

1 **The presence of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in disposable baby diapers: a facile determination**
2 **method via salting-out assisted liquid-liquid extraction coupled with gas chromatography-mass**
3 **spectrometry.**

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13 **Highlights:**

- 14 • Disposable diapers contain toxic compounds as PAHs.
15 • There are no harmonized analytical methods for the determination of PAHs in diaper.
16 • A protocol for determination of PAHs using cryogenic grinding and LLE is presented.
17 • There was no diaper that is free of PAHs compounds.

18 **Abstract:**

19 In this paper we demonstrate the development of the extraction procedure of polycyclic aromatic
20 hydrocarbons from baby diapers along with their quantification by gas chromatography-mass
21 spectrometry. Apart from covering plastic foil, disposable baby diapers contain sorbents intended to
22 absorb urine and feces. A hygroscopic, adsorptive, and tough-to-homogenize fibrous sorbent,
23 represents an analytical challenge to analytical chemists. To address this issue we optimized and
24 validated a novel extraction protocol including cryogenic homogenization, liquid-liquid extraction and
25 further preconcentration by evaporation. By using deuterated internal standards in conjunction with
26 matrix-matched calibration, high precision and accuracy were achieved. The limit of detection is
27 estimated in the range of 0.041-0.221 ng/g (for fluorene and fluoranthene, respectively), which is far
28 below the concentration currently assumed to be dangerous for children. The method was successfully
29 applied to real samples available on the Polish market, and it was found that the amount of PAH
30 compounds varies between manufacturers. Most diapers do not have all 15 polycyclic aromatic

31 hydrocarbons in their composition, but there is no diaper that is free of these compounds. The most
32 abundant in diapers was acenaphthalene, where the concentration ranged from 1.6 ng/g diaper up to
33 362.4 ng/g. The lowest concentration in diapers is chrysene, which is not detected in most diapers. The
34 article is a response to the lack of a harmonized analytical method for the determination of polycyclic
35 aromatic hydrocarbons in disposable sanitary products for children.

36 **Keywords:** Environmental Pollutants; Toxic compounds; Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry;
37 Disposable Baby Diapers; Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Disposable baby diapers have transformed millions lives [1]. Safe and adequate care products are
40 necessary for a child development. It is known that baby care products contain a high variety of
41 chemicals including polycyclic aromatic compounds (PAHs), and many other volatile organic
42 compounds [2-3]. Many chemicals contained in the care products can pose a threat to the babies' skin-
43 dermatitis or other health complications [1,3-5]. In order to ensure the safety of diapers products,
44 analytical tests are carried out to confirm that the limits for the content of harmful substances have
45 not been exceeded. The safety of these products is very critical as they can be in contact with the
46 baby's skin throughout early childhood, such as diapers are used in direct contact with the skin, 24 h a
47 day, 7 days a week. However, the standards do not cover all harmful substances [6]. The diaper
48 business is a self-regulating industry. It is meaning up to the diaper companies to ensure they are
49 compliant with safety regulations because there are no standards [6]. As a result, diaper manufacturers
50 and parts of other consumer articles are not obligated by law to disclose the component parts of their
51 diapers and tests of concentrations of harmful impurities. As a consequence of the above mentioned
52 facts, the scientific discussion regarding appropriate analytical methods used to determine PAH in
53 diapers has not started. First attempt at PAH analysis using disposable diapers as a challenging
54 analytical matrix for compound extraction is reported in this paper.

55 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are a group of over 100 chemicals that occur in the environment.
56 PAHs are widespread contaminants for the environment generated by incomplete combustion or
57 pyrolysis of organic matter [7]. Comprise the largest class of cancer-causing chemicals and are ranked
58 ninth among chemical compounds threatening to humans [8]. The most well-studied PAH is
59 benzo[a]pyrene, and it is also considered as a marker compound that represents a total load of PAHs
60 [9]. The carcinogenic properties of this molecule have been known since the 1930s [10]). PAHs are
61 receiving global attention due to their toxicity, environmental persistence, and potential
62 bioaccumulation. These chemical compounds are classified as organics, which are carcinogenic even
63 in very low concentration (ppb) [11]. PAHs are highly lipid soluble and thus readily absorbed from the

64 gastrointestinal tract and skin tissue [12]. They present high lipophilic nature so they are rapidly
65 distributed in a wide variety of tissues with a marked tendency for localization in body fat. Metabolism
66 of PAHs occurs via the cytochrome P450-mediated mixed function oxidase system with oxidation or
67 hydroxylation as the first step [13].

