



University of Groningen

Effects of perinatal PCB and dioxin exposure and early feeding mode on child development

Lanting, Caren Ingeborg

IMPORTANT NOTE: You are advised to consult the publisher's version (publisher's PDF) if you wish to cite from it. Please check the document version below.

Document Version Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Publication date: 1999

Link to publication in University of Groningen/UMCG research database

Citation for published version (APA): Lanting, C. I. (1999). Effects of perinatal PCB and dioxin exposure and early feeding mode on child development. s.n.

Copyright

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

The publication may also be distributed here under the terms of Article 25fa of the Dutch Copyright Act, indicated by the "Taverne" license. More information can be found on the University of Groningen website: https://www.rug.nl/library/open-access/self-archiving-pure/taverneamendment.

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Downloaded from the University of Groningen/UMCG research database (Pure): http://www.rug.nl/research/portal. For technical reasons the number of authors shown on this cover page is limited to 10 maximum.

Chapter 1

Introduction

In this section the general aspects of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and dioxins are discussed. In addition, the effects of chronic and acute exposure to these compounds that have been found in animals and humans are described, with special emphasis on the '*Dutch PCB/Dioxin-Breast Milk Study*'.

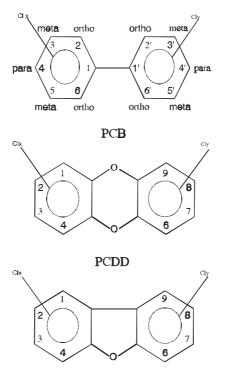
POLYCHLORINATED BIPHENYLS (PCBs) AND DIOXINS

The first finding of PCBs in environmental extracts was described in 1966¹. At present, PCBs and dioxins can be detected in almost every compound of the eco-system. PCB and dioxin levels in The Netherlands and other densely populated parts of Europe and the United States belong to the highest in the world, although comparison is difficult due to differences in analytical methods.

Chemical structure

PCBs and dioxins are polycyclic halogenated aromatics. The term dioxins refers to the group of polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and dibenzofurans (PCDFs). PCBs, PCDDs, and PCDFs are non-polar, lipophilic compounds². Their basic molecular structure is shown in <u>figure 1</u>. PCBs, PCDDs, and PCDFs have two connected benzene rings. In the case of PCDDs, the benzene rings are connected by two oxygen atoms, whereas in the PCDFs the benzene rings are connected by one oxygen atom. Hydrogen atoms attached to the carbon atoms may be substituted with a chlorine atom.

Differences in the chlorine-substitution pattern and the degree of halogenation lead to different compounds. There are 209 possible PCBs, 135 PCDFs, and 75 PCDDs. The individual PCB, PCDD, and PCDF isomers are generally referred to as congeners. A numbering system for PCB congeners was proposed by Ballschmitter and Zell in 1980³, which was later adopted by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC).



PCDF

Figure 1: Molecular structure of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), and polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs) and dibenzofurans (PCDFs).

Sources, environmental distribution, and disposition

Industrial production of PCBs started in 1930. The lower chlorinated PCBs appear as a clear and mobile oil, whereas the higher-chlorinated PCBs are white and solid. The technical mixtures have been marketed world-wide under trade names such as Aroclor (Monsanto Chemical Corporation, USA), Phenoclor (Prodelec, France), Kanechlor (Kanegafuchi Chemical Co., Japan), Soval (Sovol, Russia), and Delor (Chemko, Czechoslovakia)⁴. The high chemical stability and electrical resistance of PCBs, together with their low volatility and poor tendency to combustion, favoured wide-spread application in heavy-duty transformers and capacitators⁵. Other industrial uses are the formulation of hydraulic and heat-exchange fluids, incorporation into protective coatings for wood, metal, and concrete, usage

in plastics, printing inks, plasticiser, adhesives, and lubricating additives. In the late 1970s, in most Western countries, the production of PCBs was banned. In Western Europe and the United States, over 800 million tons of PCBs have been produced, and a large part has become distributed in the environment. Significant quantities are still being used in old transformers and capacitators.

