



## Dietary exposure to parabens and body mass index in an adolescent Spanish population

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### ABSTRACT

Parabens are alkyl esters of p-hydroxybenzoic acid which are extensively used in cosmetics, pharmaceuticals and foodstuffs due to their antimicrobial properties. The most commonly used parabens are methyl-(MeP), ethyl-(EtP), propyl-(PrP) and butyl-(BuP) paraben. Most human exposure to parabens is achieved through the consumption of food or pharmaceutical products and the use of personal care products. However, studies on dietary parabens exposure and the associated factors are very scarce. The main aim of the present study was to explore factors associated with dietary exposure to parabens in Spanish adolescents according to gender. Dietary data and anthropometric measures were collected from 585 adolescents (53.4% boys) aged 12–16 years. Parabens exposure through diet was assessed using a food frequency questionnaire with food products providing more than 95% of energy and macronutrient intake being included in analysis. Stepwise regression was used to identify the foods that most contributed to parabens intake. Logistic regression was used to evaluate factors predicting higher dietary exposure to parabens. The main contributors to dietary MeP, EtP, PrP and BuP exposure in adolescent boys were eggs (41.9%), canned tuna (46.4%), bakery and baked goods products (57.3%) and pineapple (61.1%). In adolescent girls, the main contributors were apples and pears (35.3%), canned tuna (42.1%), bakery and baked goods products (55.1%) and olives (62.1%). Overweight/obese girls were more likely to belong to the highest tertile of overall parabens intake (odds ratio [OR]: 3.32; 95% confidence interval [95% CI]: 1.21–9.15) and MeP (OR: 3.05; 95% CI: 1.14–8.12) than those with a body mass index lower than 25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. These findings suggest a positive association between dietary exposure to parabens and overweight/obesity in adolescent girls.

### 1. Introduction

Parabens are alkyl esters of p-hydroxybenzoic acid, being the most widely used methyl- (MeP), ethyl- (EtP), propyl- (PrP) and butyl- (BuP) parabens (Jiménez-Díaz et al., 2016). They are especially found in cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, foodstuffs and beverages where they are used

as antimicrobials (Halla et al., 2018; Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b; Ursino et al., 2011). Processed food products that contain parabens for preservation include cookies, cooking oils, seasonings, meat, dairy products, snacks, cereal (Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b; Maher et al., 2020) and cereal-based foodstuffs (Azzouz et al., 2020), although parabens have also been found in mussels (Álvarez-Muñoz et al., 2018), clams and

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oysters (Azzouz et al., 2019). Some fruits and vegetables also contain parabens as a naturally occurring preservative (Hagel et al., 2019).

These compounds are extensively used as preservatives because of their low toxicity, broad antimicrobial activity, regulatory acceptance and affordability (Soni et al., 2005). However, *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have demonstrated estrogenic (Boberg et al., 2010; Charles and Darbre, 2013; Pollock et al., 2017) and antiandrogenic activity of parabens in humans (Chen et al., 2007; Oishi, 2002). This estrogenic activity has been associated with an increased risk of breast cancer (Giulivo et al., 2016) and with uterine histological changes in experimental studies (Boberg et al., 2010; Lemini et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2016). Furthermore, parabens have been shown to disturb the function of thyroid hormones and to activate the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR $\gamma$ ), playing an important role in adipogenesis and lipid accumulation (Pereira-Fernandes et al., 2013) and making their obesogenic potential of increasing concern (Kolátorová et al., 2018).

The high concentration and detection frequency of parabens in biological samples indicate a broad exposure to parabens from various sources. The main source of exposure to these compounds comes through the use of personal care products and pharmaceutical products and the consumption of foodstuffs containing parabens (Feizabadi et al., 2020a). Several studies have reported an association between exposure to parabens, measured according to their presence in biological samples, and some sociodemographic characteristics. This suggests that exposure to these compounds is highly correlated with socioeconomic characteristics and lifestyle factors (Hajizadeh et al., 2020). Age, place of residence, occupation, smoking status and educational level have all been found to be related (Calafat et al., 2010; Engel et al., 2014; Feizabadi et al., 2020a, 2020b, 2020c; Iribarne-Durán et al., 2020; Kang et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019). However, as paraben usage patterns may differ by country, associations between variables may also vary. These differences may be due to changes in the rate of use of cosmetics and foodstuffs and, potentially, changes in lifestyle habits (Feizabadi et al., 2020a). Given that food is considered the main source of parabens exposure in humans, different national and international agencies seek to regulate this exposure to ensure public health and safety. In 2004, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA, 2004) established that a daily intake of 10 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> body weight/day was acceptable for MeP and EtP. This guideline was reiterated in 2006 through the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA, 2006). However, neither regulation established health protective levels for other types of parabens. Some countries such as China do not allow the use of parabens in certain food items such as jam, sausage and baby food (Ministry of Health of the People's Republic of China, 2011). However, dietary paraben contributions is not well characterized, mostly because of a lack of measurement data (Jo et al., 2020). The presence of parabens has been reported in foodstuffs examined in the USA and China (Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b). Moreover, recently we have demonstrated the presence of parabens in food items commonly consumed by the Spanish population (Gálvez-Ontiveros et al., 2021). Recently, Iribarne-Durán et al. (2020) demonstrated that the consumption frequency of some food items was related to menstrual blood concentrations of some parabens. This suggests that dietary parabens intake may make a relevant contribution to human exposure to these compounds.