68 One of the problems with PAHs is that they can be present in many type of daily used products. The
69 exposure to these compounds is high because of this. Consumers should be aware of the potential
70 contaminants in each product. It is worthwhile to emphasize two reasons for this: the consumer can
71 be directly exposed to such a pollutant, as well as the pollutant can be released into the environment.
72 We should be careful especially on the selection of goods for the children. In spite of the fact that
73 disposable baby diapers are a very popular product, the composition of these diapers is neither
74 thoroughly known nor carefully regulated. There is little literature data on the occurrence of PAHs in
75 disposable baby diapers [14], therefore the development of simple and sensitive analytical methods is
76 crucial for the well-being of children and the environment.

77 PAH determination in disposable diapers represents an analytical challenge due to their potentially
78 low concentrations (pg or ng per gram of diapers) and complexity of the matrix [14]. In addition, PAHs
79 are compounds that occur in many analytical materials used for standard analysis and can impact on
80 the blank problem. Therefore, sample preparation is a crucial step for accurate and precise tracing of
81 these analytes. In fact, the procedure should help to ensure the transparency of the blank problem
82 and it should provide methods for identifying background sources and ways to reduce or eliminate
83 system contamination in order to design methods keeping blanks below a critical threshold.

84 Efficient, sensitive, and selective analytical methods are required for PAH determination. Sample
85 preparation involves removing interfering constituents and preconcentrating target analytes. Studies
86 have described the determination of PAHs in biological matrices, including blood [15-16], urine [17],
87 serum [18], saliva [19] among others. It does not change the fact that no analytical methods have been
88 developed specifically for detecting PAHs in diapers. It has been found that the diaper impose a
89 number of limitations, including the fact that the fibrous filling inside of the matrix is difficult to
90 homogenize and is also intended to be highly hygroscopic and absorbent. As a consequence of the
91 above-mentioned facts, we developed a new analytical procedure that will be proposed in this paper.

92 Gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS) is the most widely applied technique for
93 PAHs determination. Other techniques used in the determination of PAHs are gas chromatography
94 coupled with flame ionization detection or liquid chromatography coupled with fluorescence detection
95 but are less frequently used because of the sensitivity in determining low concentrations of this
96 compound [20].

97 This paper describes a GC–MS method for the determination of PAHs in disposable baby diapers. A
98 simple and quick method of sample preparation based on cryogenic grinding of diapers and salting-
99 out assisted liquid-liquid extraction was developed and validated. Real disposable baby diaper samples
100 available on the Polish market were tested in order to identify PAHs in them. The article is a response
101 to the lack of a harmonized analytical method for the determination of PAH in disposable sanitary
102 products for children. Also, it provides valuable information about the level of PAHs that newborns
103 and infants are exposed to almost 24 hours a day through disposable diapers. On the other hand, a
104 used diaper ends up in a landfill, where PAHs are released into the environment. **The presented article**
105 **is the first step in raising awareness about carcinogenic impurities to which infants and older children**
106 **are exposed.**

107 **2 Materials and methods**

108 **2.1. Chemicals**

109 PAHs mixture, i.e: fluorene (F), naphthalene (Nap), acenaphthylene (Acy), acenaphthene (Ace),
110 phenanthrene (Phe), anthracene (Ant), fluoranthene (Flu), pyrene (Pyr), benzo[a]anthracene (BaA),
111 chrysene (Chr), benzo[b]fluoranthene (BbF), benzo[k]fluoranthene (BkF), benzo[a]pyrene (BaP),
112 indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene (InP), dibenzo[a,h]anthracene (DBA), and benzo[ghi]perylene (BgP)²², each at
113 10 µg/mL level dissolved in acetonitrile was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Germany). Deuterated
114 internal standards: acenaphthene-d₁₀, phenanthrene-d₁₀, chrysene-d₁₂ were also purchased from
115 Sigma-Aldrich dissolved in acetonitrile. Acetonitrile and chloroform with GC–MS purity were provided
116 by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), and ultrapure water was obtained using a Milli-Q purification system
117 (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA). Sodium chloride was purchased from POCH (Gliwice, Poland).