Dioxins are unwanted byproducts of thermal processes and of chemical formulations. The following major categories of sources can be distinguished^{6, 7}: (1) Formation during incineration processes. This includes municipal waste combustion, scrap metal recycling, vehicle fuel combustion, cigarette smoking, and combustion of wood. (2) Formation as by-products in industrial processes, such as in the production of pesticides and in the pulp and paper industry. (3) Mobilization of dioxins from secondary sources, such as waste dumps and the application of sewage sludge for fertilization.

The predominant mode of environmental transport of PCBs and dioxins is the atmosphere⁵. They can be dispersed in the air either in vapour or in aerosol form, especially during inefficient incineration and during incineration of PCB-containing materials. Subsequently, the more highly chlorinated PCBs and dioxins, which are virtually insoluble, remain associated with the soil. The lower-chlorinated congeners have a small solubility in water. Traces of these substances leach out into the water, where they probably cling to the sediment and are washed down-stream.

Metabolism of PCBs and dioxins is very slow, and, therefore, these compounds bioaccumulate and biomagnify in the food chain. For example, in humans half-lives of 2,3,7,8 substituted PCDFs have been found to range from two to 10 years. Elimination of PCBs appeared to be somewhat faster (t½ between 1 and 5 years)⁸. In vivo, metabolism involves preferential hydroxylation at the lateral (2,3,7,8) position in case of dioxins, and on the para position when PCBs are concerned. The highly substituted isomers have been found to be more resistant to metabolism than the lower chlorinated congeners⁹. In abiotic samples, aerobic and anaerobic microbial degradation of these compounds have been reported from laboratory studies. In soil, degradation is insignificant, or at least extremely slow¹⁰.

Mechanism of action

The toxic effects of PCBs and dioxins have been shown to be mediated through binding to the cytosolic arylhydrocarbon (Ah) receptor¹¹. For PCDDs and PCDFs, the affinity for the Ah receptor increases when the congeners are substituted in all four lateral positions¹². Such congeners have a planar configuration. For example, 2,3,7,8 tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-

dioxin (TCDD) is the most toxic congener. PCBs which contain two para and at least two meta chlorine atoms (see <u>figure 1</u>), also referred to as the non-ortho or planar PCBs, resemble 2,3,7,8 TCDD most in their affinity for the Ah receptor. The addition of chlorine atoms on the ortho position reduces planarity and the affinity for the Ah receptor¹³. But, despite their low affinity for the Ah receptor, several important toxic responses have been found as a result of exposure to mono- and di-ortho PCB congeners, including neurotoxic¹⁴, carcinogenic¹⁵, and endocrinological changes¹⁶. The mechanism behind these effects remain unknown.

Based on the Ah receptor model, the toxic equivalency approach was developed. This concept makes it possible to express the toxicity of a complex mixture in biological samples by a single value. According to this concept, the PCDD-, the PCDF-, and the dioxin-like planar PCB congeners are assigned an toxic equivalent factor (TEF)^{17, 18} which refers to its relative toxicity towards 2,3,7,8 TCDD. In addition, for some mono-ortho (PCB 105, 114, 118, 123, 156, 157, 167, and 189) and di-ortho PCBs (PCB 170 and 180) a TEF was proposed at a World Health Organization-consultation meeting in Bilthoven, The Netherlands¹⁹. The toxic equivalency (TEQ) for each congener is calculated by the multiplication of the concentration of the congener with its assigned TEF. For the total PCB/dioxin TEQ, the congener-specific TEQs are added.

PCBs and dioxins in animals

The toxic effects elicited by PCB and dioxins on diverse animal systems have been described in numerous review articles^{4, 20-26}. The effects of exposure to PCBs and dioxins are summarized in <u>table 1</u>. In addition to variations in species sensitivity, the effects seem to be sex, strain, and age dependent.

PCBs and dioxins in humans

Human populations have been exposed to PCBs and dioxins via three major pathways, i.e. accidental, occupational, and environmental. As compared to the latter category, levels of exposure in the first two groups are significantly higher. PCBs and dioxins can be found in all compartments of the human body, including adipose tissue and blood lipids²⁷. PCBs and dioxins pass the placenta^{28, 29}, and they are transferred into human breast milk fat^{27, 28, 30}.

4

Table 1: Toxic effects due to exposure to chronic and acute PCBs and dioxins in laboratory animals.