Overweight and obesity are one of the most important public health issues in children and adolescents (Garrido-Miguel et al., 2019; Roth and Jain, 2018). The association between parabens exposure and body weight has been evaluated in different epidemiological studies. Prenatal exposure to parabens has been linked with increased birth weight (Philippat et al., 2014) but also with lower birth weight and height (Geer et al., 2017). As for the impact of postnatal exposure to parabens on body growth, the available literature is scarce. Xue et al. (2015) showed a non-significant association between postnatal exposure to parabens and childhood obesity. However, the same study found a positive association between exposure to 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (3,4-DHB) and obesity (Xue et al., 2015). Guo and colleagues compared different

anthropometric parameters with paraben concentrations in the urine of 3-year-old children and found that the sum of molar concentrations of five parabens was positively associated with height z scores (Guo et al., 2017). These positive associations were seen only in boys. Deierlein et al. (2017) found that exposure to MeP, EtP and PrP was not associated with different adiposity measurements (body mass index [BMI], body fat percentage, and waist circumference) in girls aged 6–8 years. Recently, the Canadian Health Measures Survey reported no association of paraben concentrations in urine with obesity and metabolic syndrome (Kim and Chevrier, 2020).

Understanding dietary parabens exposure in vulnerable populations such as adolescents is highly important for improving current understanding of dietary contributions to parabens exposure and for developing appropriate exposure mitigation programs. In order to address the lack of information on dietary parabens exposure, the present study explored the association of BMI and other factors with estimated dietary exposure to parabens in 585 Spanish adolescents according to gender.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Study population

The study population formed part of a larger sample ( $n = 708$ ) from a previous research project funded by *Instituto de Salud Carlos III* (Ministry of Health, Spain). All participants were students attending a high school located in Talavera de la Reina (Toledo, Spain) and were recruited in 2017–2018. A total of 585 participants (53.5% male) aged 12–16 years for whom anthropometric measures (height and weight) and food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) responses were recorded were included in the present study.

Approval for this study was given by the Ethics Committee of the University of Granada.

### 2.2. Data collection

The data used in the present study form part of a larger database which includes more than 200 variables. For the purpose of the present study, anthropometric measures (weight and height), sociodemographic variables (gender, age, parent's occupational ranking, number of siblings), lifestyle (smoking habit) and general dietary habits estimated from the food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) were used. Parent's occupational ranking was determined from international standard occupational classifications (International Labour Office, 2012). In this sense, classifications were as follows: 1) High level: managers and professionals; 2) Mid-level: technicians and associate professionals, clerical support workers, services and sales workers, and skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers; 3) Low-level: craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, and elementary occupations.

Participants' height and weight were measured by trained personnel using calibrated electronic scales and a wall-mounted stadiometer. BMI was calculated by dividing weight (kg) by height squared (m). The sample population was classified as underweight, normal, overweight or obese as described by Cole and colleagues (Cole et al., 2000, 2007).

FFQ administration was overseen by trained nutritionists. The questionnaire includes 96 food items classified according to 12 categories: dairy products (10), eggs, meat and luncheon meat products (7), fish (3), vegetables (15), fruit and dried fruits (15), legumes (4), cereals (5), bakery products, pastries and sweets (10), fats (5), non-alcoholic beverages (9), alcoholic beverages (4), and miscellaneous (9). Consumption frequency was classified as never, 1–3 times/month, 1 time/week, 2–4 times/week, 5–6 times/week, 1 time/day, 2–3 times/day, 4–6 times/day and more than 6 times/day. Information regarding the food packaging type (plastic, glass, metal, cardboard) was recorded. FFQ outcomes were validated vs 24 h recall with good agreement seen between both methods (Figures S1 and S2, Supplementary Material).

### 2.3. Paraben concentrations in food and estimation of dietary exposure

Since not all food types could be analyzed, the following approach was developed for food selection (Bemrah et al., 2014): (1) identification of the foods most commonly consumed by the present population and represent the main energy sources and macronutrients based on FFQ responses; (2) estimation of mean consumption of the identified foods; (3) sampling and analysis of the selected foods; (4) assessment of exposure via the integration of data on consumption, frequency, quantity and contamination.

A total of 82 of the 96 food items listed in the FFQ were selected and analyzed. These foods had been selected, through stepwise regression, as the main contributors to energy and macronutrient intake (dependent variable: total energy (kcal/day)/carbohydrate/lipid/protein (g/day) intake; predictive factors: energy contribution (kcal/day)/carbohydrate/lipid/protein (g/day) for each food item. Model iteration was stopped when new iterations failed to improve fit to the data ( $p > 0.05$ ). All compounds explained  $>95\%$  of the variance in the model. Mean intake (g/day) of these foods was estimated by multiplying consumption frequency (servings/day) with portion size using standard servings (g/serving) established for the Spanish population (Moreiras et al., 2018).

The method used for determination and analysis of parabens in the selected foods has been described elsewhere (Gálvez-Ontiveros et al., 2021; García-Córcoles et al., 2018). Briefly, the foods selected for analysis were acquired from different national supermarkets and grocery stores. Once food extracts were obtained, they were directly injected into an ultrahigh performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry system. From this, 56 of the 98 foods analyzed were seen to have a parabens concentration higher than the quantification level. Total daily dietary exposure to parabens was calculated for each participant by multiplying their daily food intake (g/day) with the paraben concentrations analyzed in each food product (ng/g). Estimated dietary exposure was obtained by dividing estimated dietary intake for each participant by their weight.

