

# First trimester growth: is it influenced by cigarette smoking, and other substances?

Babak Shakeri, Max Mongelli and George Condous

Acute Gynaecology, Early Pregnancy and Advanced Endosurgery Unit, Nepean Medical School, Nepean Hospital, University of Sydney, Penrith, New South Wales, Australia

Embryonic development is a complex process and chemical injury can lead to developmental problems. Exposure to some substances during pregnancy such as tobacco or cannabis is associated with significant adverse outcomes.<sup>1,2,3,4</sup> There are other commonly used substances that may have some positive or negative effects on early pregnancy growth and these include caffeine<sup>5</sup> and curcumin in curry.<sup>6</sup> Some studies have shown that early pregnancy development may have significant effects on pregnancy outcome<sup>7,8</sup> and also lifelong consequences.<sup>1</sup> Interventions such as behavioural modification can prevent the negative effects<sup>9</sup> of, for example, tobacco-smoking and cannabis.

In many countries the rate of smoking has recently decreased,<sup>10</sup> perhaps due to increased knowledge of its harmful effects, nevertheless, 22% of reproductive-age women still continue to smoke in the USA.<sup>11</sup> Knowledge of these hazards and public awareness can reduce the complications and improve public health. Cigarette smoking in pregnancy is associated with the risk of placental abruption, placenta praevia, low birth weight and preterm birth which can lead to significant morbidity and mortality in babies and have lifelong consequences.<sup>1</sup> Tobacco smoke affects the placenta,<sup>12</sup> through vasoconstriction and hypoxia<sup>13</sup> and at the level of DNA and mitosis of cells.<sup>13,14</sup> Is it possible to detect subtle changes using transvaginal ultrasound in the growth pattern of the developing embryo on first trimester ultrasound?

The existence of a relationship between first trimester growth and the risk of small for gestational age (SGA) infants has been known for many years. In 1998, Smith, *et al.*<sup>15</sup> published a large series of over 4200 pregnancies where the embryo was 2–6 days behind in expected crown rump length (CRL) and showed an increased relative risk for SGA birth. Likewise, in 2011 Salomon, *et al.*<sup>16</sup> studied 317 in-vitro fertilisation pregnancies where the gestational age could be accurately calculated and showed that CRL z-score correlated with birth weight.

Alcohol is a teratogen that causes a range of effects depending on the exposure timing and the amount of alcohol consumed. It readily crosses the placenta, and fetal blood alcohol levels rise to levels proportionate to maternal levels within one hour. No safe level of alcohol intake has been determined. One of the best-described and most severe outcomes of heavy maternal drinking is the fetal alcohol syndrome, characterised by a specific pattern of craniofacial malformations, prenatal and postnatal growth retardation, and central nervous system disorders. Studies have also indicated that alcohol consumption during pregnancy increases the risk of spontaneous abortion, reduced birth weight, intrauterine growth restriction, premature birth, cerebral palsy and infant oral cleft. The adverse behavioural effects of

alcohol exposure during the second and third trimester are well documented; less clear is whether early first trimester-equivalent exposures also alter behaviour.

Despite increasing public health concerns, cannabis remains the most commonly used illicit drug among women of childbearing in developed countries, including the United States and Australia.<sup>17,18</sup> In 2007 a national survey, 30% of Australian females aged 14 years or older have used cannabis at some time in their lives. Of the same Australian women, 6.6% reported they had used cannabis in the past 12 months with a higher proportion reported by women of childbearing ages.<sup>3,19</sup> The main cannabis ingredient, tetrahydrocannabinol, can cross the placenta and directly affects the fetus.<sup>4,20,21</sup> Persistent use of cannabis may cause decreased uteroplacental perfusion,<sup>4,20,21,22</sup> intrauterine fetal growth restriction, deficit in birth weight and body length, as well as more likely admission to neonatal intensive care unit.<sup>4,20,21,22</sup> It has also been reported that cannabis may increase the risk of anencephaly.<sup>23</sup>