Effect	Description	
Wasting	Progressive weight loss	
Dermal lesions and acne	Hyperplasia, hyperkeratosis, hyperpigmentation, alopecia, folliculitis, chloracne	
Neurotoxicity	Impaired avoidance response, alterations in neurotransmitter levels, neurobehavioural problems, deficits in cognitive ability	
Immunotoxicity	Atrophy of lymphoid tissues, decreased immunocompetence, decrease in number of circulating leucocytes and lymphocytes and suppression of antibody response	
Hepatotoxicity	Hepatomegaly, hepatonecrosis	
Reproductive and hormonal effects	Impaired ability to maintain pregnancy, prolonged menstrual cycles, reduction in the number of live births, decrease in survival and mating successes, decreased weight of the uterus, thyroid effects	
Mutagenic and carcinogenic effects	Hepatocellular carcinomas	
Metabolism	Induction of the hepatic microsomal mixed function oxidase system (cytochrome P450), effects on lipid metabolism	
Other effects	Porphyria, reduced vitamin A storage, vitamin K deficiency	

Three general populations, that have accidentally been poisoned with PCDDs and PCDFs exist. The first incident took place in Japan in 1968 in which 1700 persons were affected. This incident was called 'Yusho'. In that event, cooking oil was contaminated with a complex mixture of PCBs, dibenzofurans, and quaterphenyls³¹. A similar incident occurred in Taiwan in 1979, with more than 2000 victims. This was called 'Yu-cheng' (oil disease)³². The clinical manifestations of chronic poisoning consisted of acneiform eruptions, hyperpigmentation, peripheral neuropathy, abdominal pain and, deformation of the nails. Because these chemicals persist in

human tissue, and because they pass the placenta the offspring of female patients was exposed in utero. The exposed children tended to have a low birthweight³³ and more frequently showed dystrophic finger-nails and pigmented or dystrophic toe-nails than did controls. These babies also had an increased rate of hyperpigmentation and acne, and a higher rate of generalized itching, localized skin infections and hair loss³⁴. In addition, neonatal conjunctival hypersecretion and jaundice occurred more frequently³⁵. At follow-up, the exposed children showed a delay in growth³³, cognitive^{36, 37} and motor development³⁸. Another population that has overtly been exposed to these classes of compounds is that in and around Seveso (Italy). In 1976, the Seveso population was exposed to 2,3,7,8 TCDD as a result of an accidental release from a 2,4,5-trichlorophenol-manufacturing plant. The main route of exposure to the nearby residents was inhalation of and dermal contact with the contaminated fall-out and ingestion of contaminated food products.

The effects of high levels of exposure can also be studied in the workers employed in, for example, industries manufacturing PCBs or PCB-containing products. Exposure takes place mainly via skin absorption or inhalation.

The major route of environmental exposure (>90%) is the consumption of contaminated food³⁹⁻⁴², from which almost complete absorption takes place⁴³. In The Netherlands, dairy products accounted for half and industrial oils (a mixture of animal and vegetable oils in e.g. savory snacks, sauces, pastry, and biscuits) accounted for a quarter of the PCB and dioxin intake⁴⁴. In other regions, contaminated fish is an important source of exposure^{45, 46}. The developmental effects of environmental exposure to PCBs are studied in two prospective longitudinal US studies; one in Michigan, and one in North-Carolina study. The effects of perinatal PCB- and dioxin exposure on child development was investigated in The Netherlands (the '*Dutch PCB/Dioxin-Breast Milk Study*').

The Michigan and North-Carolina studies

The Michigan cohort involved 313 mothers and their newborn infants delivered at four hospitals in western Michigan; 242 of the mothers had consumed Lake Michigan fish which is contaminated with PCBs⁴⁷. About 90 percent of the 'Michigan children' were breast-fed. The North-Carolina cohort consisted of 912 mother/infant pairs that were drawn from the general population^{48, 49}. Sixty-one percent of the mothers enroled in the North-Carolina cohort breast-fed their infant. In both studies, prenatal exposure was established on the basis of maternal serum samples collected following delivery. Based on the methodology available when

these studies were initiated, a majority of the cord serum PCB concentrations were below laboratory detection limits. Postnatal exposure was assessed in terms of PCB levels in breast milk fat and the duration of nursing. In addition, in Michigan, serum samples from 285 4-year-old children were obtained⁵⁰.