### 2.4. Statistical analysis

Means, standard deviations (SD) and percentages were used to describe the quantitative and qualitative variables where relevant. Student's t-test was used to compare continuous variables. Chi-square and Fisher Exact tests were used, when expected frequency was  $<0.05$ , to compare qualitative variables.

Stepwise regression (forward selection) was used to select the foods that most contributed to paraben intake (MeP, EtP, PrP and BuP). The dependent variable was provided by total intake of each paraben (ng/day). Covariates were provided by the contribution of each food to each compound (ng/day). The model for MeP included: sliced bread, luncheon meat products, olives, melon, eggs, rice, apple and pear, hamburger, onions and salted snacks. The model for EtP included: sliced bread, semi-cured cheese, carrots and pumpkin, canned tuna, pineapple, olives and mushrooms. The model for PrP included: olives, canned tuna, ham, pineapple, and bakery and baked goods. Finally, the model for BuP included salted snacks, mushrooms, pineapple, bakery and baked goods and olives. Selection was finalized when new iterations failed to improve the stepwise-regression model ( $p > 0.05$ ). Logistic regression models were used to estimate odds ratios (OR) and their associated 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) identifying the role of examined factors on predicting above average paraben intake. The dependent variable was paraben intake (ng/day) (total parabens, MeP, EtP, PrP and BuP) which was categorized according to tertiles and later dichotomized to ease interpretation (1st and 2nd tertiles vs 3rd tertile). The first two tertiles provided the reference category (lowest paraben intake), whilst high paraben intake corresponded to the highest tertile. Gender, age, BMI, large family, smoking habit and parent's occupational ranking were examined as potential factors. SPSS v.23 (version 23, IBM® SPSS® Statistics, Armonk, NY, USA) was used for all statistical analyses and

significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

The characteristics of the sample population distributed by gender are shown in Table 1. The table shows that adolescent boys were heavier [62.9 kg (SD 16.8) vs 57.1 kg (SD 12.2)] and taller [1.7 m (SD 0.1) vs 1.6 m (SD 0.1)] than girls. The number of never smokers was higher amongst boys (73.8 vs 66.9%). No significant differences were observed in relation to age, BMI, number of siblings, cigarettes per day and parent's occupational ranking.

Higher daily intake of MeP was associated with higher egg consumption, with the relationship being stronger in boys than in girls (5653.6 ng/day [SD 5593.1] vs 3816.5 ng/day [SD 3113.7], respectively;  $p$ -value:  $<0.01$ ). This increased MeP was also associated with higher hamburger consumption, again to a greater extent in boys than in girls (2156.9 ng/day [SD 2404.7] vs 1647.1 ng/day [SD 1662.4], respectively;  $p$ -value: 0.01). Additionally, daily PrP intake was higher in adolescent boys than in girls (1316.7 ng/day [SD, 1857.6] vs 963.8 ng/day [SD 1575.5], respectively;  $p$ -value: 0.03). BuP intake was also greater in boys than girls (51.0 ng/day [SD 72.0] vs 37.4 ng/day [SD 61.1], respectively;  $p$ -value: 0.03), with this being related with an increased consumption of bakery and baked goods products (Table 2).

Estimated dietary exposure MeP and EtP values did not exceed the limit of 10 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> by day<sup>-1</sup> set by the EFSA (EFSA, 2004). In addition, PrP dietary exposure did not exceed the 1.25 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> by day<sup>-1</sup> limit established by the European Medicines Agency (EMA), below which there is no evidence of adverse health effects (European Public MRL Assessment Report (EPMAR), 2015). Evaluation of BuP was not possible because no limits have yet been set by international organizations (Table 2).

The food products that most contributed to MeP intake in adolescent boys were eggs (41.9%) and onions (21.6%). In contrast, the food products in girls were apples and pears (35.3%), followed by onions (25.3%). In addition, canned tuna (46.4% and 42.1% in boys and girls, respectively) and mushrooms (29.8% and 31.8% for boys and girls,

**Table 1**  
Overall characteristics of participants (n = 585).

	Boys (n = 313)	Girls (n = 272)	p-value
<b>Age (years), mean (SD)</b>	15.4 (2.2)	15.2 (2.3)	0.44 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Weight (kg), mean (SD)</b>	62.9 (16.8)	57.1 (12.2)	<b>&lt;0.01<sup>a</sup></b>
<b>Height (m), mean (SD)</b>	1.7 (0.1)	1.6 (0.1)	<b>&lt;0.01<sup>a</sup></b>
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>), mean (SD)</b>	22.5 (4.7)	22.5 (4.2)	0.88 <sup>a</sup>
<b>BMI, n (%)</b>			0.52 <sup>b</sup>
Underweight	8 (5.6)	3 (2.6)	
Normal weight	88 (61.5)	77 (67.5)	
Overweight	28 (19.6)	23 (20.2)	
Obesity	19 (13.3)	11 (9.7)	
<b>Number of siblings, mean (SD)</b>	1.2 (0.9)	1.2 (0.9)	0.99 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Smoking status, n (%)</b>			<b>0.04<sup>c</sup></b>
Never	231 (73.8)	182 (66.9)	
Former	28 (8.9)	42 (15.4)	
Current	54 (17.3)	48 (17.7)	
<b>Number of cigarettes a day, mean (SD)</b>	1.03 (2.9)	1.14 (3.1)	0.65 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Father's occupational ranking, n (%)</b>			0.83 <sup>c</sup>
Low qualified	127 (45.7)	100 (43.3)	
Medium qualified	132 (47.5)	113 (48.9)	
High qualified	19 (6.8)	18 (7.8)	
<b>Mother's occupational ranking, n (%)</b>			0.70 <sup>c</sup>
Low qualified	223 (76.6)	186 (76.2)	
Medium qualified	32 (11.0)	23 (9.4)	
High qualified	36 (12.4)	35 (14.3)	

