

**The association of maternal age with fetal growth and newborn measures: the Mumbai Maternal Nutrition Project (MMNP)**

**Running head:** Association of maternal age with fetal biometry

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Young maternal age is associated with poorer birth outcomes, but, the  
3 mechanisms are incompletely understood. Using data from a prospective cohort of pregnant  
4 women living in Mumbai slums, India, we tested whether lower maternal age was associated  
5 with adverse fetal growth.

6 **Methods:** Fetal crown-rump length (CRL) was recorded at a median (IQR) of 10 weeks'  
7 gestation (9-10 weeks). Head circumference (HC), biparietal diameter (BPD), femur length  
8 (FL) and abdominal circumference (AC) were recorded at 19 (19-20) and 29 (28-30) weeks.  
9 Newborns were measured at a median (IQR) of 2 days (1-3 days) from delivery. Gestation was  
10 assessed using prospectively collected menstrual period dates.

11 **Results:** The sample comprised 1,653 singleton fetuses without major congenital  
12 abnormalities, of whom 1,360 had newborn measurements. Fetuses of younger mothers had  
13 smaller CRL (0.01SD per year of maternal age; 95%CI:<sup>1</sup>; p=0.04), and smaller HC, FL, and  
14 AC at subsequent visits. Fetal growth of HC (0.04cm; 95%CI:[0.02, 0.05]; p<0.001), BPD  
15 (0.01cm; 95%CI: [0.00, 0.01]; p=0.009), FL (0.04cm; 95%CI:[0.02, 0.06]; p<0.001) and AC  
16 (0.01cm; 95%CI:[0.00, 0.01]; p=0.003) up to the third trimester increased with maternal age.  
17 Skinfolds, head and mid-upper arm circumferences were smaller in newborns of younger  
18 mothers. Adjusting for maternal pre-pregnancy socio-economic status, BMI, height and parity  
19 attenuated the associations between maternal age and newborn size, but did not change those  
20 with fetal biometry.

21 **Conclusion:** Fetuses of younger mothers were smaller from the first trimester onwards, and  
22 grew slower, independently of known confounding factors.

23 **Keywords:** fetal biometry; ultrasound; maternal age; pregnancy; newborn; India

## 24 **Introduction**

25 Young ( $\leq 19$  years) and advanced ( $\geq 35$  years) maternal age during pregnancy has been linked  
26 to adverse fetal and birth outcomes. Young maternal age is associated with an increased risk  
27 of fetal growth restriction, pre-term delivery, low birth weight (LBW), small for gestational  
28 age (SGA) and neonatal mortality <sup>2-5</sup>. Advanced maternal age is associated with higher  
29 perinatal mortality, and an increased risk of intra-uterine growth restriction, LBW and pre-term  
30 delivery <sup>6-8</sup>. These associations are consistent, and, though incompletely understood, are  
31 thought to arise from biological and social factors. Many younger mothers are still growing,  
32 and their nutritional needs compete with those of the fetus <sup>3,9</sup>. Younger mothers are less likely  
33 to seek pre-natal care, and more likely to be primiparous and to be of lower socio-economic  
34 status <sup>3</sup>. Older mothers are at higher risk of gestational diabetes and pre-eclampsia <sup>6,10</sup> which  
35 can impair fetal development. In high income countries, older mothers tend to be better  
36 educated of higher socio-economic status and lower parity, whereas in low and middle income  
37 countries, older mothers are likely to have higher parity and live in a more deprived  
38 environment <sup>2</sup>.

39 Numerous studies have looked at the relationship between maternal age and pregnancy  
40 outcomes in both high and low-middle income countries. However, literature on associations  
41 of maternal age with fetal size and growth is scarce. Newborns can attain the same size/weight

42 via different fetal growth trajectories and it is important to understand how and when in  
43 gestation, maternal age may affect fetal growth.

44 We have used data from a group of women living in Mumbai, India, to: 1) assess associations  
45 of maternal age at conception with fetal size/growth and newborn measures 2) examine whether  
46 maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, height, parity, diet, tobacco use, weight gain in pregnancy and  
47 socio-economic status partially explained any associations. These women were taking part in  
48 a randomised controlled trial of a pre-conceptional nutritional intervention (a daily  
49 micronutrient-rich snack) which increased newborn birth weight when the mother was  
50 supplemented for  $\geq 3$  months before conception<sup>10</sup>, but had no effect on fetal size or growth<sup>12</sup>.