Both in the Michigan and the North-Carolina study, the neonatal behavioral performance in relation to PCB exposure was assessed by means of the Brazelton Neonatal Behavioral Assessment Scale⁵¹. In Michigan, Jacobson and co-workers found a negative relationship between Lake Michigan fish consumption and the performance on three clusters of the Brazelton Scale: autonomic maturity, reflexes, and range of state⁵². Rogan *et al.*, in North-Carolina, found that higher PCB levels were associated with hypotonicity and hyporeflexia⁵³.

In Michigan, 123 infants were administered Fagan's test of visual recognition at 7 months of age. Both cord serum PCB level and maternal report of contaminated fish consumption predicted less preference for a novel stimulus⁵⁴. Postnatal exposure from nursing was not related to visual recognition memory. At 4 years of age, prenatal exposure was found to be associated with poorer short-term memory function on both verbal and quantitative tests which are part of the McCarthy Scales⁵⁵. At this age, prenatal exposure also was associated with lower body weight⁵⁶. The child's contemporary body burden, assessed by 4-year serum PCB levels, was associated with reduced behavioral activity at four years of age⁵⁶. Recently it was found that prenatal exposure (assessed by the average of the detectable PCB values from cord and maternal serum and maternal milk) to PCBs was associated with lower full-scale and verbal IQ at 11 years of age⁵⁷.

In North-Carolina, a relationship between prenatal PCB exposure and poorer psychomotor performance on the Bayley Scales at 6, 12, and 24 months was found^{58, 59}. Neither transplacental nor breast-feeding exposure to PCBs affected the McCarthy scores at 3, 4, or 5 years⁶⁰.

The 'Dutch PCB/Dioxin-Breast Milk Study'

From June 1990 to June 1992, healthy pregnant women were asked to participate in two study centres, Groningen and Rotterdam (The Netherlands). The Groningen region is a semi-urban area in the northeast of The Netherlands, whereas the Rotterdam region is a highly industrialized area in the midwest of The Netherlands. The study population consisted of 418 mothers and their infants. As a result of the implementation of stringent inclusion criteria, children were presumed to be at low risk for neurological and cognitive deficit. Fifty percent of the children was breast-fed, and another fifty percent was formula-fed for at

least six months after birth. To guarantee a certain amount of lactational exposure, only children that were actually breast-fed for at least six weeks after birth were included in the breast-fed group. Prenatal exposure was reflected by PCB levels (sum of the congeners 118 (2,4,5,3',4'-Pentachlorobiphenyl (CB)), 138 (2,3,4,2',4',5'-HexaCB), 153 (2,4,5,2',4',5'-HexaCB), and 180 (2,3,4,5,2',4',5'-HeptaCB) in plasma sampled from the umbilical cord and maternal plasma taken in the last month of pregnancy. 24-h breast milk samples were collected in the seventh week after delivery, and analyzed for 17 dioxins and 26 PCB congeners (appendix 1). Milk PCB and dioxin levels were used as a measure of lactational exposure. In addition, the duration of breast-feeding was recorded.

In the second week after delivery, pre- and early postnatal levels of PCB exposure were found to be negatively related to the neonatal neurological condition measured by means of the technique according to Prechtl⁶¹ and the incidence of hypotonia⁶². In addition, transplacental PCB passage was found to have a small negative effect on the neurological condition (method according to Touwen and Hempel⁶³) in 18-month-old toddlers⁶⁴. In 207 infants, pre- and postnatal exposure to PCBs and dioxins was unrelated to cognitive development as assessed by Fagan's visual recognition memory test at 3 and 7 months of age⁶⁵. At 3 months of age, *in utero* exposure to PCBs was negatively related with psychomotor development measured with the Bayley Scales of Infant Development, but not at 7 and 18 months⁶⁶.

No effects of lactational exposure on neurological and cognitive development were found. Despite the presence of PCBs and dioxins in breast milk, a small beneficial effect of breast-feeding on the quality of movements in terms of fluency was found among 18-month-old toddlers⁶⁴. Moreover, at 7 months of age, breast-fed children even had higher mean scores on both the Fagan and the Bayley test as compared to formula-fed infants^{65, 66}.