SD: standard deviation; BMI: body mass index. Values with a p-value  $< 0.050$  are highlighted in bold. a: Student's t-test; b: Fisher Exact test; c: Chi-square.

**Table 2**  
Dietary intake of parabens (ng/day) according to gender.

	Boys				Girls				p-value
	N	Average food intake, g/day (SD)	Parabens (ng/day), mean (SD)	Parabens (ng/day/kg), mean (SD) <sup>a</sup>	N	Average food intake, g/day (SD)	Parabens (ng/day), mean (SD)	Parabens (ng/day/kg), mean (SD) <sup>a</sup>	
<b>Methylparaben</b>				344.7 (298.4)				334.9 (292.1)	
Sliced bread	240	21.2 (36.2)	272.1 (361.2)		221	26.7 (40.8)	324.0 (397.8)		0.14
Luncheon meat products	272	29.0 (43.9)	200.9 (244.7)		229	25.2 (43.5)	194.6 (287.8)		0.79
Olives	195	8.8 (20.0)	66.8 (91.0)		173	11.0 (32.2)	56.4 (80.4)		0.25
Melon	195	42.5 (115.2)	6368.6 (9960.3)		155	42.4 (122.9)	6370.9 (9826.1)		0.99
Eggs	287	24.7 (34.5)	5653.6 (5593.1)		256	16.7 (22.0)	3816.5 (3113.7)		<b>&lt;0.01</b>
Rice	295	18.6 (27.8)	1690.6 (2074.2)		251	15.9 (28.0)	1430.4 (1706.0)		0.11
Apple and pear	258	78.6 (138.1)	3317.5 (3788.0)		212	74.9 (171.9)	3425.2 (6299.9)		0.82
Hamburger	270	9.6 (21.4)	2156.9 (2404.7)		230	7.5 (20.4)	1647.1 (1662.4)		<b>0.01</b>
Onion	209	14.6 (32.5)	4139.8 (4755.2)		164	15.5 (38.3)	4322.7 (4936.2)		0.72
Salted snacks	258	11.1 (21.8)	89.50 (131.45)		234	13.0 (29.3)	76.9 (111.3)		0.25
<b>Ethylparaben</b>				39.6 (39.3)				49.3 (62.9)	
Sliced bread	239	21.2 (36.2)	483.7 (605.5)		221	26.7 (40.8)	597.5 (733.5)		0.07
Semi-cured cheese	182	19.1 (46.1)	550.6 (688.1)		168	14.9 (37.9)	436.8 (587.4)		0.09
Carrot and pumpkin	179	19.2 (53.0)	164.5 (224.2)		155	17.1 (45.3)	157.0 (198.6)		0.75
Canned tuna	167	6.2 (13.2)	1481.8 (1539.7)		130	5.7 (15.2)	1322.1 (1544.2)		0.38
Pineapple	170	12.1 (37.3)	70.6 (80.5)		130	8.8 (30.3)	77.3 (84.1)		0.48
Olives	195	8.8 (20.0)	555.3 (756.1)		173	11.0 (32.2)	468.7 (668.2)		0.25
Mushrooms	144	26.9 (81.9)	1083.5 (1322.1)		141	36.1 (134.9)	973.9 (1557.9)		0.52
<b>Propylparaben</b>				32.3 (44.6)				29.7 (40.9)	
Olives	195	8.8 (20.0)	1095.1 (1491.2)		173	11.0 (32.2)	924.3 (1317.8)		0.25
Canned tuna	167	6.2 (13.2)	257.2 (267.3)		130	5.7 (15.2)	229.5 (268.0)		0.38
Ham	221	10.1 (20.7)	111.9 (134.5)		176	9.3 (20.1)	108.3 (125.9)		0.79
Pineapple	175	12.1 (37.3)	40.3 (66.9)		130	8.8 (30.3)	33.3 (36.2)		0.25
Bakery and baked goods	227	15.7 (34.1)	1316.7 (1857.6)		201	13.8 (38.6)	963.8 (1575.5)		<b>0.03</b>
<b>Butylparaben</b>				19.3 (27.2)				23.2 (34.8)	
Salted snacks	258	11.1 (21.8)	16.3 (23.9)		237	13.0 (29.3)	16.9 (33.4)		0.78
Mushrooms	143	26.9 (81.9)	48.8 (59.9)		140	36.1 (134.9)	43.8 (70.7)		0.52
Pineapple	172	12.1 (37.3)	948.7 (1395.0)		130	8.8 (30.3)	918.7 (998.8)		0.84
Bakery and baked goods	227	15.7 (34.1)	51.0 (72.0)		201	13.8 (38.6)	37.4 (61.1)		<b>0.03</b>
Olives	195	8.8 (20.0)	841.9 (1146.4)		173	11.0 (32.2)	710.6 (1013.1)		0.25

SD: standard deviation. Values with a p-value < 0.050 are highlighted in bold.