118 **2.2. Samples**

119 Individual disposable baby diapers were purchased in Polish drugstores and grocery stores. The total
120 number of 20 different commercial products were collected. Diapers were stored in their original
121 packaging at room temperature. Before extraction of PAHs the diapers were immersed in liquid
122 nitrogen for 2 minutes, then homogenized for 5 minutes under cryogenic conditions in an analytical
123 mill (A11 basic, IKA, Germany). The powdered diapers were stored in sealed bags at room temperature
124 until analysis. The pooled sample, used during method optimization and validation of a final analytical
125 procedure was prepared by weighing an equal amount of each diaper followed by thorough mixing.

126 **2.3. Sample preparation procedure**

127 A quantity of 250 mg of milled disposable baby diapers was weighed and placed in a 15 mL bottle. The
128 extraction was performed in 15 milliliter falcons from Nest (Woodbridge, USA). The tube of the falcon

129 is made of polypropylene and the lid is made of polyethylene. Then, 10 μL of the internal standard
130 mixture (200 ng/mL for chrysene- d_{12} , acenaphthylene- d_{10} and 400 ng/ml for phenantrene- d_{10} , each in
131 acetonitrile), which corresponds to 8 ng/g and 16 ng/g of diaper was added. After that, 8 mL of a 15%
132 NaCl (w/v) solution in water was poured into the bottle, followed by 4 mL of chloroform. It was then
133 placed in the rotator for 20 min at 40 rpm (Stuart, rotator SB3, Germany). Following this, 3 mL of
134 chloroform (bottom fraction) was withdrawn into a 5 mL centrifuge tube. The next step was to
135 evaporate, the sample to dryness under vacuum at 22°C (Labconco, CentriVap, USA). In the final step,
136 100 μL of acetonitrile were added to dissolve the extracted PAHs and briefly vortexed. The sample was
137 transferred to GC vial and analyzed directly.

138 **2.4. Optimization of sample preparation procedure**

139 Two factors were considered during optimization of sample preparation stage, namely extracting
140 solvent and salt concentration. For liquid-liquid extraction, three solvents were selected, which are
141 chloroform, dichloromethane and diethyl ether. The extractions were performed as described in
142 Section 2.3.

143 The effect of salt concentration was examined. Sodium chloride was added to the aqueous phase in
144 the liquid-liquid extraction. To determine the final percentage of NaCl in water, an experiment was
145 carried out in which the extraction efficiency was compared with the use of 5%, 10% and 15% of the
146 solution.

147 **2.5. Gas chromatography-Mass spectrometry**

148 The chromatographic analysis of the extract was performed using the GC-MS technique. An Agilent
149 Technologies 7820A gas chromatograph and an Agilent Technologies 5977E MSD mass spectrometer
150 were used. The chromatographic separation of the tested compounds was achieved using a capillary
151 column DB-EUPAH (Agilent J&W GC Columns, USA), made of fused silica, 20 m long, internal diameter
152 of 0.180 mm and film thickness of 0.14 μm . The above-mentioned column can operate in the
153 temperature range of 40°C-320°C.

