		
	High	2885 ± 586		47.9 ± 2.9		33.8 ± 1.3		

According to the results, maternal education level, family income per month, and physical activity had not significant influences on the investigated birth outcome measures ( $p$ -value  $> 0.05$ ). However, birth weight of infants was significantly different ( $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ ) among those participants who used plastic packaging for pickle and passively exposed to smoke. This can be explained by the fact that, phthalates are still widely used as plasticizers in materials used for food and water packaging for many years, therefore the plastic packaging of food items can be associated with higher exposure to these chemicals [31].

Although the main part of the participants in the present work were non-smokers, but more than half of them ( $n = 65, 53.7\%$ ) were passively exposed to smoke. Likewise, previous studies have also linked smoking habits to higher exposure levels to phthalates [11, 32]. In this regard, Casas et al. observed that smoking has a direct association with the elevated urinary phthalates [33]. It has been demonstrated that cigarette smoke and filters contain phthalates in the form of di-2-methoxyethyl phthalate [34]. Furthermore, it was assumed that low-quality cigarettes may also further increase the urinary concentration of phthalates metabolites both in first- and second-hand smokers. Table 7 presents the results of correlations between quantitative determinants and birth outcome measures.

Table 7  
The effect of some maternal determinates on the neonatal anthropometric measures

Variables	Birth weight		Birth length		Head circumference	
	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value
Age	0.09	0.3	0.01	0.9	0.04	0.6
BMI	0.18	<b>0.04</b>	0.03	0.7	0.1	0.1
Cosmetic	0.21	<b>0.02</b>	0.03	0.7	0.04	0.6
Household Cleaning	0.24	<b>0.007</b>	0.05	0.6	0.12	0.2
Fried Foods	0.01	0.9	0.04	0.6	0.07	0.4
Physical Activity	0.12	0.2	0.06	0.5	0.09	0.3
r: Correlation coefficient						

Here, we found positive significant correlations between prenatal BMI, and the use of cosmetics and household cleaning products with the neonatal birth weight (p-value < 0.05 and r = 0.18, r = 0.21, and r = 0.24, respectively). However, there was no significant relationships observed between maternal age, consumption of fried foods and physical activity with the birth measures (p-value > 0.05).

There are a large body of evidences indicating that urinary phthalate metabolites in pregnant women is positively associated with the amount and frequency of cosmetics and household cleaning products they use [35]. On contrast with our findings, Valvi et al. showed no association between the use of cosmetics and urinary levels of phthalates [11]. The legislative actions regarding the production of cosmetics and care products in various countries are thoroughly different. For instance, the use of some phthalates including DEHP, di-n-butyl phthalate, di-iso-butyl phthalate and BBP in the production of cosmetics have been prohibited by the EU (European Union)[36], however there is no strict regulation on the use of these chemicals in the production of various industrial products in developing countries, including Iran. Besides, Iran has been ranked as the second country in the Middle East with the highest use of personal care products [37]. This is in line with our observation that a large proportion of the participants in this study have reported higher amounts of cosmetics use. On the other hands, since the majority of the women participated in this survey were of low or middle income families, therefore it can be assumed that the main part of this population may use inexpensive with low-quality cosmetic products containing higher grades of phthalates.

Household cleaning products have also been regarded as another important source of phthalate exposure, especially among pregnant women [38]. Accordingly, Valvi et al. have shown that the use of household chemical products is associated with the higher urinary concentrations of MEHHP, MEHP and MBzP [11]. In countries like Iran, since females are mainly involved in household works, thus they may expose to higher levels of phthalates through the use of cleaning chemical products. Furthermore, pregnant women and their growing fetus are prone to more adverse effects in part due to the physiological changes during the pregnancy [39].

In this study, higher levels of MBzP, MEHHP, and MBP were found in urinary samples of obese individuals compared to women with normal body weight.