<sup>a</sup> Daily intake of each paraben type standardised according to child's weight (kg).

respectively) were the main contributors to EtP intake. The main contributors to PrP dietary exposure were bakery and baked goods (57.3% and 55.1% for boys and girls, respectively) and olives (40.7% and 42.9% for boys and girls, respectively). Lastly, raw pineapple (61.1%) and olives cured in brine (37.5%) were the food items that most contributed to BuP dietary exposure in boys, whilst the main food products in girls were olives (62.1%), followed by pineapple (36.9%) (Table 3).

Table 4 shows a significant association of high BMI with high total parabens (OR: 3.32, p-value: 0.020) and MeP intake girls (OR: 3.05, p-value: 0.026). Moreover, girls with a BMI  $\geq 25$  and 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> had a 5.8-fold and 5.9-fold greater likelihood of belonging to the highest tertile of dietary exposure to total parabens and MeP, respectively (OR: 5.82, p-value: 0.004; OR: 5.90, p-value: 0.003) (data not shown). Adolescent

boys were 50% more likely than girls to belong to the highest tertile of dietary exposure to total parabens and PrP. Other significant factors in relation to PrP were coming from a large family and smoking in the case of boys, whereas father's occupational ranking predicted BuP in girls.

#### 4. Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to use the FFQ to estimate daily dietary exposure to parabens and its relationship with sociodemographic, anthropometric and lifestyle characteristics. Nevertheless, previous studies have used per capita daily intake rates of food items from nationwide or regional surveys (Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b; Maher et al., 2020) to estimate parabens intake but these may

**Table 3**  
Food products that contribute to more than 95% of dietary exposure to parabens according to gender (stepwise regression).

	Methyl	% <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> <sup>b</sup>	Ethyl	% <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> <sup>b</sup>	Propyl	% <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> <sup>b</sup>	Butyl	% <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> <sup>b</sup>
<b>Boys</b>	Eggs	41.9	0.54	Canned tuna	46.4	0.50	Bakery and baked goods	57.3	0.63	Pineapple	61.1	0.59
	Onions	21.6	0.77	Mushrooms	29.8	0.78	Olives	40.7	0.98	Olives	37.5	0.99
	Apple and pear	16.7	0.90	Olives	10.2	0.88						
	Hamburger	15.3	0.96	Semi-cured cheese	7.8	0.94						
<b>Girls</b>	Apples and pears	35.3	0.44	Sliced bread	4.3	0.99						
	Onions	25.3	0.75	Canned tuna	42.1	0.50	Bakery and baked goods	55.1	0.62	Olives	62.1	0.63
	Eggs	23.9	0.93	Mushrooms	31.8	0.77	Olives	42.9	0.98	Pineapple	36.9	0.99
	Hamburger	14.3	0.96	Sliced bread	15.3	0.88						
			Olives	6.8	0.95							

<sup>a</sup> Percentage contribution for each food added to the model as a predictor of overall compound intake.

<sup>b</sup> R<sup>2</sup>: determination coefficient as a proxy of model goodness of fit (range 0–1; R<sup>2</sup> of 1 indicates that regression predictions perfectly fit the data).

**Table 4**

Factors predicting belonging to the highest tertile of overall dietary exposure to parabens, methylparaben, ethylparaben, propylparaben and butylparaben according to gender.