THE PRESENT INVESTIGATIONS

The present study is an extension of the above-mentioned 'Dutch PCB/Dioxin-Breast Milk Study', and it aims at investigating the effects of prenatal PCB exposure and lactational exposure to PCBs and dioxins on the neurological and cognitive development at 42 months of age. In

8

addition, we report on the effect of breast-feeding on long-term neurological development.

References

- 1. Jensen S (1966). Report of a new chemical hazard. New Sci; 32: 621.
- 2. Kimbrough RD, Jensen AA (1989), editors. Halogenated biphenyls, terphenyls, naphtalenes, dibenzodioxins and related products. New York: Elsevier/North-Holland.
- Ballschmiter K, Zell M (1980). Analysis of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) by glass capillary gas chromatography. Composition of technical Aroclor- and Clophen-PCB mixtures. Fresenius'Z Anal Chem; 302: 20-31.
- Safe S (1980). Polychlorinated Biphenyls (PCBs) and polybrominated biphenyls (PBBs): biochemistry, toxicology, and mechanism of action. CRC Critical Reviews in Toxicology; 13(4): 319-95.
- 5. Jones GRN (1989). Polychlorinated biphenyls: where do we stand now? Lancet; 30: 791-4.
- 6. Bremmer HJ, Troost LM, Kuipers G, Koning de J, Sein AA (1994). Emissions of dioxins in The Netherlands. Report nr. 770501018. Bilthoven, The Netherlands: RIVM.
- Fiedler H, Hutzinger O, Timms C (1990). Dioxins: sources of environmental load and human exposure. Toxicol Environ Chem; 29: 157-234.
- Ryan JJ, Levesque D, Panopio LG, Sun WF, Masuda Y, Kuroki H (1993). Elimination of polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) and polychlorinated biphenyls from human blood in the Yusho and Yu-Cheng rice oil poisonings. Arch Environ Contam Toxicol; 24(4): 504-12.
- 9. Birnbaum LS (1985). The role of structure in the disposition of halogenated aromatic xenobiotics. Environm Health Perspect; 61: 11-20.
- 10. Chen M, Hong CS, Bush B, Rhee GY (1988). Anaerobic biodegradation of polychlorinated biphenyls by bacteria from Hudson River sediments. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf; 16: 95.
- 11. Poland A, Glover E, Kende A (1976). Stereospecific, high affinity binding of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin by hepatic cytosol: Evidence that the binding species is the receptor for induction of aryl hydrocarbon hydroxylase. J Biol Chem; 251: 4936.
- 12. Safe S (1986). Comparative toxicology and mechanism of action of polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*dioxins and dibenzofurans. Ann Rev Pharmacol Toxicol; 26: 371-99.
- Safe S (1990). Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs), dibenzofurans (PCDFs), and related compounds: Environmental and mechanistic considerations which support the development of Toxic Equivalency Factors (TEFs). Crit Rev Toxicol; 21(1): 51-88.