Prenatal maternal BMI is considered as one of the most important determinants of fetal weight, growth and body composition [40]. It is clear that the maternal BMI is not play as biological effector, but the mechanism by which prenatal maternal BMI affects the fetal growth remains largely unknown [41]. Several studies have demonstrated that fetal growth mainly is influenced by placental capacity in transferring nutrients to fetus, the genetics of parents as well as by maternal supply of nutrients. Since maternal BMI may influence nutrients supply and the capacity of placenta in transporting nutrient from mother to fetus, thus it can affect the fetal growth measures. Previous studies have also linked maternal BMI positively to the levels of circulating glucose. Additionally, higher maternal BMI and plasma glucose levels have been associated with the longer gestational age and greater body fat of newborns [42]. In spite of influencing adipogenesis, phthalates have lipophilic properties enable these chemical to be stored in adipose tissue. Therefore, it is expected that obese mothers may exhibit higher urinary levels of phthalates and potentially have more affected newborns [39].

## Limitations and Strengths

One of the important limitations of the present study was its cross-sectional nature. Furthermore, this study has assessed the maternal urinary phthalates concentration only at first trimester period. To the best of our knowledge, no or only limited number of studies have been conducted in Iran to address this issue, thus these findings can provide a basis for the future studies and helps decision makers to implement proper actions. Taken together, higher exposure to neglected chemicals such as phthalates, especially during pregnancy could threaten the health of both mothers and newborns. We recommend further investigations to evaluate the prenatal exposure to phthalates during second and third trimesters as well. Such data on the whole period of pregnancy can be more meaningful.

## Conclusion

This study was conducted to determine the possible relationship between prenatal phthalate exposure and neonatal anthropometric measures in association with maternal lifestyle variables and characteristics of pregnant women. According to the findings, the following conclusions can be made:

- MBzP, MBP, MEHP, and MEHHP were detected in 100% of urines obtained from pregnant women at their first-trimester.
- Investigated metabolites had higher concentration in the Iranian pregnant women urines compared to the other countries.
- Our findings revealed a positive association between the maternal concentrations of MBzP and MEHHP with increased birth weight in girl neonates.
- Urinary concentration of phthalates were significantly higher among those pregnant women who had higher pre-pregnancy BMI, as well as among the users of cosmetics and household cleaning products, and those subjects who routinely used plastic packaging for pickle storage.
- Pregnant women who were passive smokers had significantly higher levels of urinary phthalates.

## Declarations

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### Authors' contributions

M. Darvishmotevalli, M. Moradnia, R. Hosseini surveyed the studies for data extraction, inclusion, assessing the study quality, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript, B. Bina supervised this study, A Feizi performed the data-analysis, K. Ebrahimpour and H Pourzamani provided critical input for the manuscript, Roya Kelishadi did critical revision of the manuscript. All authors have contributed considerably, and all authors are in agreement with respect to the manuscript content. The authors read and confirmed the final manuscript.

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### Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences (Code: IR.MUI.RESEARCH.REC.1397.441) and project number #397573.

### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

### Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

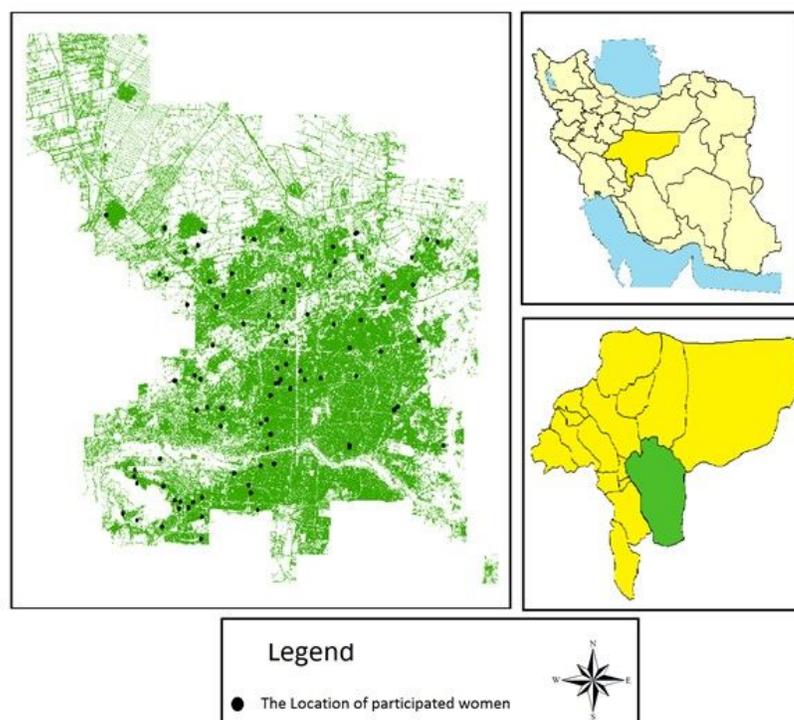
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## Figures