<b>Total parabens</b>		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI			
Sex	Ref. Girls						
	Boys	<b>0.026</b>	<b>1.49</b>	<b>1.05–2.10</b>			
		<b>Boys</b>			<b>Girls</b>		
		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI
Age	Ref. Age > 14 yrs						
	Age ≤14 yrs	0.549	1.28	0.57–2.85	<b>0.045</b>	<b>3.10</b>	<b>1.03–9.39</b>
BMI	Ref. BMI < 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>						
	BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.336	0.66	0.29–1.53	<b>0.020</b>	<b>3.32</b>	<b>1.21–9.15</b>
Large family	Ref. No						
	Yes	0.285	1.55	0.70–3.44	0.357	1.62	0.58–4.56
Smoking status	Ref. Never						
	Current	0.540	1.43	0.46–4.46	0.802	1.17	0.34–4.06
	Former	0.575	0.71	0.22–2.32	0.699	1.33	0.32–5.52
Father's occupational ranking	Ref. Low qualified						
	Medium-high qualified	0.545	1.27	0.59–2.73	0.312	1.65	0.63–4.34
Mother's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.739	1.16	0.48–2.85	0.415	1.78	0.45–7.05
<b>Methylparaben</b>		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI			
Sex	Ref. Girls						
	Boys	0.168	1.28	0.90–1.81			
		<b>Boys</b>			<b>Girls</b>		
		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI
Age	Ref. Age > 14 yrs						
	Age ≤14 yrs	0.963	0.98	0.44–2.17	0.136	2.25	0.78–6.49
BMI	Ref. BMI < 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>						
	BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.643	0.82	0.36–1.87	<b>0.026</b>	<b>3.05</b>	<b>1.14–8.12</b>
Large family	Ref. Yes						
	No	0.312	0.66	0.30–1.47	0.651	0.79	0.29–2.17
Smoking status	Ref. Never						
	Current	0.651	1.30	0.42–4.03	0.513	1.48	0.46–4.83
	Former	0.947	0.96	0.31–2.98	0.867	1.13	0.28–4.50
Father's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.451	0.75	0.35–1.60	0.323	0.63	0.25–1.59
Mother's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.949	0.97	0.40–2.34	0.707	1.28	0.36–4.58
<b>Ethylparaben</b>		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI			
Sex	Ref. Girls						
	Boys	0.295	1.20	0.85–1.69			
		<b>Boys</b>			<b>Girls</b>		
		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI
Age	Ref. Age > 14 yrs						
	Age ≤14 yrs	0.256	0.61	0.26–1.43	0.061	2.70	0.96–7.61
BMI	Ref. BMI < 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>						
	BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.192	1.77	0.75–4.17	0.846	1.10	0.41–2.96
Large family	Ref. Yes						
	No	0.708	0.85	0.37–1.98	0.988	1.01	0.37–2.77
Smoking status	Ref. Never						
	Current	0.733	0.81	0.25–2.66	0.763	0.83	0.24–2.82
	Former	0.308	1.82	0.58–5.77	0.290	2.03	0.55–7.57
Father's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.051	0.45	0.20–1.00	0.963	0.98	0.40–2.41
Mother's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.915	1.05	0.41–2.69	0.731	1.24	0.36–4.33
<b>Propylparaben</b>		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI			
Sex	Ref. Girls						
	Boys	<b>0.028</b>	<b>1.47</b>	<b>1.04–2.07</b>			
		<b>Boys</b>			<b>Girls</b>		
		<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI	<i>p</i>	OR	95% CI
Age	Ref. Age > 14 yrs						
	Age ≤14 yrs	0.963	0.98	0.43–2.26	0.218	1.96	0.67–5.71
BMI	Ref. BMI < 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>						
	BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.600	0.79	0.33–1.90	0.983	1.01	0.36–2.83
Large family	Ref. Yes						
	No	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.15–0.79</b>	0.750	1.20	0.41–3.46
Smoking status	Ref. Never						
	Current	<b>0.025</b>	<b>4.14</b>	<b>1.20–14.33</b>	0.679	0.76	0.21–2.75

(continued on next page)



Table 4 (continued)

Father's occupational ranking	Former	0.682	1.28	0.40–4.11	0.410	1.76	0.46–2.96
	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
Mother's occupational ranking	Low qualified	0.304	0.65	0.29–1.47	0.747	1.17	0.46–2.96
	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.358	1.57	0.60–4.06	0.355	1.95	0.48–8.00
<b>Butylparaben</b>							
		<b>p</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>95% CI</b>			
Sex	Ref. Girls						
	Boys	0.371	1.17	0.38–1.64			
		<b>p</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
Age	Ref. Age > 14 yrs						
	Age ≤ 14 yrs	0.621	1.23	0.54–2.79	0.578	1.34	0.48–3.78
BMI	Ref. BMI < 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>						
	BMI ≥ 25 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.061	0.43	0.18–1.04	0.981	0.99	0.36–2.75
Large family	Ref. Yes						
	No	0.077	0.48	0.21–1.08	0.162	0.48	0.17–1.34
Smoking status	Ref. Never						
	Current	0.146	2.39	0.38–7.72	0.145	0.39	0.11–1.39
Father's occupational ranking	Former	0.554	0.70	0.21–2.30	0.545	1.50	0.40–5.59
	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.572	0.80	0.36–1.75	<b>0.036</b>	<b>0.36</b>	<b>0.14–0.94</b>
Mother's occupational ranking	Ref. Medium-high qualified						
	Low qualified	0.719	1.18	0.47–2.95	0.905	0.93	0.27–3.17

BMI: body mass index; Ref: reference category; OR: odds ratio; 95% CI: confidence interval. Values with a p-value < 0.050 are highlighted in bold.

underestimate actual exposure. Moreover, a study conducted by Liao and colleagues (Liao et al., 2013b) with teenagers from the United States is the only prior study to have estimated daily dietary intake of total parabens. Despite this, they did not consider ingested amounts of each food as was the case in the present study. In addition, the present study estimated the paraben concentrations of foods through direct measurements taken by research group members. These measurements have been reported previously (Gálvez-Ontiveros et al., 2021).

Although the main source of parabens in food is not entirely clear (Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b; Maher et al., 2020), their use as antimicrobial agents explains why they are found in higher concentrations in processed foods in comparison with unprocessed/raw foods (Soni et al., 2005). In fact, in 2004 the EFSA approved the use of MeP and EtP as food additives (food additives E218 and E214, respectively) and antimicrobial preservatives in some processed foods (EFSA, 2004). Moreover, an additional source of parabens could be the packaging material used for certain foods (Liao et al., 2013b).