- 14. Shain W, Bush B, Seegal R (1991). Neurotoxicity of Polychlorinated Biphenyls: structureactivity relationship of individual congeners. Toxicol Applied Pharmacol; 111: 33-42.
- 15. Silberhorn EM, Glauert HP, Robertson LW (1990). Carcinogenicity of polyhalogenated biphenyls: PCBs and PBBs. Crit Rev Toxicol; 20: 439.
- Brouwer A (1991). Role of biotransformation in PCB-induced alterations in vitamin A and thyroid hormone metabolism in laboratory and wildlife species. Biochem Soc Transact; 19: 731.
- NATO/CCMS (North Atlantic Treaty Organization on the Challenges of Modern Society)(1988). International toxicity equivalency factors (i-TEF) method of risk assessment for complex mixtures of dioxins and related compounds. Report no. 176. Brussels: North Atlantic Treaty Organization.
- Zorge JA van, Wijnen JH van, Theelen RMC, Olie K, Berg M van den (1989). Assessment of the toxicity of mixtures of halogenated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans by use of the toxicity equivalency factors (TEF). Chemosphere; 19: 1881-95.
- Ahlborg UG, Becking CG, Birnbaum LS, Brouwer A, Derks HJGM, Feeley M, Golor G, Hanberg A, Larsen JC, Liem AKD, Safe SH, Schlatter C, Waern F, Younes M, Yrjänheikki E (1994). Toxic equivalency factors for dioxin-like PCBs. Report on a WHO-ECEH and IPCS consultation. Chemosphere; 28: 1049-67.
- 20. Weber LW, Greim H (1997). The toxicity of brominated and mixed-halogenated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans: an overview. J Toxicol Environ Health; 50(3): 195-215.
- 21. Mennear JH, Lee CC (1994). Polybrominated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins and dibenzofurans: literature review and health assessment. Environ Health Perspect; 102 suppl. 1: 265-74.
- 22. Tilson HA, Kodavanti PR (1997). Neurochemical effects of polychlorinated biphenyls: an overview and identification of research needs. Neurotoxicol; 18(3): 727-43.
- 23. Seegal RF (1996). Epidemiological and laboratory evidence of PCB-induced neurotoxicity. Crit Rev Toxicol; 26(6): 709-37.
- 24. Safe S (1989). Polychlorinated biphenyls: mutagenicity and carcinogenicity. Mutat Res; 220(1): 31-47.
- 25. Kimbrough RD (1985). Laboratory and human studies on polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and related compounds. Environ Health Perspect; 59: 99-106.
- Peterson RE, Theobald HM, Kimmel GL (1993). Developmental and reproductive toxicity of dioxins and related compounds: cross-species comparisons. Crit Rev Toxicol; 23(3): 283-335.
- Jensen AA (1987). Polychlorobiphenyls (PCBs), polychlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorodibenzofurans (PCDFs) in human milk, blood and adipose tissue. Sci Total Environ; 64: 259-93.

- Ando M, Saito H, Wakisaka I (1985). Transfer of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) to newborn infants through the placenta and mothers' milk. Arch Environ Toxicol; 14: 51-87.
- 29. Masuda Y, Kagawa R, Kuroki H (1978). Transfer of polychlorinated biphenyls from mothers to foetuses and infants. Fd Cosmet Toxicol; 16: 543-6.
- Rogan WJ, Gladen BC, McKinney JD, Albro PW (1983). Chromatographic evidence of polychlorinated biphenyl exposure from a spill. JAMA; 249(8): 1057-8.
- Chen PH, Wong CK, Rappe C, Nygren M (1985). Polychlorinated biphenyls, dibenzofurans and quaterphenyls in toxic rice-bran oil and in the blood and tissues of patients with PCB poisoning (Yu-Cheng in Taiwan. Environm Health Perspect; 59: 59-65.
- 32. Masuda Y, Kuroki H, Haraguchi K, Nagayama J (1985). PCB and PCDF congeners in the blood and tissues of Yusho and Yu-Cheng patients. Environ Health Perspect; 59: 53-8.
- Rogan WJ, Gladen BC, Hung KL, Koong SL, Shih LY, Taylor JS, Wu YC, Yang D, Ragan NB, Hsu CC (1988). Congenital poisoning to polychlorinated biphenyls and their contaminants in Taiwan. Science; 241: 334-6.
- Gladen BC, Taylor JS, Wu YC, Ragan NB, Rogan WJ, Hsu CC (1990). Dermatological findings in children exposed transplacentally to heat-degraded polychlorinated biphenyls in Taiwan. Br J Dermatol; 122: 799-808.
- 35. Rogan WJ (1982). PCBs and cola-colored babies: Japan, 1968, and Taiwan, 1979. Teratology; 26: 259-61.
- Chen YC, Guo YL, Hsu CC, Rogan WJ (1992). Cognitive development of Yu-Cheng ('oil disease') children prenatally exposed to heat-degraded PCBs. JAMA; 268: 3213-18.
- Chen YJ, Hsu CC (1994). Effects of prenatal exposure to PCBs on the neurological function of children: a neuropsychological neurophysiological study. Develop Med Child Neurol; 36: 312-20.
- Yu ML, Hsu CC, Gladen BC, Rogan WJ (1990). In utero PCB/PCDF exposure: relation of developmental delay to dysmorphology and dose. Neurotoxicol and Teratol; 13: 195-202.
- 39. Beck H, Ekhart K, Mathar W, Wittkowski R (1989). PCDD and PCDF body burden from food intake in the Federal Republic of Germany. Chemosphere; 18: 417-24.
- 40. Theelen RMC (1991). Modelling of human exposure to TCDD and I-TEQ in the Netherlands: background and occupational. In: Biological basis for risk assessment of dioxins and related compounds. Gallo M, Scheuplein RJ, Heijden van der K, editors. Plainview, New York: Banbury report no. 35: 277-90.
- 41. Rappe C (1992). Sources of PCDDs and PCDFs. Introduction, reactions, levels, patterns, profiles and trends. Chemosphere; 25: 41-4.
- 42. Liem AKD, Theelen RMC (1997). Dioxins: chemical analysis, exposure and risk assessment [Dissertation]. Utrecht, The Netherlands: University of Utrecht.

