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Prenatal Exposure to Polychlorinated Biphenyls and Fetal Growth in British Girls

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Key words: polychlorinated biphenyls, endocrine disrupting chemicals, pregnancy, birthweight

1 **Abstract**

2 Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are synthetic chemicals that bioaccumulate in the food chain.
3 PCBs were used primarily for industrial applications due to their insulating and fire retardant properties,
4 but were banned in the 1970s in the United States and in the 1980s in the United Kingdom, as adverse
5 health effects following exposure were identified. Previous studies of populations with high PCB
6 exposure have reported inverse associations with birth weight and gestational length. Birth weight is a
7 powerful predictor of infant survival, and low birth weight can predispose infants to chronic conditions
8 in adult life such as diabetes and cardiovascular diseases.

9 Using data from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children, we investigated the
10 association between prenatal exposure to PCBs and fetal growth in a sample of 448 mother-daughter
11 dyads. Concentrations of three common PCB analytes, PCB-118, PCB-153 and PCB-187, were measured
12 in maternal serum collected during pregnancy, and fetal growth was measured by birth weight and birth
13 length. Multivariable linear regression was used to examine the associations between PCB analytes and
14 measures of fetal growth, after adjusting for parity, maternal age, pre-pregnancy BMI, educational
15 status, tobacco use and gestational age of infant at sample collection. Birth length, ponderal index and
16 gestational age were not associated with any of the PCB analytes. Mothers' educational status modified
17 associations for PCB analytes with birthweight. We observed significant inverse associations with birth
18 weight only among daughters of mothers with less education. Daughter's birth weight was 138.4g lower
19 (95% CI: -218.0, —58.9) for each 10ng/g lipid increase in maternal serum PCB-118. Similarly, every
20 10ng/g lipid increase in maternal serum PCB-153 was associated with a 41.9g (95% CI: -71.6, -12.2)
21 lower birth weight. Every 10ng/g lipids increase in maternal serum PCB-187, was associated with a -
22 170.4g (95% CI: -306.1, -34.7) lower birth weight, among girls with mothers in the lowest education
23 group.

24 Our findings suggest that prenatal exposure to PCBs is inversely associated with daughters' birth
25 weight and that mothers' education, which is a possible marker for socioeconomic status, significantly
26 modified the association between maternal PCB concentrations and birth weight in female newborns.

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are a family of synthetic organic chemicals, comprising 209
30 chemically related compounds that were used between 1930 and 1977 for various industrial
31 applications because of their insulating and fire-retardant properties (1). PCBs were banned in the
32 1970s in the United States and in the 1980s in the United Kingdom, as adverse health effects following
33 exposure were identified. PCBs are biphenyls with between one and ten chlorine atoms attached, and
34 the degree of chlorination determines the stability and lipophilicity of the specific PCB analyte (2). PCBs
35 with lower degrees of chlorination tend to be more rapidly excreted from the body, while more
36 chlorinated PCB compounds (e.g., PCB 153) are retained for a longer period of time, many with
37 biological half-lives in the order of years (3, 4). There are no known natural sources of PCBs (5) and once
38 PCBs are released into the environment, they do not readily break down and can easily cycle between
39 air, water and soil. Furthermore, they can be carried long distances and have been found in areas of
40 snow and sea water far from the original release site (3).

41 The most common sources of environmental exposure to these substances are dairy products,
42 meat and especially fish (6). PCBs are stored mainly in human adipose tissue, and their poor metabolism
43 results in elimination half-lives of approximately 10-15 years (7, 8). Animal and human studies have
44 shown that PCBs cross the placenta (2) and the quantities of PCBs found in cord serum may be
45 considerable relative to the size of the developing fetus (9). Endocrine pathways that are important for
46 fetal development, such as thyroid hormone signaling, can be disrupted by PCBs, potentially leading to
47 decreased *in utero* growth (5).