PrP and BuP are not allowed as food additives. Their presence in food might be explained by contamination during primary production, for example, through fruits and vegetables cultivated in soils irrigated with reclaimed water or treated with sewage sludge. Wastewater treatments do not remove specifically emerging pollutants and so, depending on soil and pollutant properties, these parabens could be accumulated in soil to a greater extent than in irrigated water. Once in the soil, they may be absorbed by vegetables or accumulated by roots depending on their pollutant physicochemical properties (Aparicio et al., 2018). The ubiquity of parabens elsewhere could also be related to the unexpected presence of these parabens in food. Recently, we found PrP and BuP in frequently consumed food (Gálvez-Ontiveros et al., 2021). Moreover, environmental contamination with these two parabens in Spain has also been reported. Specifically, they have been found in compost from sewage sludge (Benítez-Villalba et al., 2013; Luque-Muñoz et al., 2017), marine echinoderms and sediments (Martín et al., 2017). In addition, we have further demonstrated this environmental contamination through the presence of PrP and BuP in human biological samples such as serum (Vela-Soria et al., 2013), milk (Rodríguez-Gómez et al., 2015), nail (Martín-Pozo et al., 2020), hair (Rodríguez-Gómez et al., 2017), placenta (Jiménez-Díaz et al., 2011; Vela-Soria et al., 2015) and urine (Vela-Soria et al., 2014).

The presence of parabens in eggs might be explained by the ingestion of paraben-contaminated feed or soil, which then penetrates into

chicken tissue and is subsequently transferred into eggs (Pajurek et al., 2019). On the other hand, parabens may naturally occur in some unprocessed fruits and vegetables and may, therefore, contribute to disease resistance through their antimicrobial and antifungal properties (Blazević et al., 2010; Hagel et al., 2019; Martínez, 2012). Furthermore, EtP has been reported to have allelopathic functions (Huang et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2011), whilst MetP has also been found in a wide variety of plant species and can be applied to the manufacturing of bio-based poly (ether ester) materials (Hu et al., 2017). Concretely, parabens have been found to be naturally produced in some organisms. Thus, MeP, also called knows as nipagin, and EtP have been naturally found in an extensive variety of plant species (Hagel et al., 2019; Nowak et al., 2018). In fact, it has been reported that some plants such as blueberries, carrots, olives and strawberries synthesize parabens, mainly MeP (Calvo-Flores et al., 2018). In another study, MeP and PrP were detected in 43% and 28% of analyzed radish stem samples (Abril et al., 2021), whilst MeP has also been detected in leafy vegetables (lettuce, spinach and chard) and root vegetables (carrot, turnip and potato) (Aparicio et al., 2018). Parabens have even been located in drinking water leading to their absorption by aquatic animals (Nowak et al., 2018). This is shown by one study in which more than 90% of analyzed fish was to contain at least 70% of MeP, PrP, BuP and EtP (Błędzka et al., 2014).

Despite the fact that estimated dietary paraben intake is below recommended levels for tolerable daily intake (TDI), other routes of exposure such as cosmetics, household dust and air must also be considered. The cumulative effect of parabens together with other endocrine disruptors present in food such as bisphenols, heavy metals, pesticides and polybrominated diphenyl ethers could pose a risk to human health and should be further investigated.

Interestingly, the present analysis showed differences between adolescent boys and girls regarding the factors predicting high paraben intake. In general, boys were at a greater risk of high dietary exposure to total parabens and PrP. This may be explained by the fact that boys consume more foods with high PrP concentrations than girls. Indeed, boys consumed more canned tuna, ham, pineapple and bakery and baked goods than girls, as can be seen in Table 2. These outcomes cannot be compared with other studies that measured PrP in urine (Calafat et al., 2010; Engel et al., 2014; Feizabadi et al., 2020a; Kang et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019). Indeed, paraben concentrations in these studies were higher in women with respect to men, probably due to the presence of parabens in cosmetics and other personal care products which are used

more frequently by women (Calafat et al., 2010; Engel et al., 2014). As shown in Table 2, boys consumed more bakery and baked goods products than girls, with this being associated with higher daily BuP and PrP exposure. Additionally, girls aged 14 or below had higher odds of having a high total paraben intake. This may be explained by the increased energy intake seen to occur in girls at between 10 and 14 years of age, which in turn increases their dietary exposure to parabens. In contrast, energy intake in 14–16 year old girls decreases as a result of reaching the end of the growing process, usually around 16 years of age (Deheeger et al., 2002). Moreover, lifestyle and dietary changes will, in turn, affect dietary exposure to parabens throughout life. The association found between age and higher exposure may also be due to an increased consumption of foods with higher paraben concentrations, such as processed food, by the adolescent population (Soni et al., 2005). In this respect, a cross-sectional study conducted in Spain, the ANIBES study, revealed that food choices change with age and 9–12 year old girls consumed more processed food than 13–17 year old girls (Partearroyo et al., 2019). Studies such as this support the idea that adolescence is a crucial stage for exposure to endocrine-disrupting compounds.

The odds of having a high PrP intake were lower in adolescent boys who did not come from a large family. This finding could be attributed to the fact that larger households tend to cook at home as it is cheaper than buying ultra-processed food or fast food. In fact, one study found that households with more than one child consumed less fast food in comparison to those that had one child or none (Akabay et al., 2007).

Additionally, smoking was positively associated with high PrP intake in boys. This may be explained by the fact that adolescent smokers are more likely to have an unhealthy lifestyle, engage in less physical activity, consume more alcohol and follow an unhealthy diet (Cho et al., 2011; Patino-Alonso et al., 2014). In fact, two studies including 373 and 4372 adolescents from Mexico and Thailand, respectively, reported associations between an unhealthy diet and smoking habits (Boonchoo-duang et al., 2019; Gutiérrez-Pliego et al., 2016).