154 The splitless mode of injection was applied at temperature 320°C and the pressure was 26.935 psi. The
155 carrier gas was helium and its flow rate was 1.3314 mL/min. The syringe of the dispenser was rinsed
156 with acetonitrile (100 %) - six times before dosing and six times after dosing the sample. The sample
157 was dozed in a volume of 2 μL . A GC-MS transfer line temperature of 320°C, an ion source temperature
158 of 250°C, and a quadrupole temperature of 180°C were used. The technique of single ion monitoring
159 (SIM) was applied. For each analyte one ion was selected for quantitative analysis and additional two
160 signals were chosen for identification purposes (Supplementary 1)). The column temperature was

161 initially held at 60 °C for 0.5 min, raised to 200 °C at the rate of 8°C/min and kept for 0.5 min, then to
162 270 °C at the rate of 11 °C/min, and finally to 300 °C at the rate of 2 °C/min. The total analysis time is
163 39.86 minutes.

164 A solvent delay was fixed at 4 min and the analytes are divided into 8 discrete time segments: 4-10 min
165 for Nap, 10-13 min for Acy, Ace and F D-10, 13-15.50 min for Phe, Phe D-10 and Ant, 15.50-19 min for
166 Flu and Pyr, 19-23 min for BaA, Chr and Chr D-10, 23-26.50 min for BbF, BkF and Bap, 26.50-32 min for
167 InP, DBA and BgP. Table 1 shows the retention time and analyte-dependent ions.

168 **2.6. Validation study**

169 The method was validated in terms of linearity, range, within- and between-day precision and
170 accuracy. Additionally, extraction recovery, matrix effect, LOD and LOQ were evaluated.

171

172 **2.6.1. Calibration curve and range**

173 The calibration curve was made on disposable diapers with the addition of analytes and an internal
174 standard. Calibration curve was developed, consisting of 9 points in the concentration range from 1 to
175 800 ng/g. The value of the disposable diaper without spike was subtracted from the peak areas of the
176 calibration curve. The highest correlation determination is and quadratic function for the weighted
177 one $1/x^2$. The correlation determination is in the range of 0.98-0.99.

178 **2.6.2. Limits of quantification and detection**

179 Limits of detection (LOD) was determined from the obtained chromatogram for the blank. For this
180 purpose, the noise level was determined - by measuring on the chromatogram the range of signal
181 change near the retention time for the analytes. Then, the obtained value was multiplied by 3.3 and
182 converted into a concentration value. Limits of quantification (LOQ) obtained by multiplying by 3 LOD
183 values.

184 **2.6.3. Precision and accuracy**

185 The precision and accuracy are based on three concentrations:- 10, 250 and 500 ng/g. The
186 determination of these parameters was to be divided into two days - at the beginning of the validation,
187 during the execution of real samples and after the completion of all analyzes. The experiment was
188 performed in the same manner as described in Section 2.3. Each concentration was performed in three
189 replications.

190 **2.6.4. Matrix effect**

191 A mix of diapers was used to determine the matrix effect. The samples were prepared according to the
192 extraction precedent. The diapers with the addition of analytes, the diaper without analytes and the
193 sample without the diaper with the addition of analytes were prepared. An identical concentration of
194 internal standards was added to all samples. The matrix effect was determined at one concentration
195 levels 10 ng/g. The experiment was carried out in triplicate. The matrix effect is calculated according
196 to the formula below:

197
$$ME = \frac{A-B}{C} \cdot 100\%, \text{ where:}$$

198 A – PAH concentration in a disposable diaper with the addition of an analytes;

199 B – PAH concentration in a disposable diaper without the addition of an analytes;

200 C – PAH concentration after extraction without disposable diaper with the addition of analytes.

201 **3. Results and discussion**

202 **3.1. Optimization of analytical procedure**

203 **3.1.1. Sample preparation**

204 Due to the fact that PAHs are lipophilic compounds, it is difficult to design a simple experiment that
205 would combine solid phase extraction with a solid matrix. The extraction procedure started with
206 ultrasound-assisted extraction of a diaper with various organic solvents was attempted, but this
207 method, despite the optimization of many parameters, still had a low efficiency. The next step was to
208 perform a liquid-liquid extraction. Three organic solvents were selected - dichloromethane, diethyl
209 ether and chloroform. The highest recovery was found in the case of the use of chloroform, so this
210 solvent was chosen as the organic phase. The ratio of the peak area of the analyte to the peak area of
211 the internal standard are presented in Supplementary 1.