48 Birth weight is one of the most, if not the most, powerful predictors of infant survival (10), with
49 low birth weight contributing to about 9.1 million infant deaths each year. Globally, 17% of total births
50 are to low birth weight newborns (10). Low birth weight in early childhood can be associated with
51 adiposity in adolescents and earlier pubertal maturation, and is a strong predictor of the development of
52 obesity, hypertension and cardiovascular disease in adults (11). Additionally, low birth weight is a
53 predictor for other adverse outcomes such as poor school performance, high blood pressure and
54 cardiovascular diseases (12-15). Therefore, it is important to determine whether prenatal PCB exposure
55 is associated with birth outcomes such as low birth weight. The objective of this study was to investigate
56 the association between prenatal exposure to PCBs and fetal growth in a well-characterized British
57 sample of mother-daughter dyads.

58

59 **2. Methods**

60 **2.1 Population**

61 The Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) is a prospective birth-cohort
62 study designed to evaluate the influences of genetic and environmental factors on health. During the
63 years 1990–1992, 14,541 pregnant women residing in Avon, Great Britain with an estimated delivery
64 date between April 1991 and December 1992 were enrolled in the study. These (initial) pregnancies
65 resulted in a total of 14,062 live births and 13,988 children alive at one year of age. An additional 713
66 eligible children were enrolled at approximately 7 years of age and their data are available for analyses
67 when including variables collected from the age of seven and later. Details of recruitment methods are
68 described in detail elsewhere (16, 17).

69 This study examined associations between maternal exposure to PCBs and fetal growth in girls
70 in an ancillary study designed to look at the association between maternal serum concentrations of
71 environmental exposures and daughter’s puberty characteristics (18). To be considered, girls had to

72 have at least two pubertal assessments to allow for classification of age at menarche. The ancillary study
73 included all girls with early menarche (<11.5 years; n=218) and a random sample of girls without early
74 menarche \geq 11.5 years (n=230)). Informed consent was provided at the time of enrollment by the
75 mothers. Human subjects' protection and ethical approval were provided by the ALSPAC Law and Ethics
76 Committee, the Local Research Ethics Committees, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
77 (CDC) Institutional Review Board. Please note that the study website contains details of all the data that
78 are available through a fully searchable data dictionary, [http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-](http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/data-dictionary)
79 [access/data-dictionary](http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/data-dictionary).

80 **2.2 Data Collection**

81 Outcomes of interest included birth weight (in grams), birth length (in centimeters), and
82 gestational age (in weeks) which were abstracted from medical records. Low birth weight was
83 considered <2500 grams. Ponderal index was calculated using the following formula: (weight in
84 grams/height in centimeters³) x 100 (19). Self-reported data on maternal prenatal characteristics and
85 behaviors were obtained from questionnaires completed during pregnancy. Data collection and
86 methods have been described in detail elsewhere (20).

87 **2.3 Laboratory Analyses**

88 Blood samples were collected during pregnancy, processed and serum was stored frozen at -
89 20°C. In 2008, samples were shipped to the National Center for Environmental Health's Division of
90 Laboratory Sciences, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention where PCB-118, PCB-153 and PCB-187
91 were measured by gas chromatography isotope dilution high resolution mass spectrometry (GC-
92 IDHRMS) (21). This analysis presents lipid-adjusted exposures and measurements recorded as 0 ng/g are
93 noted as <LOD.

94 **2.4 Statistical Analyses**

95 Pearson correlation coefficients were used to assess the relationship between PCB analytes.
96 Stratum-weighted linear models, which accounted for the nested case-control study design, were used
97 to estimate the association between individual PCB concentrations (PCB-118, PCB-153, and PCB-187)
98 and fetal growth markers (birth weight, birth length, gestational age, and ponderal index). To adjust for
99 the original selection criteria for the nested case-control study, cases (all girls who attained menarche
100 <11.5 years) and controls (girls who attained menarche \geq 11.5 years) were assigned weights of 1 and
101 15.1, respectively. Each PCB analyte was examined individually in a stratum-weighted model for each
102 birth outcome, and backwards elimination was used to identify potential covariates which appreciably
103 contributed to model fit or interpretation. . Covariates considered included previous births (0/ \geq 1),
104 maternal age (continuous), maternal race (white/non-white), pre-pregnancy BMI (continuous),
105 educational status (categorical), tobacco use (binary), and gestational age when maternal serum sample
106 was obtained (continuous). In this analysis, not attaining any General Certificates of Secondary Education
107 (GCSEs, at 16 years of age) was coded as “< O” (low) educational level, obtaining GCSEs as “O”
108 (medium) and completing GCSEs and/or vocational training with additional education (e.g., University or
109 Advanced) was considered “> O level” (high). After backwards elimination, the remaining covariates for
110 birth weight outcome included previous births, maternal BMI, race, education, tobacco use during
111 pregnancy and gestational ages at sample collection.. For birth length, the confounders included in the
112 model were parity and maternal BMI. The ponderal index model included the confounders, parity,
113 maternal BMI, and tobacco use during pregnancy. For gestational age at birth, the only confounder
114 remaining in the model was gestational age when serum sample was collected. Effect modification by
115 maternal smoking and maternal education was also examined by testing appropriate interaction terms
116 for statistical significance. SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC) was used to conduct all analyses.
117 All statistical tests were 2-tailed; a p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