## 51 **Materials and Methods**

52 The data were collected as part of the Mumbai Maternal Nutrition Project (MMNP), a  
53 randomised controlled trial investigating the effect on newborn measures of a food-based  
54 micronutrient-rich supplement taken from before pregnancy until delivery. Enrolment in the  
55 trial took place between 2006 and 2012. Women living in slums covered by the health and  
56 social programs of the non-governmental organization the Centre for the Study of Social  
57 Change (CSSC) were eligible if they were aged  $< 40$ y, married, non-pregnant, not sterilised,  
58 planned to have children and to deliver in Mumbai. Women were randomised to receive either  
59 a daily micronutrient-rich snack containing green leafy vegetables, fruit and milk or a snack  
60 containing foods of low micronutrient content such as potato and onion, in addition to their  
61 normal diet. Further information on the trial can be found elsewhere<sup>10</sup>. We have previously  
62 shown that the intervention increased birth weight and other 'soft tissue' measurement  
63 (skinfolds and abdominal, mid-upper arm and chest circumference) in the newborns of mothers

64 supplemented for  $\geq 3$  months before pregnancy<sup>10</sup>, but there were no differences in fetal  
65 measurements between intervention and control groups<sup>12</sup>.

#### 66 *Data collection*

67 Health workers made home visits to explain the trial, and community meetings were held to  
68 answer questions and obtain consent. Women were screened for eligibility and individual  
69 written informed consent was obtained. At recruitment, weight and height were measured and  
70 information on women's occupation, education, parity and tobacco use (both in chewed and  
71 smoked form) were recorded. Women's socio-economic status was assessed using the Standard  
72 of Living Index (SLI) which is based on housing type, utilities and household possessions<sup>13</sup>.  
73 A higher SLI score indicates a higher socio-economic status. Diet was assessed at recruitment  
74 and in the second trimester of pregnancy using a food frequency questionnaire<sup>14</sup>.

75 The snacks were prepared fresh daily, were provided 6 days per week, and staff at the  
76 supplementation centres observed and recorded their intake. Centre staff also recorded the  
77 women's serial menstrual period dates. Women who missed two periods had a urinary  
78 pregnancy test, and if it was positive, were invited to a central clinic at CSSC at 9-12 weeks  
79 gestation for an obstetric assessment. Supplementation continued throughout pregnancy.

80 Fetal biometry was determined by ultrasound (Siemens Sonoline ADARA with a 4MHz probe)  
81 at three time points during pregnancy corresponding to 9-12, 19-21 and 28-32 weeks gestation  
82 respectively. Measurements were performed by a single operator (AL) using standard  
83 techniques<sup>15</sup>. At visit 1, crown-rump length (CRL) was measured. If women attended late ( $\geq 13$   
84 weeks gestation), fetal head circumference (HC), biparietal diameter (BPD), femur length (FL)  
85 and abdominal circumference (AC) were recorded instead. HC, BPD, FL and AC were assessed  
86 at the two subsequent visits. HC was calculated using the longest and shortest axes of the fetal  
87 head, measured from the outer to outer surfaces of the skull. BPD was measured from outer to

88 inner surfaces of the skull. FL was measured along the long axis of the femur without the distal  
89 femoral epiphysis. AC was estimated using the anteroposterior and the transverse diameters <sup>15</sup>,  
90 after ensuring that the stomach bubble was visible, the abdomen filled at least 30% of the  
91 monitor screen, and neither the kidneys or the bladder were visible <sup>16</sup>. At each examination HC,  
92 BPD and FL were measured once, while AC was taken in triplicate and the best or the average  
93 of the three measures, assessed by the operator, was used in the analysis <sup>12</sup>. At visit 2 and 3,  
94 using one of the Hadlock's formulae <sup>17</sup>, we computed the estimated fetal weight (EFW) as  $\log_{10}$   
95  $(EFW) = 1.326 - 0.00326 \times AC \times FL + 0.0107 \times HC + 0.0438 \times AC + 0.158 \times FL$ .

96 For the purpose of this study, in which we wanted to detect possible relationships between  
97 maternal age and fetal size, even in the early stages of pregnancy, we based gestational age on  
98 last menstrual period (LMP) date rather than deriving gestational age from a size measurement  
99 using the ultrasound data. Throughout the trial, health workers maintained a record of the  
100 women's LMP dates, and updated this every month.