Caffeine is a widely used and accepted to be a pharmacologically active substance. The prevalence of exposure is > 80% in most western countries.<sup>24</sup> Caffeine freely passes the placenta and accumulates in the fetus.<sup>25,26</sup> The principal caffeine metabolism enzyme, cytochrome CYP1A2, is absent in placenta and fetus.<sup>27</sup> Also caffeine metabolism in pregnant women is three times slower than in non-pregnant women.<sup>28</sup> Fetal exposure to caffeine increases circulating catecholamine concentrations, which might subsequently lead to fetoplacental vasoconstriction and hypoxia and eventually affect fetal growth and development.<sup>29,30</sup> Studies have shown that heavy caffeine intake during pregnancy is associated with increased risk of miscarriage, fetal death and a lower birth weight.<sup>31,32,33</sup> One study showed that mothers who consumed > six caffeine units/day had a smaller first trimester CRL and a smaller third trimester femur length.<sup>31</sup>

With the use of sensitive high resolution ultrasound technology, the goalposts are shifting earlier and earlier when it comes to the detection of fetal abnormalities. These advances are also contributing to the potential for earlier detection of changes to early embryonic growth. In time, the potential negative influences of the aforementioned substances on first trimester growth may also become part of the routine early pregnancy ultrasound assessment.

## References

- 1 Toriola AT, Väärasmäki M, Lehtinen M, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, Lundin E, Rodgers KG, *et al.* Determinants of maternal sex steroids during the first half of pregnancy. *Obstet Gynaecol* 2011; 118 (5): 186–87.