118 Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the ALSPAC Ethics and Law Committee and the
119 Local Research Ethics Committees. The CDC Institutional Review Board also assessed and approved
120 human subjects' protection. Informed consent was provided by the mothers at the time of enrollment.
121

122 **3. Results**

123 More than half of the mothers were 29 years of age or younger at delivery and reported having
124 normal pre-pregnancy BMI. About half of the mothers had an educational level of less than or equal to O
125 level and most mothers were white (94%) (Table 1). The median gestational age at serum sample
126 collection was 15 weeks with an interquartile range of 10–28 weeks. Among 448 daughters included in
127 the study population, mean birth weight (\pm SD) was 3396.7 (\pm 498.7) g; birth length was 50.4 (\pm 2.2)cm;
128 ponderal index was 2.7 (\pm 0.2) kg/m³; and gestational age was 39.8 (\pm 1.6) weeks (data not presented).
129 Less than 4% of daughters were born preterm or weighed less than 2,500g.

130 PCB analytes were detected in greater than 98% of the samples tested. PCB-153 had the highest
131 median maternal serum concentrations followed by PCB-118 and PCB-187 (Table 1). Median (min-max)
132 concentration in maternal samples of PCB-153 was 64.5 (3.7-200.1) ng/g; PCB-118 was 14.9 (<LOD-90.9)
133 ng/g; and PCB-187 was 11.3 (<LOD-41.6) ng/g. Pearson correlation coefficients showed high levels of
134 correlation between PCB-118 and PCB-153 (r = 0.80) and PCB-118 and PCB-187 (r = 0.73), and a very high
135 level of correlation between PCB-153 and PCB-187 (r = 0.90).

136 Birth length, ponderal index and gestational age were not associated with any of the PCB
137 analytes in main effects' models (Table 2). There was significant effect modification between maternal
138 education and PCB analytes (PCB-118, PCB-153, and PCB-187) for birth weight; therefore, results for
139 birth weight were stratified by maternal education (Table 3). For all three analytes, we observed
140 significant inverse associations with birth weight only among daughters of mothers with less than O-
141 level (low) education. Daughter's birth weight was 138.4g lower (95% CI: -218.0, -58.9) for each 10ng/g

142 lipid increase in maternal serum PCB-118. Similarly, every 10ng/g lipids increase in maternal serum PCB-
143 153 was associated with a 41.9g (95% CI: -71.6, -12.2) lower birth weight. Every 10ng/g lipids increase in
144 maternal serum PCB-187, was associated with a 170.4g (95% CI: -306.1,-34.7) lower birth weight (Table
145 3), among girls with mothers in the lowest education group.

146

147 **4. Discussion**

148 In this analysis, we explored the associations between prenatal exposure to PCB-118, PCB-153
149 and PCB-187 and fetal growth markers; birth weight, birth length, ponderal index, and gestational age.
150 Our findings suggest that prenatal exposure to PCBs is inversely associated with birth weight and that
151 mother's education significantly modified the association between maternal PCB concentrations and
152 birth weight in female newborns. Educational status may be a marker for socioeconomic status in this
153 population; both education and socioeconomic status have positively associated with maternal diet
154 quality and food security (22). This could in part contribute to the differences that we observed by
155 mother's education.