101 Newborns were measured within 10 days after birth using standardised techniques. Trained  
102 research nurses measured weight and length, head, mid-upper arm, chest and abdomen  
103 circumference and triceps and subscapular skinfolds <sup>10</sup>. For each newborn, weight and length  
104 were measured once, while circumferences and skinfolds were taken in triplicate and averaged.  
105 Gestation was assessed using prospectively collected menstrual period date. Preterm birth was  
106 defined as gestational age <37 weeks, and SGA as birthweight below the age-and-sex-specific  
107 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of the INTERGROWTH 21<sup>st</sup> standards <sup>18</sup>. Complete information on data  
108 collection can be found elsewhere <sup>10</sup>.

### 109 *Exposures and outcomes*

110 The primary exposure was maternal age at conception. This was calculated as the difference  
111 between the woman's date of birth and LMP date. Primary outcomes for the current analysis

112 were fetal size/growth at different stages of pregnancy and newborn measures. Secondary  
113 outcomes were gestational age, and risk of pre-term and SGA birth. We included tobacco use,  
114 weekly intakes of milk and green leafy vegetables in pregnancy, SLI score, maternal pre-  
115 pregnancy BMI, height and parity as covariates in the model; however, some of those variables  
116 could be potential mediators. For women with recorded weight during pregnancy, we further  
117 looked at whether gestational weight gain explained the associations between maternal age and  
118 fetal and newborn measures, by considering weight gain in early pregnancy (difference  
119 between weight at the first visit and at registration) and weight gain between first and third  
120 visits.

### 121 *Analysis Sample*

122 A total of 6,513 women were recruited. Initially, pregnancies were followed up only if the  
123 women started supplementation at least three months prior to their LMP date. However, the  
124 exclusion of women who conceived within three months of starting supplementation caused  
125 disappointment in the community, and from December 2008 we included all pregnancies. In  
126 total 2,291 women became pregnant. Pregnancies resulting in abortions, terminations,  
127 stillbirths and maternal deaths (n=269), and those with no information on delivery outcome  
128 (n=22) were excluded. We excluded twins (n=26), fetuses with major congenital abnormalities  
129 (n=12), and those of unknown sex (n=41). It is illegal in India to determine the sex of the fetus  
130 on ultrasound, and these were cases where the mother had one or more ultrasound scans, but  
131 was then lost to follow-up, and newborn sex was not ascertained.

132 To examine the associations with fetal size/growth we excluded pregnancies with missing  
133 maternal LMP (n=69). At visit 1, women for whom the LMP-derived gestation differed by  
134 more than one week from the gestation estimated from an early (<20 weeks) ultrasound scan  
135 (n=246) were excluded as the former was likely to be inaccurate. At visits 2 and 3, we excluded

136 women whose difference between first trimester LMP-derived gestational age and ultrasound-  
137 derived gestational age was greater than 2 weeks (n=197). Two pre-term babies whose  
138 gestational-age-adjusted fetal measures, at each scan, were >3 standard deviations higher than  
139 the population mean were excluded because, given their available fetal biometric parameters,  
140 their LMP date was likely to be wrong (Figure 1).

141 Newborn measures were excluded from the analysis only if the baby was measured more than  
142 10 days after birth (n=6). Exclusions based on LMP date were not employed. This led to a  
143 sample of 1,360 newborns (Figure 1).

#### 144 *Statistical Methods*

145 Maternal age was used as a continuous variable in all models and as a categorical variable for  
146 Figure 2. To account for differences in fetal size between sexes, and for varying gestational  
147 ages at each visit, we transformed fetal ultrasound measures into internal sex-and-gestational-  
148 age-adjusted z-scores using the LMS method<sup>19</sup>. CRL was analysed in the complete sample and  
149 also in a subgroup of women with regular menstrual cycle length (defined as within 28±4 days  
150 <sup>5</sup>). To account for different timing of ovulation, median cycle length was added as a possible  
151 covariate in the subgroup analysis<sup>5</sup>. Birth measures were converted into z-scores after  
152 adjusting for sex and gestational age at delivery. We examined differences in baseline  
153 measurements between age groups using Chi-squared tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and  
154 Kruskal-Wallis tests for categorical, normally and non-normally distributed continuous  
155 variables, respectively. We inspected possible differences in weekly intakes of green leafy  
156 vegetables, milk and fruit before and during pregnancy using Wilcoxon signed-rank test. We  
157 compared the fetal size at each visit with the median INTERGROWTH 21<sup>st</sup> standards<sup>20</sup> using  
158 multiple Mann-Whitney tests.



159 To analyse associations between maternal age and continuous and binary measures of fetal size  
160 and birth outcomes, we used a series of linear or logistic regression models as appropriate.  
161 First, we adjusted for allocation group only (model 1); then, we adjusted for potential  
162 confounders, including tobacco use and weekly intakes of green leafy vegetables and milk in  
163 pregnancy, SLI score, parity, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and height (model 2). Women's  
164 fruit intakes in pregnancy, occupation and education were initially considered as possible  
165 confounders; however, as they did not modify the observed associations, or improve the  
166 models' goodness of fit, we did not include them in the analyses presented.

167 Considering the subset of women whose weight in pregnancy was recorded, we used model 3,  
168 further adjusted for weight gain during pregnancy, to study the effect of gestational weight gain  
169 on the associations between maternal age and fetal and newborn size.

170 Associations between maternal age and fetal growth up to the third trimester were analysed  
171 using mixed effects models to account for the correlation between repeated observations in the  
172 same fetuses, and for the possibility of a non-linear association between fetal growth and  
173 gestational age. First, we implemented four models (one for each fetal biometry measured  
174 longitudinally) where the raw fetal sizes recorded at different trimesters were included as  
175 outcome, and maternal age, gestational age and sex as predictors, Afterwards, we carried out a  
176 series of models with adjustment similar to those used for analysing the associations of  
177 maternal age with fetal and newborn size. To relax the assumptions on the trend between fetal  
178 outcomes and gestational age, and to account for the small number of women in the younger  
179 age group, we tested the same associations using restricted cubic splines with knots fixed at  
180 percentiles of unique ages. However, as the results of the cubic splines were similar to those of  
181 the linear mixed model, only the latter is presented. Results were considered statistically  
182 significant when  $P < 0.05$ . The analyses were performed using R V.3.4.1<sup>21</sup> and Stata V.14 (Stata  
183 Corporation, College Station, TX).

## 184 *Ethics*

185 The trial (ISRCTN62811278) was granted ethics permission by the committees of BYL Nair  
186 and TN Medical College, Grant Medical College, and Sir JJ Group of Hospitals, Mumbai, and  
187 by the ethics committees of the Hampshire and Isle of Wight Strategic Health authority. An  
188 independent data-monitoring committee reviewed the data every 6 months for 2 years and then  
189 annually. The trial protocol can be obtained from the corresponding author.

## 190 **Results**

191 The median age at conception was 25 years (IQR: 22–28 years, range: 16–37 years). Younger  
192 women were lighter, had lower BMI, socio-economic status, educational attainment, and were  
193 less likely to be in paid work (Table 1). At recruitment, they had lower weekly intakes of milk  
194 and fruit.. The percentage of underweight ( $BMI \leq 18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) women decreased with age:  
195 dropping from 42% in the youngest mothers, to 24% in the oldest group. The percentage of  
196 overweight and obese ( $BMI > 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ) women rose from 5% in the youngest mothers to 22%  
197 in those aged 30 and more. Percentages of Muslims and Hindi speakers were highest among  
198 women who were  $\leq 19$ , and decreased with age. Younger mothers gained, on average, less  
199 weight in early pregnancy, and more weight between the first and third trimesters (Table 1).

## 200 *Fetal size and growth*

201 The median (IQR) gestational age at each examination was 10 (9–12), 19 (19–20) and 29 (28–  
202 30) weeks respectively. Fetal ultrasound measures at each visit are reported in Table 2.  
203 Compared with the median INTERGROWTH-21<sup>st</sup> standard, fetuses had significantly smaller  
204 CRL at visit 1, and head and abdominal circumferences at visit 3 (Table 2).

205 Fetuses of younger mothers were smaller at the first and second visits (all measures), and had  
206 smaller HC, FL, AC and EFW at visit 3 (Table 2, Figure 2). Median (IQR) CRL at visit 1 was

207 2.7 cm (2.2, 3.6 cm) in fetuses of mothers  $\leq 22$  years, compared with 3.1 cm (2.4, 3.9 cm) in  
208 fetuses of mothers  $\geq 27$  years. Equivalent data for HC and AC at visit 3 were 27.9cm (27,  
209 28.8cm) compared with 28 cm (27.1, 28.8 cm), 23.8 cm (22.7, 25 cm) compared with 24.1 cm  
210 (22.9, 25.2 cm). Adjusting for possible confounders had little effect on these associations.  
211 Maternal age was positively associated with all the longitudinally measured fetal biometry and  
212 estimated fetal weight until the third trimester of pregnancy (Table 3). Adjusting for possible  
213 confounders did not change these associations.

214 Among 969 fetuses with recorded measures of CRL at visit 1, 692 (71%) were of mothers with  
215 regular menstrual cycle length. Women with regular menstrual cycle length were older , but  
216 had similar BMI, SLI score, parity and educational attainment to women with irregular cycles.  
217 Associations between maternal age and CRL were similar to those found in the whole sample  
218 (results not shown).

#### 219 *Pregnancy outcomes and newborn measures*

220 Among the 1,360 newborns, 736 (54%) were male. The median gestational age at delivery was  
221 39 weeks (IQR: 38–40 weeks). Of those newborns with known gestational age at birth (n =  
222 1,327), 729 (55%) were SGA and 291 were preterm (22%). Maternal age showed an inverted  
223 U-shaped relation with gestational age at birth (P = 0.002). Gestational age was lower in women  
224 who were  $\leq 19$  (median: 39 weeks; IQR: 38–40 weeks), increased in women until the age of 25  
225 (39 weeks; 39–40 weeks), and decreased at higher ages (39 weeks; 37–39 weeks in women  
226  $\geq 35$  years). The odds of pre-term delivery increased with maternal age (Table 4). Adjustments  
227 for possible confounders did not attenuate the associations. The odds of being SGA decreased  
228 with maternal age; however, once SLI score, pre-pregnancy BMI, height and parity were  
229 included in the model, the association became non significant (Table 4).

230 There were positive associations between maternal age and newborn head and mid-upper arm  
231 circumferences, triceps and subscapular skinfolds. There was a positive association, of  
232 borderline significance, between maternal age and birth weight. Adjusting for tobacco use,  
233 green leafy vegetables and milk intakes did not influence any of the associations. After  
234 adjustments for either parity or pre-pregnancy BMI, all were non-significant. Maternal age was  
235 not associated with the other birth measures.

## 236 **Discussion**

### 237 *Main Findings*

238 Among women living in slums in the city of Mumbai, India, and taking part in a randomised  
239 controlled nutrition trial, there were marked trends with age in baseline (pre-pregnancy)  
240 maternal body measurements, parity and socio-economic status. Younger women were lighter  
241 and thinner, and had lower parity, educational attainment and socio-economic status. Maternal  
242 age was related to fetal size throughout pregnancy up to the time of the last scan. Fetuses of  
243 younger mothers were smaller in all measurement from the first to the third trimesters. Skinfold  
244 measurements, and head and mid-upper arm circumferences were smaller in newborns of  
245 younger mothers, and the prevalence of SGA babies was higher. Tobacco use, intakes during  
246 pregnancy of green leafy vegetables and milk, parity, pre-pregnancy BMI, height and weight  
247 gain in pregnancy did not influence the associations between maternal age and fetal size/growth  
248 suggesting the possible effect of other factors not captured by these variables. However, the  
249 associations between maternal age and newborn measures were attenuated by adjusting for  
250 parity, pre-pregnancy BMI and height.

### 251 *Strengths and limitations*

252 Strengths of the study were that menstrual period dates were frequently monitored, and  
253 additional inclusion criteria were placed on the LMP dates to maximise the accuracy of  
254 gestational ages. The estimation of gestational age using the LMP allowed the detection of  
255 possible differences in fetal size due to maternal characteristics in early pregnancy. All  
256 ultrasound measurements were made by a single experienced sonologist, reducing “noise” due  
257 to inter-observer variability. A limitation was that there were relatively small numbers of  
258 women in the extreme age groups; the legal age at marriage in India is 18 years, and only  
259 married women were recruited in the study, so there were few young adolescents. Information  
260 on age at menarche was not collected, and so we were not able to study the effects of  
261 gynaecological age on fetal and newborn measures. The scheduling of the last scan meant that  
262 we could not fully assess associations between maternal age and fetal biometry in the last  
263 trimester of pregnancy. The findings in this undernourished population may not be  
264 generalizable.

#### 265 *Interpretation*

266 We were not able to assess growth directly in the first two trimesters of pregnancy, because of  
267 differences in the type of measurements, but smaller CRL at visit 1 (gestational age range 5 –  
268 13 weeks) in younger mothers suggests slower growth in early gestation. While many studies  
269 have related maternal age to birth outcomes, few have examined maternal age as a predictor of  
270 early fetal size. However, two previous studies have, like us, shown a positive relationship  
271 between maternal age and CRL<sup>5,22</sup>. The Generation R study in the Netherlands reported a lower  
272 degree of tracking of estimated fetal weight (lower correlation coefficients for the association  
273 between fetal weight in the second trimester and birth weight) in younger mothers<sup>23</sup>, but no  
274 studies, to our knowledge, have reported associations between maternal age and individual  
275 measures of fetal size and growth in different stages of pregnancy. There were significant  
276 trends with maternal age for HC, with fetuses and newborns of younger mothers having smaller

277 HC. Because HC is a proxy for brain growth, these associations suggest reduced brain growth  
278 in fetuses of younger mothers. The differences in fetal size and growth between younger and  
279 older mothers were small, and we do not know whether they are important in terms of later  
280 health and function. Lower maternal age has been associated with poorer educational  
281 attainment in children, which has been attributed to poorer parenting and nurturing skills  
282 among younger mothers <sup>2</sup>. Our findings suggest that there may be effects of maternal age on  
283 fetal neurodevelopment, which bear further investigation.

284 We do not know the mechanisms for different fetal growth patterns in younger and older  
285 women. We speculate that lower fetal growth in younger mothers may reflect less effective  
286 nutrient partitioning or transfer of nutrients to the fetus. For example, amino acid kinetics  
287 studies suggest that adolescents may be less able than older women to increase their circulating  
288 amino acid concentration through synthesis and/or protein breakdown in response to pregnancy  
289 <sup>24,25</sup>. This could reduce the availability of the amino acids to the fetus, especially in late  
290 pregnancy when requirements are greatest to support rapid fetal growth. This mechanism does  
291 not explain the findings in early pregnancy when fetal nutrient requirements are small. We do  
292 not know the consequences, if any, of the maternal age-related differences in fetal growth  
293 patterns for fetal development and later health. It has been suggested that fetuses respond  
294 differently to undernutrition at different stages of gestation. Depending on the timing,  
295 undernutrition can alter fetal growth patterns and specific tissues whose most rapid  
296 development coincides with undernutrition <sup>26</sup>. A study of adult sheep has shown that a limited  
297 period of periconceptual undernutrition alters adult body composition and organ weights <sup>27</sup>.  
298 A similar study has shown that undernutrition immediately before or after conception resulted  
299 in initial slowing of fetal growth, followed by faster growth in late gestation, and was  
300 associated with differences in cardiac weight and hind-limb length at delivery <sup>28</sup>. Following the

301 children born during the Mumbai trial will represent an opportunity to understand the long term  
302 effects of different fetal growth trajectories in humans.

303 In contrast with previous studies in high and low-middle income countries <sup>2,4</sup>, maternal age  
304 was not associated with newborn weight. This could be explained by a lack of power due to  
305 relatively small numbers of adolescent pregnancies ( $\leq 19$  y) or women of advanced age ( $\geq 35$   
306 y).

### 307 *Conclusion*

308 Overall, mothers had fetuses that were smaller from 9-12 weeks gestation until 28–32 weeks.  
309 These differences were small and are unlikely to influence clinical practice, but they are  
310 consistent and represent new information about the biology of early development. Further  
311 studies of the effect of maternal age on fetal growth, and of the relationship of different fetal  
312 growth trajectories to childhood and later outcomes are needed in other populations.

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**Figure Legend:**

**Figure 1:** Flowchart of the participants. CRL, crown rump length

**Figure 2:** Plots of HC, BPD, AC and FL according to gestational age (weeks) and lowest and highest tertiles of maternal age at conception.

The continuous line represents the mean growth trend of fetuses whose mothers were in the lowest tertile of maternal age (age 22 or less), while the dashed line summarises the mean growth trend of fetuses of mothers who are in the upper tertile of maternal age (age 27 and more). HC, head circumference. BPD, biparietal diameter. FL, femur length. AC abdominal circumference.