- 2 Bernstein IM, Mongeon JA, Badger GJ, Solomon L, Heil SH, Higgins ST. Maternal smoking and its association with birth weight. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005; 106 (5 Part 1): 986–91.
- 3 Hayatbakhsh MR, Flenady VJ, Gibbons KS, Kingsbury AM, Hurrion E, Mamun AA, Najman JM. Birth outcomes associated with cannabis use before and during pregnancy. *Pediatr Res* 2012; 71 (2): 215–9.
- 4 Zuckerman B, Frank DA, Hingson R, Amaro H, Levenson SM, Kayne H, *et al.* Effects of maternal marijuana and cocaine use on fetal growth. *N Engl J Med* 1989; 320: 762–68.
- 5 Maternal caffeine intake during pregnancy and risk of fetal growth restriction: a large prospective observational study. *BMJ* 2008 3; 337: a2332. Erratum in: *BMJ*. 2010; 340.
- 6 Chen CC, Hsieh MS, Hsuuw YD, Huang FJ, Chan WH. Hazardous effects of curcumin on mouse embryonic development through a mitochondria-dependent apoptotic signaling pathway. *Int J Mol Sci* 2010; 11 (8): 2839–55.
- 7 Vafaei H, Samsami A, Zolghadri J, Hosseini-Nohadani A. Correlation of first-trimester fetal crown-rump length with outcome of pregnancy and birth weight. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2012; 119 (2): 141–4.
- 8 Mongelli M, Reid S, Sankaralingam K, Stamatopoulos N, Condous G. Is there a correlation between birth weights and first-trimester crown-rump length growth velocity? *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2012; 25 (10): 1924–26.
- 9 Wen CP, Cheng TY, Lin CL, Wu HN, Levy DT, Chen LK, *et al.* The health benefits of smoking cessation for adult smokers and for pregnancy women in Taiwan. *Tobacco Control* 2005; 14. Supplement 1: i56–61.
- 10 Reeves S, Bernstein I. Effects of maternal tobacco-smoke exposure on fetal growth and neonatal size. *Expert Rev Obstet Gynecol* 2008; 3 (6): 719–30.
- 11 Centers for disease control and prevention (CDC). Smoking prevalence among women of reproductive age – United States, 2006. *Morb Mortal Weekly Report* 2008; 57 (31): 849–52.
- 12 Lutterodt MC, Sørensen KP, Larsen KB, Skouby SO, Andersen CY, Byskov AG. The number of oogonia and somatic cells in the human female embryo and fetus in relation to whether or not exposed to maternal cigarette smoking. *Hum Reprod* 2009; 24 (10): 2558–66.
- 13 Smith GC, Stenhouse EJ, Crossley JA, Aitken DA, Cameron AD, Connor JM. Early-pregnancy origins of low birth weight. *Nature* 2002 27; 417 (6892): 916.
- 14 Potdar N, Singh R, Mistry V, Evans MD, Farmer PB, Konje JC, Cooke MS. First-trimester increase in oxidative stress and risk of small-for-gestational-age fetus. *BJOG* 2009; 116: 637–42.
- 15 Smith GC, Smith MF, McNay MB, Fleming JE. First-trimester growth and the risk of low birth weight. *N Engl J Med* 1998; 339: 1817–22.
- 16 Salomon LJ, Hourrier S, Fanchin R, Ville Y, Rozenberg P. Is first-trimester crown-rump length associated with birthweight? *BJOG* 2011; 118 (10): 1223–8.
- 17 Richardson R, Bolisetty S, Ingall C. The profile of substance-using pregnant mothers and their newborns at a regional rural hospital in New South Wales. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol* 2001; 41: 415–9.
- 18 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results From the 2007 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: National Findings (NSDUH Series H-34, DHHS Publication No. SMA 08-4343). Rockville, MD: Department of Health and Human Services, 2008.
- 19 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. National Drug Strategy Household Survey: First Results. Canberra: AIHW2008, 2007.
- 20 Tennes K, Avitable N, Blackard C, *et al.* Marijuana: prenatal and postnatal exposure in human. In: Pinkert TM, ed. NIDA Research Monograph 59. Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse, 1985: 48–62.
- 21 Day N, Sambamoorthi U, Taylor P, Richardson G, Robles N, Jhon Y, *et al.* Prenatal marijuana use and neonatal outcome. *Neurotoxicol Teratol* 1991; 13: 329–34.
- 22 El Marroun H, Tiemeier H, Steegers EA, Roos-Hesselink JW, Jaddoe VW, Hofman A, *et al.* A prospective study on intrauterine cannabis exposure and fetal blood flow. *Early Hum Dev* 2010; 86 (4): 2316.
- 23 Psychoyos D, Yragudri Vinod K. Marijuana, Spice ‘herbal high’, and early neural development: implications for rescheduling and legalization. *Drug Test Anal* 2012.
- 24 Barone JJ, Roberts HR. Caffeine consumption. *Food Chem Toxicol* 1996; 34: 119–29.
- 25 Weathersbee PS, Lodge JR. Caffeine: its direct and indirect influence on reproduction. *J Reprod Med* 1977; 19: 55–63.
- 26 Arnaud MJ, Bracco I, Sauvageat JL, Clerc MF. Placental transfer of the major caffeine metabolite in the rat using 6-amino-5-[Nformylmethylamino] 1,3[Me-14C]-dimethyluracil administered orally or intravenously to the pregnant rat. *Toxicol Lett* 1983; 16: 271–9.
- 27 Aldridge A, Aranda JV, Neims AH. Caffeine metabolism in the newborn. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1979; 25: 447–53.
- 28 Knutti R, Rothweiler H, Schlatter C. The effect of pregnancy on the pharmacokinetics of caffeine. *Arch Toxicol* 1982; 5. Supplement: 187–92.
- 29 Kirkinen P, Jouppila P, Koivula A, Vuori J, Puukka M. The effect of caffeine on placental and fetal blood flow in human pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1983; 147: 939–42.
- 30 CARE Study Group. Maternal caffeine intake during pregnancy and risk of fetal growth restriction: a large prospective observational study. *BMJ* 2010; 337: a2332.
- 31 Bakker R, Steegers EA, Obradov A, Raat H, Hofman A, Jaddoe VW. Maternal caffeine intake from coffee and tea, fetal growth, and the risks of adverse birth outcomes: the Generation R Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2010; 91(6): 1691–8.
- 32 Cnattingius S, Signorello LB, Annerén G, Clausson B, Ekblom A, Ljunger E, *et al.* Caffeine intake and the risk of first-trimester spontaneous abortion. *N Engl J Med* 2000; 343: 1839–45.
- 33 Martin TR, Bracken MB. The association between low birth weight and caffeine consumption during pregnancy. *Am J Epidemiol* 1987; 126: 813–21.