156 Evidence from previous studies suggests prenatal exposure to PCBs has harmful effects on fetal
157 growth (2, 23, 24). A meta-analysis of 12 European cohorts including 7,990 mother-child dyads and a
158 pooled study of 9377 mother-child dyads from 11 European cohorts (15 studies) both observed inverse
159 associations between fetal PCB-153 exposure and birth weight (25, 26). Compared to the maternal
160 serum levels observed in other European studies, our median PCB-153 concentration (64.5 ng/g lipid),
161 while not the lowest observed, does fall in the lower half of overall results (range of median PCB-153
162 across European studies 15.3-394.4 ng/g lipid)(26) . In contrast, Longnecker et al., in the U.S.
163 Collaborative Perinatal Project of 1034 pregnant women enrolled between 1959-1965, found no
164 associations between birth weight or gestational age and serum concentrations of 11 PCB analytes
165 collected during the third trimester of pregnancy (27). Lignell et al., observed that breast milk

166 concentrations of PCB-138, PCB-153 and PCB-180 assessed within the first month post-delivery were
167 positively associated with birth weight in a sample of first-time mothers in Sweden (n=411) (28) with
168 stronger associations reported for males than females.

169 Inconsistent findings across studies may be related to multiple factors such as differences in
170 study design, population characteristics, sample sizes, timing or type of sample measured, and overall
171 distribution of exposure (e.g., low v. high). PCB levels measured in breast milk collected after birth may
172 not be representative of *in utero* exposure. Also, differences in the PCB analytes examined can lead to
173 varied findings since PCB analytes vary in their ability to bioaccumulate and in level of toxicity (27, 29).
174 PCBs with lower degrees of chlorination tend to be more rapidly excreted from the body; thus, may be
175 poorer biomarkers of long-term exposure.

176 Although the possible mechanism of PCBs on birth weight is not known, it could be related to
177 the endocrine-disrupting properties of PCBs (30). Estrogens promote fetal growth and PCBs have been
178 found to have both estrogenic and anti-estrogenic roles (31). In animal models, a growing body of
179 literature suggests that exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals can have a wide range of effects on
180 metabolism such altering insulin metabolism and disrupting energy balance (1, 32). For example,
181 PCB153 concentrations have been inversely associated with serum thyroxine levels in an animal model
182 (33).

183 Our analysis was conducted on a sample of mothers and their daughters chosen from a nested
184 case-control study for pubertal development. Although our results could be biased if the girls excluded
185 from the analysis were different from girls who were included in the analysis, it is unlikely since mean
186 values of maternal characteristics and fetal growth outcomes for the study sample are similar to those
187 of the group of girls enrolled in the full cohort (19). These analyses were performed on a sample of girls
188 because data on prenatal exposure to PCBs are not currently available for ALSPAC boys. It is unknown
189 whether these results can be extrapolated to males. Additionally, PCB measurements are only available

190 for a single time point during pregnancy and daughters' PCB concentrations measured at birth are not
191 available. The timing of specimen collection is important and in our analyses we controlled for
192 gestational age at sample collection, because evidence suggests that concentrations decline from
193 preconception to postnatally sensitive windows (34). Further analyses will explore the association
194 between prenatal PCB exposure and postnatal growth in girls at other time points. Lastly, there is the
195 possibility of residual confounding by unmeasured or poorly measured (e.g., maternal smoking)
196 covariates.

197

198 **5. Conclusions**

199 Our results are consistent with results from other studies that show an association between
200 higher prenatal PCB levels and lower birth weight (23, 25, 35). Birth weight is reflective of fetal
201 development from conception to birth, and low birth weight is associated with negative health
202 outcomes later in life. Pre-term or low birth weight infants are at a heightened risk for morbidities and
203 chronic conditions, including cardiovascular diseases and adverse behavioral, cognitive and psychiatric
204 outcomes (36). In our study, mother's education, a possible marker for socioeconomic status,
205 significantly modified the association between maternal PCB concentrations and birth weight in female
206 newborns. We observed significant inverse associations with birth weight only among daughters of
207 mothers with less education (lower socioeconomic status). This relationship has not previously been
208 identified and should be investigated in future research.

209

210 **Table 1:** Frequency distribution and lipid adjusted maternal serum concentrations (ng/g lipid) of selected
 211 polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) analytes in a sample of British girls (n=448).

	Frequency n (%)	PCB118 Median (min- max)	PCB153 Median (min-max)	PCB187 Median (min- max)
Overall	448 (100)	14.9 (<LOD ^a -90.9)	64.50 (3.70-200.10)	11.3 (<LOD-41.6)
Maternal pre-pregnancy BMI				
Underweight	18 (4.0)	14.2 (5.2-28.1)	79.7 (45.5-120.8)	14.0 (8.9-23.1)
Normal	290 (64.7)	15.2 (<LOD-52.4)	68.6 (3.7-184.7)	11.7 (<LOD-34.4)
Overweight	63 (14.1)	14.8 (5.7-58.6)	57.2 (25.1-152.9)	9.6 (<LOD-25.60)
Obese	31 (6.9)	18.1 (6.1-90.9)	57.3 (25.9-200.1)	9.6 (<LOD-41.60)
Missing	46 (10.3)	13.0(4.2-29.4)	58.7 (24.0-153.40)	10.4 (3.7-23.90)
Maternal age at delivery (years)				
<25	92 (20.5)	10.4 (4.2-34.20)	44.2 (22.10-141.10)	7.8 (<LOD-21.0)
25-29	164 (36.6)	14.5 (5.2-58.6)	59.8 (26.3-184.7)	10.3 (<LOD-34.4)
≥30	189 (42.2)	18.6 (<LOD-90.90)	81.9 (3.70-200.10)	14.5 (<LOD-41.6)
Missing	3 (0.7)	14.2 (10.9-19.2)	80.4 (63.4-94.0)	13.6 (11.2-23.1)
Maternal education^b				
< O level (low)	89 (19.9)	13.3 (2.0-90.9)	57.3 (3.7-200.1)	10.5 (<LOD-41.6)
O level (medium)	140 (31.3)	13.3 (5.20-37.40)	55.9 (25.9-154.9)	9.6 (<LOD-28.1)
> O level (high)	200 (44.6)	18.1 (<LOD-52.4)	74.4 (11.8-184.7)	13.0 (<LOD-34.4)
Missing	19 (4.2)	12.8(5.2-35.2)	62.9 (32.60-163.90)	11.6 (5.5-32.5)
Maternal race				
White	423 (94.4)	14.9 (<LOD-90.90)	64.8 (3.70-200.10)	11.2 (<LOD-41.6)
Nonwhite	8 (1.8)	19.5 (2.8-35.3)	67.7 (11.80-140.10)	14.8 (3.7-24.2)
Missing	17 (3.8)	12.5 (5.2-35.2)	58.5 (32.60-125.90)	10.3 (5.5-23.10)
Previous births				
0	208 (46.4)	15.5 (4.2-41.40)	63.9 (22.10-184.70)	10.9 (<LOD-34.4)
≥ 1	211 (47.1)	14.9 (<LOD-90.9)	66.9 (3.7-200.1)	11.9 (<LOD-41.6)
Missing	29 (6.5)	11.7 (5.2-35.2)	59.7 (28.1-110.4)	11.2 (5.2-24.0)
Tobacco use during first 3 months				
Yes	102 (22.8)	13.0 (4.2-51.0)	60.8 (24.0-153.4)	10.5 (4.6-29.0)
No	328 (73.2)	16.5 (<LOD-90.90)	67.8 (3.7-200.10)	11.6 (<LOD-41.60)
Missing	18 (4.0)	10.9 (5.2-21.3)	59.7 (28.1-94.0)	10.5 (5.2-23.1)
Low birth weight (<2500 g)				
Yes	17 (3.8)	20.7 (5.9-90.9)	74.4 (26.9-200.1)	13.0 (4.9-41.6)
No	423 (92.4)	14.7 (<LOD-58.6)	63.7 (3.7-184.7)	10.9 (<LOD-34.4)
Missing	8 (1.8)	15.3 (10.90-27.30)	75.5 (59.3-130.8)	13.9 (10.5-23.1)
Preterm delivery (<37 weeks)				
Yes	14 (3.1)	16.7 (7.6-35.2)	69.7 (37.8-125.9)	12.0 (6.6-27.0)
No	431 (96.2)	14.8 (<LOD-90.9)	63.6 (3.7-200.10)	11.2 (<LOD-41.6)
Missing	3 (0.7)	14.2 (10.9-19.2)	80.4 (63.4-94.0)	13.6 (11.2-23.1)
Menarche (years)				
< 11.5	218 (51.3)	15.2 (2.0-58.6)	62.1 (3.7-163.9)	10.9 (<LOD-32.5)
≥ 11.5	230 (48.7)	14.8 (<LOD-90.9)	68.2 (22.1-200.1)	11.5 (<LOD-41.6)