212 For highly volatile organic compounds such as PAHs, increasing the amount of salt in the sample
213 typically increases the extraction yield to the organic solvent. It is related to the value of the dielectric
214 constant of organic solvents. The recovery of three solutions of the water phase containing the
215 appropriate 5%, 10% and 15% sodium chloride was tested experimentally. When using a 15% aqueous
216 solution as the inorganic phase, the extraction efficiency was the most reproducible and the relative
217 standard deviations are the smallest as shown in Supplementary 2 below.

218 The key step in sample preparation is evaporation. Based on the experiments it was found that
219 evaporation at higher temperatures (above 25 °C) part of the analyte is evaporated together with the
220 solvent. For this reason, it was decided to evaporate the samples at 23 °C. Another important step is



221 when the internal standard is added. In this procedure, internal standards are added to a dry diaper
222 before starting the extraction procedure. In the case of samples with added analyte (in some trials this
223 was done during the validation), this additive was also applied to the dry diaper.

224 **3.1.2. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry**

225 Due to the fact that PAHs are volatile compounds, it was decided to analyze the samples by using GC-
226 MS. For the highest possible separation of analytes, it was decided to use a column that is specially
227 dedicated to PAHs compounds. The temperature gradient has been optimized to obtain the highest
228 resolution between peaks. However, there was a problem with the separation with some pairs of
229 compounds such as phenantrene-anthracene and benzo[b]fluoranthene-benzo[k]fluoranthene. These
230 are compounds with a very similar chemical structure. Moreover, these pairs of compounds have
231 identical m/z ratios and fragment ions, so separating them by mass spectrometry is impossible. Finally,
232 after careful optination of temperature gradient full separation of all analytes was achieved. The Figure
233 **1** below shows chromatograms for all analytes and internal standards.

234 **3.2. Validation study**

235 **3.2.1. Linearity, range**

236 Linearity of the method was checked at a range between 1 and 800 ng/g. Concentrations lower than 1
237 ng/g or higher than 800 ng/g should be considered as out of the range. The concentration points on the
238 curve is: 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 80, 200, 400, 800 nanograms of PAH's per gram of diaper. The calibration curve was
239 developed on a diaper with the addition of PAH's and deuterated internal standards. The calibration curves were
240 in the corresponding ranges with correlation determination higher than 0.94 as shown in Table 2.

241 **3.2.2. Limit of detection and quantification**

242 **3.2.3 Accuracy and precision**

243 The precision and accuracy of the method were evaluated by analyses of each Quality Control (QC)
244 level sample. The data for intra- and interday precision and accuracy from QC samples are summarized
245 in Table 3. and Table 4. respectively. The results were within acceptable limits, showing satisfactory
246 accuracy and precision

247 **3.2.4. Matrix effect**

248 Matrix effect was determined on the basis of one concentrations - 10 ng/g of diaper. The results of the
249 recovery studies are presented in the Table 5.

250 **3.2.5. Recovery**

251 In addition to validation parameters, recovery was calculated. A mix of diapers was used to determine
252 this parameter. An internal standard of the same concentration was added to each sample. Recovery
253 test at one concentration level of 10 ng/g. In this experiment, an analyte-free diaper, and a sample
254 containing no diaper were used. In the sample without the diaper, the analyte was added after sample
255 evaporation in the proportion of 0.75 relative to the samples that contained the analyte. The
256 procedure is so constructed because after extraction 3 of 4 mL of the organic phase was withdrawn
257 and evaporated. The recovery is calculated according to the formula below:

258
$$RE = \frac{A-B}{D} \cdot 100\%, \text{ where:}$$

259 A – PAH concentration in a disposable diaper with the addition of an analytes;

260 B – PAH concentration in a disposable diaper without the addition of an analytes;

261 D – acetonitrile with the addition of PAH standard in the amount of 0.75 against the sample A or B.

262 The results of the recovery studies are presented in the Table 5table .

263 **3.3 Real sample analysis**

264 The guiding purpose of this study was to develop a precise method for the determination of PAHs in
265 disposable baby diapers. In twenty tested disposable diapers PAHs were found, but the amount of
266 individual analytes varied between manufacturers. There were also diapers with only some analytes in
267 their composition. [Phe], [Chr], [BbF], [BkF] were found in only some diapers, while there was no diaper
268 that was free from all PAHs. The schematic representation of the concentration level for each analyte
269 found in disposable baby diaper are presented in Figure 2.