- 43. Abraham K, Hille A, Ende M, Helge H (1994). Intake and fecal excretion of PCDDs, PCDFs, and PCBs in a breast-fed and a formula-fed infant. Chemosphere; 29: 2279-86.
- Huisman M, Eerenstein SEJ, Koopman-Esseboom C, Brouwer M, Fidler V, Muskiet FAJ, Sauer PJJ, Boersma ER (1995). Perinatal exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls and dioxins through dietary intake. Chemosphere; 10: 4273-87.
- 45. Svensson BG, Nilsson A, Hansson M, Rappe C, Akesson B, Skerfving S (1991). Exposure to dioxins and dibenzofurans through the consumption of fish. N Engl J Med; 324: 8-12.
- Schwartz PM, Jacobson SW, Fein G, Jacobson JL, Price HA (1983). Lake Michigan fish consumption as a source of polychlorinated biphenyls in human cord serum, maternal serum, and milk. Am J Public Health; 73: 293-6.
- 47. Fein GG, Jacobson JL, Jacobson SW, Schwartz PM, Dowler JK (1984). Prenatal exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls: Effects on birth size and gestational age. J Pediatr; 105: 315-20.
- Rogan WJ, Gladen BC (1985). Study of human lactation for effects of environmental contaminants: The North Carolina breast milk and formula project and some other ideas. Environ Health Perspect; 60: 215-21.
- Rogan WJ, Gladen BC, McKinney JD, Carreras N, Hardy P, Thullen J, Tingelstad J, Tully M (1986). Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and dichlorodiphenyl dichlorethene (DDE) in human milk: Effects of maternal factors and previous lactation. Am J Public Health; 76: 172-7.
- 50. Jacobson JL, Humphrey HEB, Jacobson SW, Schantz SL, Mullin MD, Welch R (1989). Determinants of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polybrominated biphenyls (PBBs), and dichlorodiphenyl trichloroethane (DDT) levels in the sera of young children. Am J Public Health; 79: 1401-4.
- 51. Brazelton TB (1973). Neonatal Behavioral Assessment Scale. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- 52. Jacobson JL, Jacobson SW, Schwartz PM, Fein GG, Dowler JK (1984). Prenatal exposure to an environmental toxin: a test of the multiple effects model. Dev Psychol; 20: 523-32.
- Rogan WJ, Gladen BC, McKinney JD, Carreras N, Hardy P, Thullen J, Tinglestad J, Tully M (1986). Neonatal effects of transplacental exposure to PCBs and DDE. J Pediatr; 109: 335-41.
- 54. Jacobson SW, Fein GG, Jacobson JL, Schwartz PM, Dowler JK (1985). The effect of intrauterine PCB exposure on visual recognition memory. Child Develop; 85: 853-60.
- Jacobson JL, Jacobson SW, Humphrey HEB (1990). Effects of in utero exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls and related contaminants on cognitive functioning in young children. J Pediatr; 116: 38-45.
- Jacobson JL, Jacobson SW, Humphrey HEB (1990). Effects of exposure to PCBs and related compounds on growth and activity in children. Neurotoxicology and Teratology; 12: 319-26.