**Figure 1**

The distribution of participants' location in Isfahan city. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

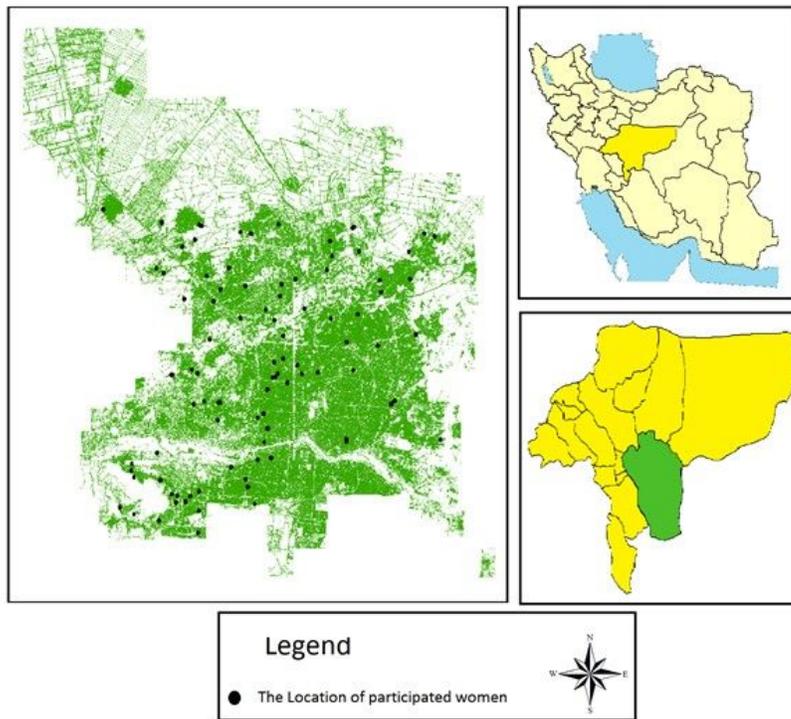


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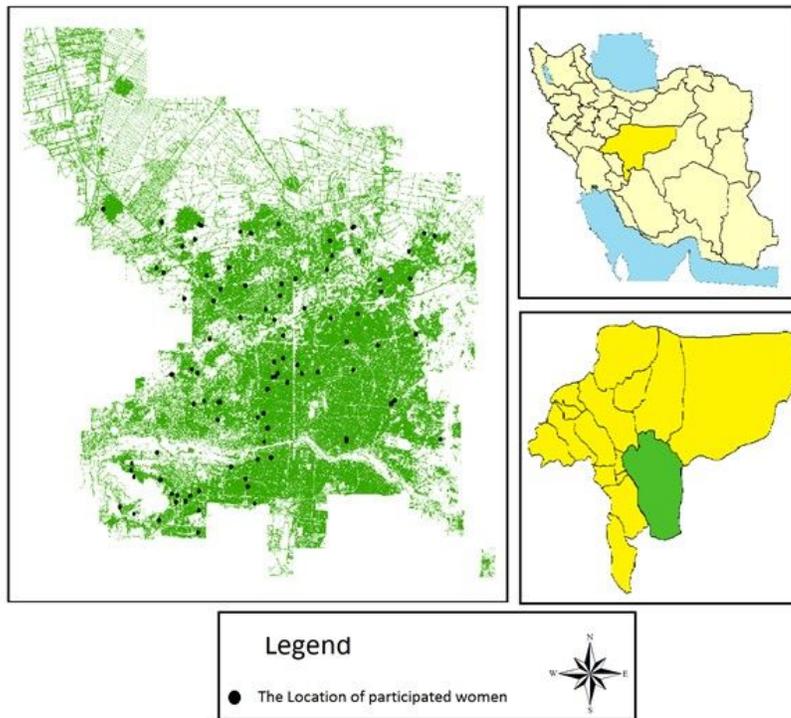


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