270 One of the worrying issues arising from the presented research is the presence of acenaphthene in
271 several diapers at relatively high concentration levels. The highest concentration for this analyte was
272 cc. 362 ng/g. Please, remember that Acy may be poisonous if inhaled or absorbed through skin. There
273 is evidence that acenaphthene is photomutagenic, therefore skin exposure to acenaphthene at the
274 same time as exposure to sunlight is ill-advised. Looking at the environmental problems, Acy should
275 biodegrade rapidly in the environment (biodegradation half-lives for in aerobic soil and surface waters
276 range from 10 to 60 and from 1 to 25 days, respectively). From the other site, it may persist under
277 anaerobic conditions or at high concentration due to toxicity to microorganisms[21].

278 The next compound that occurs at quite high concentration level (cc. 60 ng/g) in few samples is
279 dibenz[a,h]anthracene which is not a good news as this compound can irritate the skin. In fact,
280 prolonged or repeated contact can cause a skin rash, dryness, and redness, especially, when it is expose
281 to sunlight because it can greatly aggravate these effects. There are many other effects when the

282 human is exposed to this compound as well. It also need to be remember, that after usage of diaper,
283 it is through out and finish at landfill. There, DBA is released into the environment what is very danger
284 especially to the aquatic organisms as it may case long-term and toxic effects [22]. Moreover,
285 bioaccumulation of this compound may occur along the food chain, why it is strongly recommended
286 not to let the chemical enter into the environment.

287 Another compound which occurs in few samples at quite high concentration and is worth to notice, is
288 benzo[g,h,i]pyrelene what is obvious as this compound is used to make for example dyes and plastics.
289 Although, there is no much information available from studies on humans to tell what effects can result
290 from being exposed to [BgP] at certain level, by analogy to other PAHs, in particular benzo[a]pyrene,
291 it would be expected to be absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, lungs, and skin. When BgP was
292 administered together with [BaP] to the mice skin, an increased frequency of occurrence of skin
293 tumours was observed in comparison to the tumour incidence in mice exposed to BaP alone, what can
294 give a signal that possible cocarcinogenic activity of [BgP] can exist.

295 Although other compounds occur at lower concentration level in disposable baby diaper, it needs to
296 be notice, that contact with any PAHs is not good for little ones. The disposable baby diaper is changed
297 in cc. 3 hours or even more often if required. Over the course of two years each baby using disposable
298 diapers generates about 2000 pounds of harmful garbage. Please, realize how many toxic compounds
299 are realised into the environmental.

300 **4. Conclusion**

301 In today's world, the possibility of using disposable diapers is associated with a significant
302 improvement in family life. There is very little research into the content of xenobiotics in disposable
303 baby products such as diapers. Due to the presence of toxic compounds as a PAHs in diapers and their
304 possible negative effect on babies' health, it is necessary to control the content of individual
305 compounds in diapers. In a document issued by a European Chemical Agency (ECHA) on March 7, 2018,
306 it can be read that childcare articles the corresponding concentration limit is 0.5 mg/kg (0.00005%).
307 The proposed analytical method is a response to the lack
308 harmonized method for the determination of PAHs in childcare products in the European Union zone.
309 However, the available national or international methods can be used, but their regulation does not
310 cover the entire European zone. In the tested diapers, the concentrations of the selected 15 analytes
311 are significantly lower than the standards proposed by ECHA. However, this does not change the fact
312 that monitoring PAH levels is a key aspect as it is directly related to children's health as well as
313 environment.

314 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

317 **Acknowledgements**

318 The research is funded by the National Science Centre, Poland within the grant project (No.:
319 2020/37/B/ST4/02886).

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