212 ^a <LOD= Below limit of detection

213 ^b O–level of education is the qualification obtained at 16 years of age when obligatory schooling ends.

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221 **Table 2.** Adjusted Regression coefficients (β)^a for associations between prenatal growth measures^b and maternal serum concentrations of PCB-
222 118, PCB-153, and PCB-187 in a sample of British girls.

	PCB-118	p-value	PCB-153	p-value	PCB-187	p-value
Birth length ^c(cm) (n=363)						
Unadjusted β (95% CI)	0.12 (-0.16, 0.41)	0.39	-0.04 (-0.12, 0.04)	0.30	-0.34 (-0.72, 0.05)	0.09
Multivariate β (95% CI)	0.08 (-0.21, 0.36)	0.60	-0.04 (-0.12, 0.04)	0.29	-0.33 (-0.73, 0.06)	0.10
Ponderal Index ^d(n=357)						
Unadjusted β (95% CI)	-0.03 (-0.06, 0.01)	0.10	-0.01 (-0.01, 0.00)	0.24	-0.02 (-0.07, 0.02)	0.30
Multivariate β (95% CI)	-0.03 (-0.06, 0.01)	0.10	0.00 (-0.01, 0.01)	0.97	0.00 (-0.04, 0.05)	0.91
Gestational age^e (wks) (n=444)						
Unadjusted β (95% CI)	0.02 (-0.15, 0.18)	0.85	-0.01 (-0.06, 0.04)	0.72	-0.12 (-0.37, 0.13)	0.35
Multivariate β (95% CI)	0.02 (-0.15, 0.18)	0.82	-0.01 (-0.06, 0.04)	0.80	-0.11 (-0.36, 0.14)	0.38

223 ^a per 10 unit (ng/g lipid) increase in analyte. In multivariate models maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, and gestational age at maternal sample
224 collection were entered as continuous variables (rather than categorical as presented in table 1).

225 ^b. For birthweight, significant interactions were observed with educational status; thus, final stratified results for birthweight are provided in
226 Table 3.

227 ^c Adjusted for sampling design, previous births and maternal pre-pregnancy BMI

228 ^dAdjusted for sampling design, previous births, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, maternal tobacco use during pregnancy

229 ^e Adjusted for sampling design, gestational age at maternal s sample collection

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Table 3. Regression coefficients (β)^{ab} for birth weight (g) and maternal serum concentration of PCB-118 , PCB-153, PCB-187 stratified by maternal education level (low, medium, high) in a sample of British girls

Education level	PCB-118 β (95% CI)	p-value	PCB-153 β (95% CI)	p-value	PCB-187 β (95% CI)	p-value
< O level (low) (n=89)	-138.43 (-218.0,-58.9)	0.0009	-41.90 (-71.63, -12.17)	0.0006	-170.40 (-306.10, -34.70)	0.01
O level (medium) (n=140)	-7.92 (118.3, 102.5)	0.89	0.51 (-30.77, 31.78)	0.97	8.30 (-151.16, 167.76)	0.92
> O level (high) (n=200)	-24.51 (-56.1, 105.1)	0.55	-2.43 (-24.38, 19.52)	0.83	-8.30 (-114.60, 97.99)	0.88

^a per 10 unit (ng/g lipid) increase in analyte. In multivariate models maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, and gestational age at sample collection age were entered as continuous variables (rather than categorical as presented in table 1). P-interactions = 0.02 (PCB-118); 0.02 (PCB-153); 0.03 (PCB-187)

^b adjusted for sampling design, previous births, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, maternal tobacco use during pregnancy, gestational age at sample collection and maternal race)

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243

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258 **Author Disclosure Statement**

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