Moreover, present results also showed that a lower paternal occupational ranking was associated with lower odds of having a high BuP intake in girls. A low paternal educational level has been reported to be associated with a lower family socioeconomic status (Guillaume et al., 1999). This may suggest that families with a higher socioeconomic status have more access to ultra-processed foods since they possess the necessary economic capital to be able to afford them. In fact, several studies have suggested that households with a lower socioeconomic status tend to consume more culinary preparations (unprocessed or minimally processed foods and processed culinary ingredients) (Araujo et al., 2017). This, together with the fact that girls generally eat healthier food, could explain their lower risk of dietary exposure to parabens.

Several studies have assessed the relationship between paraben exposure and obesity in children. In this regard, as mentioned above, only the study conducted by Xue et al. (2015) found a non-significant association between postnatal exposure to parabens and childhood obesity (Xue et al., 2015). In contrast, another report found positive associations between urinary parabens and height z scores but only in 3-year-old boys (Guo et al., 2017). Another study conducted with 6–8 year old girls found null associations between adiposity measurements and paraben exposure (Deierlein et al., 2017). Recently, the Canadian Health Measures Survey failed to find an association of paraben concentration in urine with obesity and metabolic syndrome (Kim and Chevrier, 2020).

Although no previous studies have specifically investigated the associations between exposure to parabens and overweight and obesity in adolescents, the null association found in the present study within male adolescents is consistent with findings reported by a Czech study (Kolátorová et al., 2018) conducted with a small group of participants. In contrast, present outcomes are not in agreement with those reported by the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), which observed inverse associations between these same parameters in men (Quirós-Alcalá et al., 2018). Another interesting point is that the

positive association found in the present study between dietary paraben exposure in adolescent girls and overweight/obesity differs with results reported by NHANES and the Czech study. Other studies that investigated the association between BMI and paraben exposure have reported inverse associations overall (Den Hond et al., 2013; Kang et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2012), inverse associations in men (Meeker et al., 2011) and null associations in women (Meeker et al., 2013). However, such studies were not designed to specifically evaluate the association between overweight and paraben exposure and so did not adjust for important confounders.

Present findings in adolescent girls are consistent with the anti-androgenic and estrogenic properties of parabens. In this regard, many studies have discussed the sexual dimorphism of endocrine disrupting chemical (EDC). In addition, the effects of parabens may be modified by the presence of natural hormones and other EDCs. It has been reported that estrogens protect against obesity in adult humans through a number of mechanisms including appetite suppression (Clegg et al., 2007), increased basal energy expenditure (Musatov et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2011), transformation of white fat into healthier brown fat (Palmer and Clegg, 2015; Rosen and Spiegelman, 2014) and promotion of subcutaneous fat depots (Palmer and Clegg, 2015). Visceral and white fat are related with insulin resistance, high blood triglyceride levels, high low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, and low blood levels of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol (Ebbert and Jensen, 2013). Testosterone also exerts a protective role against the development of obesity and metabolic disease in men through the transformation of testosterone into estradiol (Cheng et al., 2017; Ding et al., 2006). However, the effects of sex hormones may differ between children, adolescents and adults. In boys, the interaction between testosterone and growth hormone reduces fat deposition (Veldhuis et al., 2005), whilst in girls, estrogens reduce the lipolytic activity of growth hormone resulting in increased fat deposition (Loomba-Albrecht and Styne, 2009). This is consistent with the present outcomes in girls as the estrogenic effect of parabens contributes to higher overweight/obesity incidence.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the association between dietary exposure to parabens and their influencing factors, such as BMI, in adolescents. Moreover, our study is one of the biggest studies to date on this topic and included large number of participants. In addition, as mentioned previously, paraben concentration in the food used to estimate intake was measured directly by the present research group itself.

The present study has some limitations. The first limitation is that diet alone is not the only source of parabens exposure in humans and that other sources, such as personal care products and pharmaceuticals, were not considered. Dietary exposure to parabens in humans has been previously reported, however, the main food sources of parabens are still unknown (Liao et al., 2013a, 2013b; Maher et al., 2020) and the daily cumulative effect of parabens through food warrant further investigation (Maher et al., 2020). The second limitation is that, for obvious reasons, not all food products could be included in the questionnaire. This can result in an underestimation of dietary exposure. Nevertheless, included food products were those most highly consumed by the study population and provided more than 95% of energy intake and macronutrients. Another limitation was the difficulty of obtaining accurate data with regards to dietary paraben intake. In order to overcome this limitation, the FFQ was used. This includes 96 food items and specifies consumption frequency and type of food packaging. This FFQ has been validated relative to 24h recall methods (Figures S1 and S2, Supplementary material). Data collected through the present study can only be used to form an estimation of dietary exposure to these compounds and cannot give real measurements. Lastly, in the present study, paraben concentration was not measured in biological samples, which would provide a more accurate estimation of actual exposure in the population studied. However, studies employing these methods are currently being conducted by the present research group.

## 5. Conclusion

Outcomes of the present study showed positive associations between dietary exposure to parabens and overweight/obesity in girls in a large sample of adolescents. These findings represent an important public health concern given the ubiquity of paraben exposure in this population. However, given the small number of available studies addressing the relation between paraben intake and obesity, present findings need to be confirmed within other populations. Ideally, future studies will use a longitudinal design and include measurements of parabens in biological samples during relevant developmental time periods.

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## Declaration of competing interest

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

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.111548>.

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