- 57. Jacobson JL, Jacobson SW (1996). Intellectual impairment in children exposed to polychlorinated biphenyls in utero. New Eng J Med; 335(11): 783-9.
- Gladen BC, Rogan WJ, Hardy P, Thullen J, Tingelstad J, Tully M (1988). Development after exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls and dichlorodiphenyl dichloroethene transplacentally and through human milk. J Pediatr; 113: 991-5.
- 59. Rogan WJ, Gladen BC (1991). PCBs, DDE, and child development at 18 and 24 months. Ann Epidemiol; 1: 407-13.
- 60. Gladen BC, Rogan WJ (1991). Effects of perinatal polychlorinated biphenyls and dichlorodiphenyl dichloroethene on later development. J Pediatr; 119: 58-63.
- 61. Prechtl HFR (1977). The neurological examination of the full-term newborn infant. Clinics in Developmental Medicine (2nd ed.), 63, SIMP. London: Heinemann Medical books.
- Huisman M, Koopman-Esseboom C, Fidler V, Hadders-Algra M, van der Paauw CG, Tuinstra LGMTh, Weisglas-Kuperus N, Sauer PJJ, Touwen BCL, Boersma ER (1995). Perinatal exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls and dioxins and its effect on neonatal neurological development. Early Hum Dev; 41: 111-127.
- 63. Hempel MS (1993). The neurological examination for toddler age [Dissertation]. Groningen, The Netherlands: University of Groningen.
- Huisman M, Koopman-Esseboom C, Lanting CI, van der Paauw CG, Tuinstra LGMTh, Fidler V, Weisglas-Kuperus N, Sauer PJJ, Boersma ER, Touwen BCL (1995). Neurological condition in 18-month-old children perinatally exposed to polychlorinated biphenyls and dioxins. Early Hum Dev; 43: 165-176.
- Koopman-Esseboom C (1995), Effects of perinatal exposure to PCBs and dioxins on early human development [Dissertation]. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Erasmus University Rotterdam.
- Koopman-Esseboom C, Weisglas-Kuperus N, de Ridder MA, van der Paauw CG, Tuinstra LG, Sauer PJ (1996). Effects of polychlorinated biphenyl/dioxin exposure and feeding type on infants' mental and psychomotor development. Pediatrics; 97(5): 700-6.

Appendix I

Polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs), dibenzofurans (PCDFs), planar PCBs, and mono-, di-, and non-ortho PCBs that were measured in breast milk samples obtained in the 'Dutch PCB/Dioxin-Breast Milk Study'.

Structure	IUPAC nr.	Structure	IUPAC nr.
PCDDs		PCBs	
2,3,7,8-TCDD	48	2,4-4'-CB	28
1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD	54	2,5-2'5'-TCB	52
1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDD	66	2,4-3'4'-TCB	66
1,2,3,6,7,8-HxCDD	67	2,5-3'4'-TCB	70
1,2,3,7,8,9-HxCDD	70	2,4,5-2'4'-PeCB	99
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDD	73	2,4,5-2'5'-PeCB	101
1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-OCDD	75	2,3,4-3'4'-PeCB	105 ^A
PCDFs		2,4,5-3'4'-PeCB	118 ^A
2,3,7,8-TCDF	83	2,3,4-2'3'4'-HxCB	128
1,2,3,7,8-PeCDF	94	2,3,4,5-2'4'-HxCB	137
2,3,4,7,8-PeCDF	114	2,3,4-2'4'5'-HxCB	138
1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDF	118	2,3,4,5-2'5'-HxCB	141
1,2,3,6,7,8-HxCDF	121	2,3,5,6-2'5'-HxCB	151
1,2,3,7,8,9-HxCDF	124	2,4,5-2'4'5'-HxCB	153
2,3,4,6,7,8-HxCDF	130	2,3,4,5-3'4'-HxCB	156 ⁴
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDF	131	2,3,4,5-2'3'4'-HpCB	170 ^B
1,2,3,4,7,8,9-HpCDF	134	2,3,5,6-2'3'4'-HpCB	177
1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-OCDF	135	2,3,4,5-2'4'5'-HpCB	180 ^в
Planar PCBs		2,3,4,6-2'4'5'-HpCB	183
3,4,3'4'-TCB	77	2,3,5,6-2'4'5'-HpCB	187
3,4,3'4'5-PeCB	126	2,3,4,5-2'3'4'5'-OCB	194
3,4,5,3'4'5'-HxCB	169	2,3,4,5,6-2'3'4'-OCB	195
		2,3,5,6-2'3'5'6'-OCB	202

^A Mono-ortho PCB; ^B Di-ortho PCB; IUPAC International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry.