



Title	Temporal trends of perfluoroalkyl acids in plasma samples of pregnant women in Hokkaido, Japan, 2003–2011
Author(s)	Okada, Emiko; Kashino, Ikuko; Matsuura, Hideyuki; Sasaki, Seiko; Miyashita, Chihiro; Yamamoto, Jun; Ikeno, Tamiko; Ito, Yoichi M.; Matsumura, Toru; Tamakoshi, Akiko; Kishi, Reiko
Citation	Environment International, 60, 89-96 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2013.07.013
Issue Date	2013-10-01
Doc URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2115/87332
Rights	© 2013. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/
Rights(URL)	http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/
Type	article (author version)
File Information	53_Environ Int, 2013.pdf



[Instructions for use](#)

1 Temporal trends of perfluoroalkyl acids in plasma samples of pregnant women in Hokkaido, Japan,
2 2003–2011

3

4 Emiko Okada^a, Ikuko Kashino^a, Hideyuki Matsuura^b, Seiko Sasaki^a, Chihiro Miyashita^c, Jun
5 Yamamoto^d, Tamiko Ikeno^c, Yoichi M. Ito^c, Toru Matsumura^c, Akiko Tamakoshi^a, and Reiko
6 Kishi^{c,*}

7

8 ^aDepartment of Public Health Sciences, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine, North
9 15 West 7 Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-8638, Japan.

10 ^bLaboratory of Bioorganic Chemistry, Division of Applied Bioscience, Research Faculty of
11 Agriculture, Hokkaido University, North 9 West 9 Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-8589, Japan.

12 ^cCenter for Environmental and Health Sciences, Hokkaido University, North 12 West 7 Kita-ku,
13 Sapporo, 060-0812, Japan.

14 ^dInstitute of Environmental Ecology, IDEA Consultants, Inc., 1334-5 Riemon, Yaizu, Shizuoka
15 421-0212, Japan.

16 ^eDepartment of Biostatistics, Division of Advanced Medical Sciences, Hokkaido University
17 Graduate School of Medicine, North 15 West 7 Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-8638, Japan.

18

19 *Corresponding author: Center for Environmental and Health Sciences, Hokkaido University, North
20 12 West 7 Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-0812, Japan. Tel: +81-11-706-4746; Fax: +81-11-706-4725;

1 E-mail: rkishi@med.hokudai.ac.jp (R. Kishi).

2

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 Perfluoroalkyl acids (PFAAs) are persistent organic pollutants that are used in a wide range of
5 consumer products. Recent epidemiological studies have shown that prenatal exposure to toxic levels
6 of PFAAs in the environment may adversely affect fetal growth and humoral immune response in
7 infants and children. Here we have characterized levels of prenatal exposure to PFAA between 2003
8 and 2011 in Hokkaido, Japan, by measuring PFAA concentrations in plasma samples from pregnant
9 women. The study population comprised 150 women who enrolled in a prospective birth cohort
10 study conducted in Hokkaido. Eleven PFAAs were measured in maternal plasma samples using
11 simultaneous analysis by ultra-performance liquid chromatography coupled to triple quadrupole
12 tandem mass spectrometry. At the end of the study, in 2011, age- and parity-adjusted mean
13 concentrations of perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA), perfluorononanoic acid (PFNA),
14 perfluorodecanoic acid (PFDA), perfluoroundecanoic acid (PFUnDA), perfluorododecanoic acid
15 (PFDoDA), perfluorotridecanoic acid (PFTrDA), perfluorohexane sulfonate (PFHxS), and
16 perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) were 1.35 ng/mL, 1.26 ng/mL, 0.66 ng/mL, 1.29 ng/mL, 0.25
17 ng/mL, 0.33 ng/mL, 0.28 ng/mL, and 3.86 ng/mL, respectively. Whereas PFOS and PFOA
18 concentrations declined 8.4%/y and 3.1%/y, respectively, PFNA and PFDA levels increased 4.7%/y
19 and 2.4%/y, respectively, between 2003 and 2011. PFUnDA, PFDoDA, and PFTrDA were detected
20 in the vast majority of maternal samples, but no significant temporal trend was apparent. Future

1 studies must involve a larger population of pregnant women and their children to determine the
2 effects of prenatal exposure to PFAA on health outcomes in infants and children.

3

4 **Key words:** Perfluorooctane sulfonate, perfluorooctanoic acid, perfluorononanoic acid,
5 perfluorodecanoic acid, human maternal plasma, temporal trend

6

7 **Funding:** This study was funded by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Japanese
8 Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare; the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and
9 Technology; and the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

10

11 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

12

13 **Ethics approval:** This study was conducted with written informed consent from all patients and was
14 approved by the institutional ethics board for epidemiological studies at the Hokkaido University
15 Graduate School of Medicine.

16

17 **Abbreviations:**

18 PFAAs, perfluoroalkyl acids;

19 PFCAs, perfluorinated carboxylic acids;

20 PFSAs, perfluoroalkane sulfonates;

- 1 PFHxA, perfluorohexanoic acid;
- 2 PFHpA, perfluoroheptanoic acid;
- 3 PFOA, perfluorooctanoic acid;
- 4 PFNA, perfluorononanoic acid;
- 5 PFDA, perfluorodecanoic acid;
- 6 PFUnDA, perfluoroundecanoic acid;
- 7 PFDoDA, perfluorododecanoic acid;
- 8 PFTrDA, perfluorotridecanoic acid;
- 9 PFTeDA, perfluorotetradecanoic acid;
- 10 PFHxS, perfluorohexane sulfonate;
- 11 PFOS, perfluorooctane sulfonate;
- 12 BEH, ethylene-bridged hybrid;
- 13 UPLC-MS/MS, ultra-performance liquid chromatography coupled to triple quadrupole tandem mass
- 14 spectrometry;
- 15 MDL, method detection limit;
- 16 CI, confidence interval;
- 17 GM, geometric mean;
- 18
- 19

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Perfluoroalkyl acids (PFAAs) are used in a broad range of consumer products because of
3 their surface properties, which include insulation and water resistance. These compounds are
4 persistent and widespread organic pollutants within the environment, wildlife, and humans (Lau et
5 al., 2007). Contamination of drinking water, foodstuffs such as seafood, leaching from food
6 packaging and non-stick cookware, and household dust are known major routes of human exposure
7 (Fromme et al., 2009). Potential health effects associated with PFAA exposure in humans are made
8 worse by both bioaccumulation and persistence. In 2002, after 50 years of production, the 3M
9 Company phased out the production and distribution of perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) (Renner,
10 2001). PFOS has subsequently been regulated by the governments of the United States (Significant
11 New Use Rules, United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2000), Canada (Schedule 1 of
12 CEPA 1999, Environment Canada, 2006), and the European Union (Directive 76/769/EEC,
13 European Commission, 2006). PFOS was also included in Annex B of the 2009 Stockholm
14 Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (UNEP, 2007; Wang et al., 2009). The Environmental
15 Protection Agency of the United States (2006) launched a 2010/2015 PFOA Stewardship Program to
16 voluntarily reduce perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) emissions. Recent studies have indicated that
17 concentrations of PFOS and PFOA are declining in the general human population (Kato et al., 2011;
18 Olsen et al., 2012; Sundström et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011). In contrast, concentrations of
19 long-chain perfluorinated carboxylic acids (PFCAs) in the general human population are increasing
20 (Wang et al., 2011).

1 PFOS and PFOA pass the placental barrier and are transferred to the fetus in humans
2 (Midasch et al., 2007; Monroy et al., 2008). Previous epidemiological studies have reported a
3 negative association between prenatal PFOS or PFOA exposure and birth weight (Andersen et al.,
4 2010; Chen et al., 2012; Fei et al., 2007; Washino et al., 2009). Moreover, maternal PFOS levels
5 correlate negatively with antibody concentrations in children aged 5 years (Grandjean et al., 2012).
6 However, the effects of prenatal exposure to other PFAAs [e.g., long-chain perfluorinated
7 carboxylic acids (PFCAs), such as perfluorononanoic acid (PFNA), perfluorodecanoic acid (PFDA),
8 perfluoroundecanoic acid (PFUnDA), and perfluorododecanoic acid (PFDoDA)] remain unclear.
9 PFCAs with chains longer than those in PFOA have high bioconcentration factors, suggesting their
10 environmental persistence (Martin et al., 2003). It is necessary to measure, therefore, levels of
11 exposure of pregnant women to PFOS, PFOA, and other PFAAs. It is also critical to determine
12 whether environmental levels of these compounds are changing over time.

13 Here we have measured the concentration of 11 PFAAs in blood samples taken from
14 pregnant women in Hokkaido, Japan. Analysis of samples from 2003 to 2011 allowed us to assess
15 temporal trends associated with changes in the levels of these compounds.

16

17 **2. Materials and Methods**

18 *2.1. Study population*

19 Study participants included 150 pregnant women, between 28 and 32 weeks of gestation,
20 who were enrolled in a prospective birth cohort study (the Hokkaido Study on Environment and

1 Children's Health). This ongoing cohort study was initiated in February 2003, and details have been
2 described (Kishi et al., 2011). Briefly, subjects were considered eligible if they were indigenous
3 Japanese women who had antenatal care at one of 37 participating hospitals within Hokkaido during
4 the first trimester of pregnancy. Healthcare personnel introduced the study and provided each
5 potential participant with an invitation, which included a consent form and a baseline questionnaire.
6 All participants provided written informed consent. Among the 20,737 women that registered
7 between February 2003 and December 2011, only patients associated with a consent form, a
8 baseline questionnaire, medical records at birth, and a maternal blood sample were included in this
9 study. This represented 1,944 women selected during 2003, 2,459 women selected during 2005,
10 1,820 women selected during 2007, 1,274 women selected during 2009, and 1,103 women selected
11 during 2011. From these populations, 30 women from each year were randomly selected for
12 analysis. The protocol used in this study was approved by the institutional ethics board for
13 epidemiological studies at the Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine.

14

15 2. 2. *Standards and reagents*

16 Acetonitrile, methanol, ultrapure water, and an HPLC-grade ammonium acetate solution (1
17 mol/L) were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Inc., Osaka, Japan. Bulk ENVI-Carb sorbent was
18 purchased from Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA. Acetic acid (purity: 99.7%) was purchased from
19 Kanto Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan. Perfluorohexane sulfonate (PFHxS; >98%), PFOS (>98%), and a
20 mixture of native PFCAs [perfluorohexanoic acid (PFHxA; >98%), perfluoroheptanoic acid

1 (PFHpA; >98%), PFOA (>98%), PFNA (>98%), PFDA (>98%), PFUnDA (>98%), PFDoDA
2 (>98%), perfluorotridecanoic acid (PFTrDA; >98%), and perfluorotetradecanoic acid (PFTeDA;
3 >98%)] were obtained from Wellington Laboratories, Inc., Guelph, Ontario, Canada. Wellington
4 Laboratories also supplied $^{13}\text{C}_3$ -labeled PFHxS ($\geq 99\%$), $^{13}\text{C}_4$ -labeled PFOS ($\geq 99\%$), and a mixture
5 of ^{13}C -labeled PFCAs [$^{13}\text{C}_2$ -PFHxA ($\geq 99\%$), $^{13}\text{C}_4$ -PFOA ($\geq 99\%$), $^{13}\text{C}_5$ -PFNA ($\geq 99\%$), $^{13}\text{C}_2$ -PFDA
6 ($\geq 99\%$) and $^{13}\text{C}_2$ -PFUnDA ($\geq 99\%$)].

7

8 2. 3. *Sample preparation*

9 A 10-mL blood sample was taken from the maternal peripheral vein between 28 and 32
10 weeks of pregnancy. All samples were stored at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ before analysis. An internal standard, which
11 consisted of $^{13}\text{C}_3$ -labeled PFHxS, $^{13}\text{C}_4$ -labeled PFOS, and $^{13}\text{C}_4$ -labeled PFCAs (2.5 ng of each), was
12 added to each human plasma sample (0.5 mL). Samples were extracted with 2 mL acetonitrile by
13 vortexing for 30 s. After centrifugation ($3,000 \times g$ for 15 min), supernatants were transferred into
14 new tubes containing 25 mg ENVI-Carb and 50 μL acetic acid. Solutions were mixed by vortexing
15 for 30 s. After centrifugation ($3,000 \times g$ for 15 min), each supernatant taken from above the
16 ENVI-Carb was concentrated to 0.25 mL under nitrogen, and 0.25 mL methanol was added with
17 subsequent mixing.

18

19 2. 4. *Ultra-performance liquid chromatography coupled to triple quadrupole tandem mass*

20 *spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS)*

1 Extracted solutions were analyzed using UPLC-MS/MS instrumentation. The ACQUITY
2 UPLC system (Waters, Tokyo, Japan) was used with ethylene-bridged (BEH) C18 columns (1.7 μm ,
3 2.1 \times 50 mm). The retention gap technique was used by installing retention gap columns [BEH C18
4 columns (1.7 μm , 2.1 \times 100 mm)], which improved PFAA sensitivity by trapping mobile-phase
5 PFAAs (contaminants) in the retention gap column. The column temperature was 55 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and the
6 column oven was maintained at 57 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. A Micromass Quattro Premier tandem quadrupole mass
7 spectrometer (Waters) was used for MS/MS. Conditions for MS/MS were as follows: desolvation
8 and source temperatures were set at 350 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 120 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively. The capillary was held at a
9 potential of 3.5 kV relative to the counterelectrode in the negative-ion mode for all compounds.
10 Cone and desolvation gas flow rates were 50 and 800 L/h, respectively. Cone and collision voltages,
11 and monitored transition ions are listed in Table 1. Analytes were eluted from the column with a
12 linear gradient involving solvent A (2 mM ammonium acetate in water) and solvent B (2 mM
13 ammonium acetate in acetonitrile) as follows: 10% B for the initial 0.2 min, then a gradient of
14 10–100% B from 0.2 min to 9 min. The effluent was maintained at 100% B from 9 min to 12 min.
15 The total UPLC cycle time was 15 min including column re-equilibration. An eluent flow rate of 0.3
16 mL/min was employed for all analyses. The injection volume was 5 μL .

17

18 2. 5. *Quality control*

19 Levels of PFHxA, PFHpA, PFOA, PFNA, PFDA, PFUnDA, PFDoDA, PFTTrDA, PFTeDA,
20 PFHxS, and PFOS were measured. Calibration curves were prepared using calibration standards

1 that consisted of seven concentrations (between 0.1 and 10 ng/mL) prepared in 1:1
2 acetonitrile/methanol. Each calibration standard also contained the internal standard (5 ng/mL).
3 Calibration curves were constructed to perform linear regressions (1/× weighting) that compared
4 plots of peak area/internal standard area versus standard concentration/internal standard
5 concentration. Plasma samples were quantified using calibration curves that showed good linearity
6 and correlation coefficients (R^2) > 0.995 for all compounds. Quantification was performed using a
7 relative-response ratio to an internal standard that most structurally matched the target analyte
8 (Table 1).

9 Recoveries and relative standard deviations were evaluated using five replicate
10 fortifications (fortified to 10 times the original concentration) of a human plasma sample with low
11 levels of contamination (Table 1). The procedural blank levels were determined using 0.5 mL of
12 ultrapure water. Instrumental detection limits were defined as the mass of analyte that produced a
13 peak with a signal-to-noise ratio of 3. These values ranged from 0.1 ng/mL (PFCAs) to 0.2 ng/mL
14 (PFSAs). The method detection limit (MDL) was defined as the mass of analyte that produced a
15 peak with a signal-to-noise ratio of 10. These values ranged from 0.1 ng/mL (PFHxA, PFHpA,
16 PFDA, PFUnDA, PFDoDA, PFTrDA and PFTeDA) to 0.3 ng/mL (PFNA and PFOS) (Table 1).
17 Chromatographic resolution of branched and linear isomers in plasma samples was achieved using
18 UPLC-MS/MS. For quantification of PFOS, the total area of the branched and linear isomer peaks
19 was integrated.

20 To assess potential inter-laboratory differences, we analyzed NIST standard reference

1 material (SRM) 1957 (Table 1). Our methods yielded reliable data given that values for PFHpA to
2 PFUnDA, PFHxS, and PFOS were comparable to those measured during inter-laboratory
3 comparisons (Harada et al., 2011; Keller et al., 2010; National Institute of Standards & Technology,
4 Certificate of Analysis, SRM 1957).

5

6 *2. 6. Statistical analysis*

7 Because our data did not fall into a normal distribution, PFAA concentrations were
8 converted to a natural log scale. For participants with PFAA concentrations below the MDL, a value
9 equal to half of the MDL was assigned for statistical analyses, except for PFHxA, PFHpA, and
10 PFTeDA. We did not include PFHxA, PFHpA, and PFTeDA in the statistical analysis because these
11 compounds were detected very infrequently. Given that the age of pregnant women correlates
12 negatively with PFAA concentrations and that the concentrations measured for multiparous women
13 are lower than for primiparous women (Fei et al., 2007; Okada et al., 2012; Washino et al., 2009),
14 age- and parity-adjusted means were calculated using a least squares mean obtained from analysis
15 of covariance. We used linear regression to analyze temporal trends between 2003 and 2011 and
16 calculated change per year through the period assessed from the discrete rate of change (termed
17 lambda). To assess the temporal trends of proportion for PFAAs, we performed the
18 Cochran-Armitage trend test. Correlations between different PFAAs were assessed using the
19 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (ρ). All statistical analyses were performed using the
20 Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for Windows, version 16.0J (Japanese version; SPSS,

1 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and JMP 10 Statistical Discovery Software for Windows (S.A.S. Institute
2 Inc., Cary, North Carolina). Differences were considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

3

4 **3. Results**

5 The mean age of all pregnant women included in the study was 30.3 ± 4.8 years (Table 2).
6 Concentrations of maternal plasma PFAAs for each year are provided in Table 3. Sum-total PFAA
7 concentrations (Σ PFAAs) are also provided. PFOA, PFNA, PFDA, PFUnDA, and PFOS were
8 detected in all samples. Detection rates for the other compounds were: PFHxA (13.3%), PFHpA
9 (23.3%), PFDoDA (73.3%), PFTTrDA (97.3%), PFTeDA (28.0%), and PFHxS (80.7%). Age- and
10 parity-adjusted mean concentrations at the end of the study (in 2011) were: PFOA (1.35 ng/mL),
11 PFNA (1.26 ng/mL), PFDA (0.66 ng/mL), PFUnDA (1.29 ng/mL), PFDoDA (0.25 ng/mL), PFTTrDA
12 (0.33 ng/mL), PFHxS (0.28 ng/mL), PFOS (3.86 ng/mL), and Σ PFAAs (10.13 ng/mL).

13 Scatter-plots and linear regressions of age- and parity-adjusted concentrations of PFOA,
14 PFOS, Σ PFAAs, PFNA, and PFDA from 2003 to 2011 are shown in Fig. 1. Statistical analyses of
15 these trends are provided in Table 3. Through the period 2003 to 2011, the rate of change per year for
16 the concentrations of PFOA, PFOS, and Σ PFAAs exhibited a statistically significant decrease: PFOA
17 = -3.1% , PFOS = -8.4% , and Σ PFAAs = -4.0% . In contrast, the rate of change per year for PFNA
18 and PFDA levels increased significantly: PFNA = $+4.7\%$; and PFDA = $+2.4\%$.

19 The proportion of Σ PFAA that was accounted for by each PFAA is shown in Fig. 2. Each
20 year of collected samples is represented separately. A comparison of the 2003 and 2011 data showed

1 that relative levels of PFOS (as a percentage of Σ PFAA) dropped from 57.1% to 40.7%, but this
2 apparent temporal trend of the proportion was not statistically significant. Although the proportion of
3 other PFAAs also did not exhibit a significant trend over time, the relative levels of PFNA (7.3% to
4 13.3%), PFDA (4.3% to 7.0%), and PFUnDA (9.5% to 13.6%) increased comparing 2003 with 2011.

5 Correlation coefficients among PFOA, PFNA, PFDA, PFUnDA, PFDoDA, PFTrDA,
6 PFHxS, and PFOS for all samples are listed in Table 4. The level of each PFAA correlated
7 significantly with that of the corresponding PFAA having a different chain length. Significant
8 correlation coefficients (ρ) were found for the following pairs: PFNA and PFDA (0.702), PFDA and
9 PFUnDA (0.698), PFDA and PFDoDA (0.616), PFUnDA and PFTrDA (0.675), and PFDoDA and
10 PFTrDA (0.707). In general, strong correlations were measured between PFAAs with similar chain
11 length.

12

13 **4. Discussion**

14 Here we determined the concentration of 11 PFAAs in plasma samples of pregnant women in
15 Hokkaido, Japan. Detectable levels of PFNA, PFDA, PFUnDA, and PFOS were found in all
16 samples. Between 2003 and 2011, plasma concentrations of PFOS and PFOA decreased, whereas
17 PFNA and PFDA concentrations increased. To our knowledge, this is the first report that has
18 investigated maternal levels of 11 PFAA in Japan.

19 The declining levels of PFOS and PFOA in humans are consistent with previous studies
20 (Calafat et al., 2007; Harada et al., 2011; Olsen et al., 2008, 2012). In our study, the proportion of

1 PFOS in ΣPFAA also decreased as compared with 2003 and 2011. This is because the 3M Company
2 phased out their manufacture and distribution of PFOS in 2002, following 50 years of production
3 (Renner, 2001). Given that PFOS subsequently ceased to accumulate in the environment and indeed
4 human exposure to this compound decreased, PFOS concentrations in human plasma decreased
5 dramatically between 2003 and 2005. Further reductions in PFOS levels by 2011 may be explained
6 by two developments. First, PFOS was listed on Annex B of the Stockholm Convention on
7 Persistent Organic Pollutants in 2009 (UNEP, 2007; Wang et al., 2009). Second, Japan designated
8 PFOS a Type I Specified Chemical Substance (characterized by persistence, bioaccumulation, and
9 long-term human toxicity) in the Act on the Evaluation of Chemical Substances and Regulation of
10 Their Manufacture, etc., in 2010 (Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Ministry of Economy,
11 Trade and Industry and Ministry of the Environment, 2010). A similar decline in PFOA
12 concentrations may have resulted from phasing out of the manufacture and use of PFOA in 2006 as
13 stipulated by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency *via* the 2010/2015 PFOA Stewardship
14 program.

15 Between 2003 and 2011, concentrations of PFNA and PFDA increased by 4.7% and 2.4%
16 per year, respectively. These results are consistent with recent reports. For example, a study of
17 Swedish primiparous women between 1996 and 2010 revealed that PFNA and PFDA concentrations
18 increased by 4.3% and 3.8% per year, respectively (Glynn et al., 2012). In the National Health and
19 Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), which evaluated the United States population, elevated
20 levels of PFNA were measured when samples collected from females during 1999–2000 were

1 compared with samples collected during 2003–2004 [geometric mean (GM) values of 0.5 ng/mL
2 and 0.9 ng/mL, respectively] (Calafat et al., 2007). In Sendai, Japan, PFNA concentrations in
3 samples from females increased from 1.01 ng/mL in 2003 to 1.80 ng/mL in 2008; moreover, an
4 increase in PFDA concentration was also observed in these samples (0.52 ng/mL to 0.72 ng/mL)
5 (Harada et al., 2011). Here we measured comparable PFNA and PFOA concentrations in samples
6 collected during 2011. Moreover, the proportion of long-chain PFCAs generally increased over time.
7 This result may be explained by higher environmental persistence (Martin et al., 2003) and longer
8 half-lives of long-chain PFCAs (Ohmori et al., 2003), which generally have longer chains than
9 PFOA. The toxicity of PFCAs has been correlated with the length of the carbon chain and the nature
10 of the functional group (Liao et al., 2009; Wolf et al., 2008). Given the increased levels of PFNA
11 and PFDA detected in human blood samples around the world, it is important to evaluate the
12 potential health effects of PFCAs with chains longer than those in PFOAs.

13 PFUnDA, PFDoDA, and PFTrDA are frequently detected in maternal plasma. Olsen et al.
14 (2012) found that the relative levels of long-chain PFCAs in humans could be ordered as follows:
15 PFOA > PFNA > PFDA \approx PFUnDA > PFHpA > PFDoDA. In our study, PFCA relative levels were
16 similar to those reported by Olsen et al.: PFOA > PFNA > PFUnDA > PFDA > PFTrDA > PFHxA \approx
17 PFHpA \approx PFDoDA. PFUnDA, PFDoDA, and PFTrDA levels were higher than seen in many
18 countries but lower than reported for other areas of Japan (Harada et al., 2011). Total levels of
19 long-chain PFCAs are equal to or greater than PFOA levels, and long-chain PFCA levels seem to be
20 increasing in Japan and Korea (Harada et al., 2011). The composition of long-chain PFCAs within

1 human blood samples can be used like a fingerprint to identify residents of East-Asian countries,
2 including Japan (Harada et al., 2011). PFNA, PFUnDA, and PFTrDA are manufactured primarily in
3 Japan *via* the oxidation of a mixture of linear fluorotelomer olefins (Prevedouros et al., 2006).
4 Industrial application of these PFCAs may have contributed to our observed increase in PFNA
5 concentrations over time and the accumulation of PFNA in East-Asian populations. In our study,
6 although PFUnDA and PFOA concentrations were comparable in 2011 samples, no temporal trends
7 were observed for PFUnDA, PFDODA, or PFTrDA. Given that the Σ PFAA concentration was
8 generally lower than for other regions in Japan, Σ PFAA may not be increasing over time. Strong
9 correlations between PFAAs of similar chain length were detected, particularly between long-chain
10 PFCAs. As such, sources of exposure for different long-chain PFCAs may be quite similar. In
11 addition, it is likely that long- and short-chain PFCA sources of exposure are different. There is little
12 data, however, concerning long-chain PFCA concentrations in different human populations around
13 the world (particularly PFCAs that have a longer-chain than PFDA). It is important to evaluate
14 long-term trends associated with long-chain PFCAs in human samples and to continue to monitor
15 levels of these compounds. Further investigation of the source of human exposure to longer-chain
16 PFCAs is needed to evaluate in detail the effects of longer-chain PFCA levels in East-Asian
17 populations.

18 The maternal PFOS and PFOA concentrations we measured were generally lower than those
19 measured in other parts of the world. These previous epidemiological studies include the NHANES
20 study conducted in the United States (GM concentrations were 12.29 ng/mL PFOS and 2.6 ng/mL

1 PFOA; Woodruff et al., 2011), the Danish National Birth Cohort study (mean concentrations were
2 35.3 ng/mL PFOS and 5.6 ng/mL PFOA; Fei et al., 2007), and the Family Study in Canada (mean
3 concentrations were 18.31 ng/mL PFOS and 2.54 ng/mL PFOA; Monroy et al., 2008). Moreover, our
4 previous study conducted in Sapporo City in Hokkaido between 2002 and 2005 also revealed low
5 PFOS and PFOA concentrations (5.2 ng/mL and 1.3 ng/mL, respectively; Okada et al., 2012;
6 Washino et al., 2009). All of Hokkaido, therefore, is an area where human exposure to PFAAs is
7 relatively low. Note that the time of blood sampling during pregnancy could have affected
8 concentrations owing to increased maternal blood volume during gestation (i.e., a dilution effect).
9 The times of blood sampling during pregnancy in previous studies were as follows: the NHANES
10 (first–third trimester), the Danish National Birth Cohort study (4–14 weeks of gestation), the Family
11 Study in Canada (24–28 weeks of gestation), and the study in Sapporo City (23–35 weeks of
12 gestation). As compared with those studies, the blood sampling time in our study was relatively late,
13 i.e., between 28 and 32 weeks of gestation, although it was comparable to the study in Sapporo City.
14 Also, levels of PFCAs in human breast milk in Kyoto in 2010 were reportedly higher than those in
15 other East-Asian countries—GM concentrations were 0.083 ng/mL PFOA, 0.027 ng/mL PFNA,
16 0.017 ng/mL PFDA, and 0.030 ng/mL PFUnDA (Fujii et al., 2012). Levels of PFOA and PFNA in
17 breast milk in the Sapporo City study were 0.089 ng/mL and 0.035 ng/mL, respectively, and these
18 were similar to those of in Kyoto in 2010 (Nakata et al., 2009). However, because it was collected
19 between 2002 and 2005, the breast milk concentrations of present Hokkaido may be lower than this.
20 Although the levels of maternal PFOS and PFOA are low in Sapporo City, there is still a negative

1 association between maternal PFOS/PFOA levels and birth weight or cord-blood IgE levels (Okada
2 et al., 2012; Washino et al., 2009). As such, it remains important to assess risks associated with
3 prenatal exposure to PFAAs even when environmental levels are low.

4 A limitation of our study is that we did not analyze samples taken from individuals over
5 time (i.e., temporal trends within individuals were not assessed). Given that the participants were
6 selected at random, however, our temporal-trend measurements reflect the general population of
7 Hokkaido, Japan. A strength of our study is that it represents a large-scale cohort study of the general
8 population of Hokkaido, Japan.

9 In conclusion, maternal plasma samples obtained from Hokkaido, Japan, contained lower
10 levels of PFOS and PFOA than has been measured for similar samples from other regions of Japan
11 and around the world. Whereas concentrations of PFOS and PFOA decreased over time, levels of
12 PFNA and PFDA, which are longer-chain PFCAs, increased between 2003 and 2011. Future studies
13 must continue to monitor long-term human-exposure trends associated with long-chain PFCAs and
14 assess the effects of prenatal exposure to these compounds.

15

16 **Acknowledgements:** We thank all the participating mothers, the medical staff, and all persons
17 involved in the Hokkaido study on Environment and Children's Health.

18

19 **References**

20 Andersen CS, Fei C, Gamborg M, Nohr EA, Sørensen TI, Olsen J. Prenatal Exposures to

- 1 Perfluorinated chemicals and anthropometric measures in infancy. *Am J Epidemiol*
2 2010;172:1230–7.
- 3 Calafat AM, Wong LY, Kuklennyik Z, Reidy JA, Needham LL. Polyfluoroalkyl chemicals in the U.S.
4 population: data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES)
5 2003–2004 and comparisons with NHANES 1999-2000. *Environ Health Perspect*
6 2007;115:1596–602.
- 7 Chen MH, Ha EH, Wen TW, Su YN, Lien GW, Chen CY, et al. Perfluorinated compounds in
8 umbilical cord blood and adverse birth outcomes. *PLoS ONE* 2012;7:e42474.
- 9 Environment Canada, 2006. Order Adding Toxic Substances to Schedule 1 to the Canadian
10 Environmental Protection Act, 1999. *Canada Gazette Part II*. 140, 2147–53.
- 11 European Commission, 2006. DIRECTIVE 2006/122/EC OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT
12 AND OF THE COUNCIL. *Off J Europ Commun*. L 372/32, 27.12.2006.
- 13 Fei C, McLaughlin JK, Tarone RE, Olsen J. Perfluorinated chemicals and fetal growth: a study
14 within the Danish National Birth Cohort. *Environ Health Perspect* 2007;115:1677–82.
- 15 Fromme H, Tittlemier SA, Völkel W, Wilhelm M, Twardella D. Perfluorinated compounds--exposure
16 assessment for the general population in Western countries. *Int J Hyg Environ Health*
17 2009;212:239–70.
- 18 Fujii Y, Yan J, Harada KH, Hitomi T, Yang H, Wang P, et al. Levels and profiles of long-chain
19 perfluorinated carboxylic acids in human breast milk and infant formulas in East Asia.
20 *Chemosphere* 2012;86:315–21.

- 1 Glynn A, Berger U, Bignert A, Ullah S, Aune M, Lignell S, et al. Perfluorinated alkyl acids in blood
2 serum from primiparous women in Sweden: serial sampling during pregnancy and nursing,
3 and temporal trends 1996-2010. *Environ Sci Technol* 2012;46:9071–9.
- 4 Grandjean P, Andersen EW, Budtz-Jørgensen E, Nielsen F, Mølbak K, Weihe P, et al. Serum vaccine
5 antibody concentrations in children exposed to perfluorinated compounds. *JAMA*
6 2012;307:391–7.
- 7 Harada KH, Hitomi T, Niisoe T, Takanaka K, Kamiyama S, Watanabe T, et al. Odd-numbered
8 perfluorocarboxylates predominate over perfluorooctanoic acid in serum samples from
9 Japan, Korea and Vietnam. *Environ Int* 2011;37:1183–9.
- 10 Kato K, Wong LY, Jia LT, Kuklennyik Z, Calafat AM. Trends in exposure to polyfluoroalkyl
11 chemicals in the U.S. population: 1999–2008. *Environ Sci Technol* 2011;45:8037–45.
- 12 Keller JM, Calafat AM, Kato K, Ellefson ME, Reagen WK, Strynar M, et al. Determination of
13 perfluorinated alkyl acid concentrations in human serum and milk standard reference
14 materials. *Anal Bioanal Chem* 2010;397:439–51.
- 15 Kishi R, Sasaki S, Yoshioka E, Yuasa M, Sata F, Saijo Y, et al. Cohort Profile: The Hokkaido Study
16 on Environment and Children's Health in Japan. *Int J Epidemiol* 2011;40:611–18.
- 17 Lau C, Anitole K, Hodes C, Lai D, Pfahles-Hutchens A, Seed J. Perfluoroalkyl acids: a review of
18 monitoring and toxicological findings. *Toxicol Sci* 2007;99:366–94.
- 19 Liao C, Wang T, Cui L, Zhou Q, Duan S, Jiang G. Changes in synaptic transmission, calcium current,
20 and neurite growth by perfluorinated compounds are dependent on the chain length and

- 1 functional group. *Environ Sci Technol* 2009;43:2099–104.
- 2 Martin JW, Mabury SA, Solomon KR, Muir DCG. Bioconcentration and tissue distribution of
3 perfluorinated acids in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Environ Toxicol Chem*
4 2003;22:196–204.
- 5 Melzer D, Rice N, Depledge MH, Henley WE, Galloway TS. Association between serum
6 perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and thyroid disease in the U.S. National Health and
7 Nutrition Examination Survey. *Environ Health Perspect* 2010;118:686–92.
- 8 Midasch O, Drexler H, Hart N, Beckmann MW, Angerer J. Transplacental exposure of neonates to
9 perfluorooctanesulfonate and perfluorooctanoate: a pilot study. *Int Arch Occup Environ*
10 *Health* 2007;80:643–8.
- 11 Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry and Ministry of
12 the Environment, Japan. Act on the Evaluation of Chemical Substances and Regulation of
13 Their Manufacture, etc. in Japan 2010:
14 <http://www.env.go.jp/chemi/kagaku/hourei/seirei_H21_1st.pdf> (accessed 8 March 2013).
- 15 Monroy R, Morrison K, Teo K, Atkinson S, Kubwabo C, Stewart B, et al. Serum levels of
16 perfluoroalkyl compounds in human maternal and umbilical cord blood samples. *Environ*
17 *Res* 2008;108:56–62.
- 18 Nakata A, Saito K, Iwasaki Y, Ito R., Kishi R, Nakazawa H. Determination of Perfluorinated
19 Compounds in Human Milk and Evaluation of Their Transition from Maternal Plasma [in
20 Japanese]. *Bunseki Kagaku* 2009;58:653–659.

- 1 National Institute of Standards & Technology, Certificate of Analysis, Standard Reference Material®
2 1957:
3 <[https://www-s.nist.gov/srmors/certificates/1957.pdf?CFID=2513237&CFTOKEN=708251](https://www-s.nist.gov/srmors/certificates/1957.pdf?CFID=2513237&CFTOKEN=708251641b55516a-B7AE059E-EB51-FE1C-4B719AAC9CBA4868&jsessionid=f03031ca8f83c8c7883f2b7337674f79323f)
4 [641b55516a-B7AE059E-EB51-FE1C-4B719AAC9CBA4868&jsessionid=f03031ca8f83c8c](https://www-s.nist.gov/srmors/certificates/1957.pdf?CFID=2513237&CFTOKEN=708251641b55516a-B7AE059E-EB51-FE1C-4B719AAC9CBA4868&jsessionid=f03031ca8f83c8c7883f2b7337674f79323f)
5 [7883f2b7337674f79323f](https://www-s.nist.gov/srmors/certificates/1957.pdf?CFID=2513237&CFTOKEN=708251641b55516a-B7AE059E-EB51-FE1C-4B719AAC9CBA4868&jsessionid=f03031ca8f83c8c7883f2b7337674f79323f)> (accessed 19 April 2013)
- 6 Ohmori K, Kudo N, Katayama K, Kawashima Y. Comparison of the toxicokinetics between
7 perfluorocarboxylic acids with different carbon chain length. *Toxicology*
8 2003;184:135–140.
- 9 Okada E, Sasaki S, Saijo Y, Washino N, Miyashita C, Kobayashi S, et al. Prenatal exposure to
10 perfluorinated chemicals and relationship with allergies and infectious diseases in infants.
11 *Environ Res* 2012;112:118–25.
- 12 Olsen GW, Lange CC, Ellefson ME, Mair DC, Church TR, Goldberg CL, et al. Temporal trends of
13 perfluoroalkyl concentrations in American Red Cross adult blood donors, 2000–2010.
14 *Environ Sci Technol* 2012;46:6330–8.
- 15 Olsen GW, Mair DC, Church TR, Ellefson ME, Reagen WK, Boyd TM, et al. Decline in
16 perfluorooctanesulfonate and other polyfluoroalkyl chemicals in American Red Cross adult
17 blood donors, 2000–2006. *Environ Sci Technol* 2008;42:4989–95.
- 18 Prevedouros K, Cousins IT, Buck RC, Korzeniowski SH. Sources, fate and transport of
19 perfluorocarboxylates. *Environ Sci Technol* 2006;40:32–44.
- 20 Renner R. Scotchgard scotched—following the fabric protector's slippery trail to a new class of

- 1 pollutant. *Sci Am* 2001;284:18.
- 2 Sundström M, Ehresman DJ, Binert A, Butenhoff JL, Olsen GW, Chang SC. A temporal trend study
3 (1972–2008) of perfluorooctanesulfonate, perfluorohexanesulfonate, and perfluorooctanoate
4 in pooled human milk samples from Stockholm, Sweden. *Environ Int* 2011;37:178–83.
- 5 UNEP, 2007. POPRC3: Development of Risk Management Evaluation; UNEP/POPS/POPRC.3/20
6 <<http://chm.pops.int/Portals/0/Repository/poprc3/UNEP-POPS/POPRC.3-POPRC-3-5.English.PDF>> (accessed 8 March 2013).
- 7
- 8 United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2000. Perfluorooctane sulfonate: proposed
9 significant new use rule. *Fed. Reg.* 65:62319–33.
- 10 United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2006. 2010/15 PFOA Stewardship Program.
11 <<http://www.epa.gov/oppt/pfoa/pubs/stewardship/index.html>> (accessed 8 March 2013).
- 12 Wang M, Park JS, Petreas M. Temporal changes in the levels of perfluorinated compounds in
13 California women’s serum over the past 50 years. *Environ Sci Technol* 2011;45:7510–6.
- 14 Wang T, Wang YW, Liao CY, Cai YQ, Jiang GB. Perspectives on the inclusion of perfluorooctane
15 sulfonate into the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants. *Environ. Sci.*
16 *Technol* 2009;43:5171–5.
- 17 Washino N, Saijo Y, Sasaki S, Kato S, Ban S, Konishi K, et al. Correlations between prenatal
18 exposure to perfluorinated chemicals and reduced fetal growth. *Environ Health Perspect*
19 2009;117:660–7.
- 20 Wolf CJ, Takacs ML, Schmid JE, Lau C, Abbott BD. Activation of mouse and human peroxisome

1 proliferator-activated receptor alpha by perfluoroalkyl acids of different functional groups
2 and chain lengths. *Toxicol Sci* 2008;106:162–71.

3 Woodruff TJ, Zota AR, Schwartz JM. Environmental chemicals in pregnant women in the United
4 States: NHANES 2003-2004. *Environ Health Perspect* 2011;119:878–85.

5

Table 1

Mass transitions, MS/MS conditions, recovery, and detection limits for each PFAA and internal standard.

Compound	Precursor ion (<i>m/z</i>)	Product ion (<i>m/z</i>)	Cone (V)	Collision (eV)	Recovery (%)	RSD ^a (%)	IDL ^{b,c} (ng/mL)	MDL ^{d,e} (ng/mL)	SRM1957	
									This study ^f (ng/mL) (SE)	Reference values ^g (μg/kg)
PFCAs										
PFHxA	313	269	10	9	94.9	(9.29)	0.1	0.1	< 0.1	-
¹³ C ₂ -PFHxA	315	270	10	9	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFHpA	363	319	16	10	93.1	(9.09)	0.1	0.1	0.338 (0.022)	0.305
PFOA	413	368	17	11	94.9	(6.41)	0.1	0.2	4.76 (0.23)	5.00
¹³ C ₄ -PFOA	417	372	17	11	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFNA	463	419	15	11	92.9	(5.74)	0.1	0.3	0.924 (0.049)	0.88
¹³ C ₅ -PFNA	468	423	15	11	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFDA	513	469	15	13	94.5	(4.90)	0.1	0.1	0.267 (0.053)	0.39
¹³ C ₂ -PFDA	515	470	15	13	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFUnDA	563	519	15	13	85.8	(4.60)	0.1	0.1	0.165 (0.046)	0.174
¹³ C ₂ -PFUnDA	565	520	15	13	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFDoDA	613	569	20	13	90.1	(5.55)	0.1	0.1	0.141 (0.007)	-
PFTTrDA	713	669	22	15	85.7	(5.59)	0.1	0.1	0.110 (0.009)	-
PFTeDA	663	619	15	14	100.0	(4.23)	0.1	0.1	< 0.1	-
PFSAAs										
PFHxS	399	80	50	30	91.5	(6.13)	0.2	0.2	4.01 (0.27)	4.00
¹³ C ₃ -PFHxS	402	80	50	30	-	-	-	-	-	-
PFOS	499	80	45	40	75.2	(4.76)	0.2	0.3	22.3 ^h (1.09)	21.1
¹³ C ₄ -PFOS	503	80	45	40	-	-	-	-	-	-

^aRSD: Relative standard deviation^bIDL: Instrument detection limit^c5-μL injection^dMDL: Method detection limit^e0.5-mL plasma sample^f0.5-mL serum sample of NIST SRM^gReference values in NIST, Certificate of Analysis, SRM® 1957^hPFOS concentration reflects integration of peak areas for both the branched and linear isomers

Table 2

The study population.

Year	n	Age (years)			Parity	
		Mean	(SD ^a)	Range	Primiparous	Multiparous
2003	30	29.7	(4.8)	23–39	15	15
2005	30	29.2	(4.8)	19–37	17	13
2007	30	30.6	(3.8)	24–37	18	12
2009	30	29.6	(5.8)	19–38	16	14
2011	30	32.5	(3.9)	25–40	9	21

^aSD: standard deviation.

Table 3

Concentration of each PFAA compound in plasma collected from pregnant women from 2003 to 2011.

Compound	Year	Detection		Concentration (ng/mL)						Adjusted concentration (ng/mL) ^a		<i>p</i> for trend ^c
		No	(%)	Range	Mean	(SD) ^b	25th	50th	75th	Mean	(95%CI)	
PFCAs												
PFHxA (C6 ^e)	2003	8	(26.7)	< 0.1–0.16	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	0.11	< 0.1	-	-
	2005	5	(16.7)	< 0.1–0.14	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2007	1	(3.3)	< 0.1–0.12	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2009	0	(0)	< 0.1–< 0.1	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2011	6	(20)	< 0.1–0.13	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
PFHpA (C7 ^e)	2003	17	(56.7)	< 0.1–0.26	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	0.11	0.16	< 0.1	-	-
	2005	1	(3.3)	< 0.1–0.11	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2007	0	(0)	< 0.1–< 0.1	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2009	2	(6.7)	< 0.1–0.14	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	-
	2011	15	(50.0)	< 0.1–0.20	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	0.12	< 0.1	-	-
PFOA (C8 ^e)	2003	30	(100)	0.71–6.88	2.05	(1.26)	1.33	1.93	2.18	1.77	1.51–2.08	0.023
	2005	30	(100)	0.70–2.35	1.25	(0.44)	0.88	1.16	1.56	1.15	0.98–1.35	
	2007	30	(100)	0.55–4.89	1.56	(0.78)	1.09	1.44	1.71	1.36	1.16–1.60	
	2009	30	(100)	0.30–5.45	1.36	(0.99)	0.72	1.19	1.68	1.09	0.93–1.27	
	2011	30	(100)	0.54–2.93	1.42	(0.63)	0.98	1.27	1.77	1.35	1.13–1.61	
PFNA (C9 ^e)	2003	30	(100)	0.41–3.14	1.13	(0.66)	0.72	0.92	1.14	0.98	0.84–1.13	< 0.001
	2005	30	(100)	0.49–1.52	0.81	(0.25)	0.65	0.74	0.91	0.75	0.64–0.86	
	2007	30	(100)	0.57–6.74	1.31	(1.06)	0.90	1.19	1.33	1.11	0.96–1.28	
	2009	30	(100)	0.42–3.57	1.32	(0.59)	0.98	1.24	1.45	1.20	1.04–1.39	
	2011	30	(100)	0.60–2.54	1.34	(0.57)	0.82	1.26	1.73	1.26	1.07–1.48	
PFDA (C10 ^e)	2003	30	(100)	0.41–1.20	0.60	(0.18)	0.49	0.56	0.68	0.58	0.52–0.65	0.016
	2005	30	(100)	0.26–0.66	0.42	(0.09)	0.36	0.40	0.48	0.41	0.36–0.46	
	2007	30	(100)	0.25–1.25	0.54	(0.20)	0.40	0.52	0.61	0.50	0.45–0.56	
	2009	30	(100)	0.28–1.24	0.57	(0.20)	0.42	0.51	0.67	0.53	0.48–0.60	
	2011	30	(100)	0.29–1.27	0.71	(0.26)	0.50	0.69	0.89	0.66	0.59–0.75	
PFUnDA (C11 ^e)	2003	30	(100)	0.71–2.22	1.34	(0.41)	1.09	1.26	1.64	1.27	1.10–1.47	0.876
	2005	30	(100)	0.55–1.64	1.08	(0.31)	0.79	1.13	1.30	1.03	0.89–1.19	
	2007	30	(100)	0.47–2.28	1.37	(0.52)	0.84	1.44	1.87	1.24	1.08–1.44	
	2009	30	(100)	0.42–2.90	1.19	(0.53)	0.77	1.21	1.46	1.09	0.95–1.26	
	2011	30	(100)	0.43–3.40	1.45	(0.70)	0.90	1.30	1.80	1.29	1.10–1.52	

PFDoDA (C12 ^c)	2003	30	(100)	0.17–0.35	0.24	(0.05)	0.21	0.23	0.27	0.24	0.21–0.29	0.913
	2005	14	(46.7)	< 0.1–0.15	0.08	(0.04)	< 0.1	< 0.1	0.13	< 0.1	-	
	2007	19	(63.3)	< 0.1–0.30	0.12	(0.06)	< 0.1	0.11	0.16	< 0.1	< 0.1–0.12	
	2009	18	(60.0)	< 0.1–0.21	0.11	(0.06)	< 0.1	0.12	0.15	< 0.1	< 0.1–0.11	
	2011	29	(96.7)	< 0.1–0.51	0.25	(0.08)	0.22	0.24	0.30	0.25	0.21–0.30	
PFTrDA (C13 ^c)	2003	30	(100)	0.25–0.81	0.41	(0.12)	0.32	0.40	0.47	0.40	0.35–0.47	0.055
	2005	29	(96.7)	< 0.1–0.40	0.24	(0.08)	0.18	0.24	0.29	0.23	0.20–0.27	
	2007	29	(96.7)	< 0.1–0.80	0.27	(0.14)	0.18	0.25	0.34	0.25	0.21–0.29	
	2009	28	(93.3)	< 0.1–0.48	0.25	(0.11)	0.17	0.25	0.34	0.23	0.20–0.27	
	2011	29	(96.7)	< 0.1–0.78	0.36	(0.14)	0.28	0.33	0.44	0.33	0.28–0.39	
PFTeDA (C14 ^c)	2003	16	(53.3)	< 0.1–0.16	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	0.11	0.12	< 0.1	-	-
	2005	0	(0)	< 0.1–< 0.1	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	
	2007	0	(0)	< 0.1–< 0.1	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	
	2009	0	(0)	< 0.1–< 0.1	< 0.1	-	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	-	
	2011	4	(13.3)	< 0.1–0.15	0.11	(0.03)	0.11	0.12	0.13	< 0.1	-	
PFSAAs												
PFHxS (C6 ^c)	2003	29	(96.7)	< 0.2–0.60	0.40	(0.11)	0.34	0.40	0.49	0.37	0.30–0.45	0.106
	2005	22	(73.3)	< 0.2–0.53	0.27	(0.13)	< 0.2	0.26	0.35	0.22	0.18–0.27	
	2007	24	(80)	< 0.2–0.61	0.28	(0.13)	0.22	0.27	0.35	0.24	0.20–0.29	
	2009	23	(76.7)	< 0.2–0.77	0.30	(0.16)	< 0.2	0.29	0.39	0.25	0.21–0.30	
	2011	23	(76.7)	< 0.2–0.78	0.33	(0.18)	< 0.2	0.33	0.46	0.28	0.22–0.35	
PFOS (C8 ^c) ^d	2003	30	(100)	3.53–14.1	7.76	(2.46)	5.72	7.66	9.50	7.66	6.92–8.39	< 0.001
	2005	30	(100)	3.17–13.1	6.20	(2.24)	4.84	5.37	7.37	5.99	5.25–6.74	
	2007	30	(100)	3.11–10.8	6.23	(2.05)	4.37	6.30	7.59	6.08	5.34–6.81	
	2009	30	(100)	2.43–9.69	4.54	(1.48)	3.31	4.48	5.30	4.43	3.70–5.16	
	2011	30	(100)	1.31–8.46	3.90	(1.87)	2.49	3.52	5.05	3.86	3.04–4.68	
ΣPFAsAs												
	2003	-	-	7.51–24.33	14.19	(3.90)	11.37	13.97	16.19	14.05	12.90–15.20	< 0.001
	2005	-	-	6.40–18.01	10.51	(2.73)	8.78	9.65	12.24	10.18	9.01–11.35	
	2007	-	-	6.15–23.30	11.83	(3.29)	9.60	11.76	13.41	11.52	10.36–12.67	
	2009	-	-	5.23–18.83	9.80	(2.92)	8.03	9.21	11.11	9.64	8.50–10.78	
	2011	-	-	4.42–18.22	10.02	(3.57)	7.37	9.07	12.70	10.13	8.85–11.42	

^aAdjusted concentrations were evaluated with respect to the average maternal age of 30.32 years and parity by analysis of covariance.

^bSD: standard deviation.

^cLinear regressions to detect temporal trends from 2003 to 2011.

^dPFOS concentration reflects integration of peak areas for both the branched and linear isomers

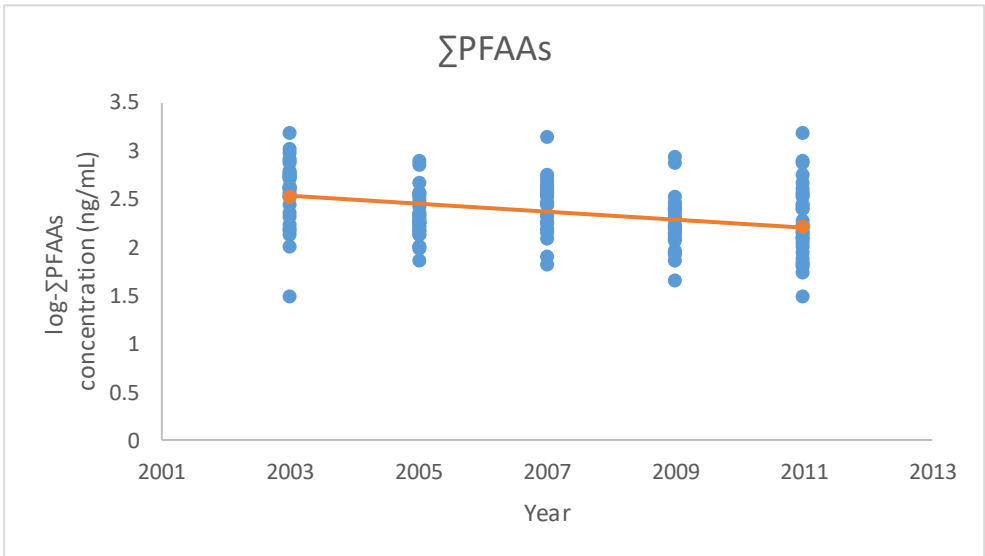
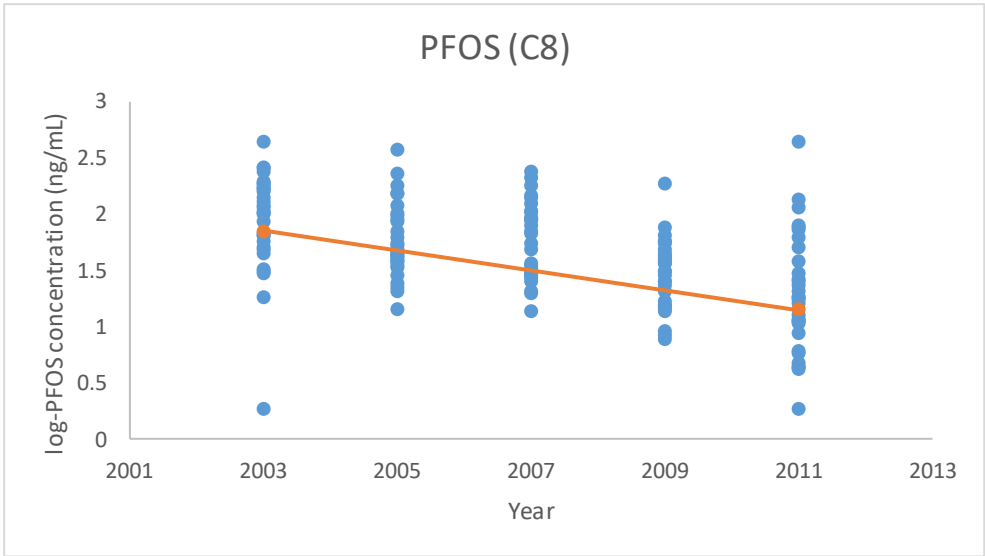
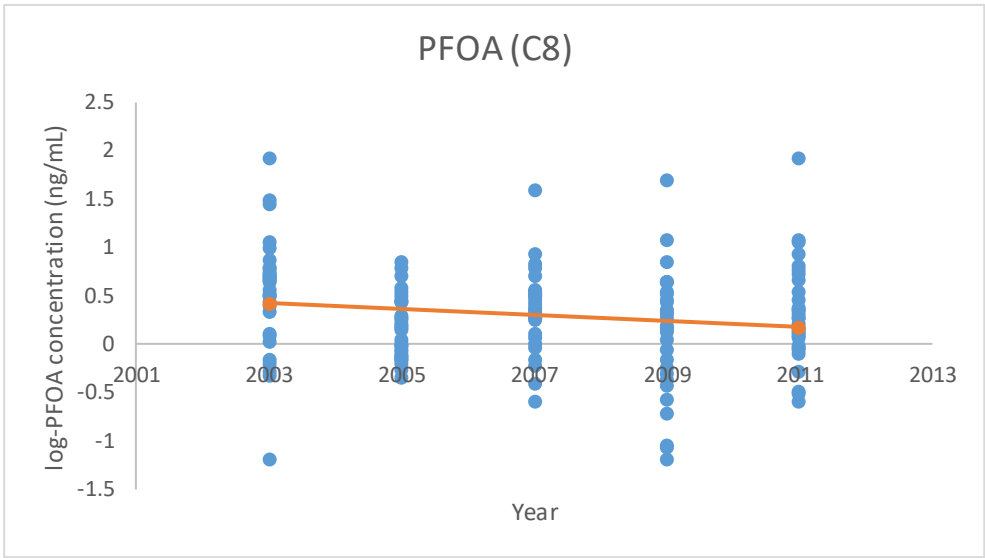
^eC: carbon chain length.

Table 4

Correlations between levels of PFAA compounds with different chain lengths.

	PFOA (C8 ^a)		PFNA (C9 ^a)		PFDA (C10 ^a)		PFUnDA (C11 ^a)		PFDoDA (C12 ^a)		PFTrDA (C13 ^a)		PFHxS (C6 ^a)		PFOS (C8 ^a)	
	ρ		ρ		ρ		ρ		ρ		ρ		ρ		ρ	
PFCAs																
PFOA (C8 ^a)	1.00															
PFNA (C9 ^a)	0.492	***	1.00													
PFDA (C10 ^a)	0.480	***	0.702	***	1.00											
PFUnDA (C11 ^a)	0.201	*	0.482	***	0.698	***	1.00									
PFDoDA (C12 ^a)	0.288	***	0.271	***	0.616	***	0.459	***	1.00							
PFTrDA (C13 ^a)	0.128		0.227	**	0.548	***	0.675	***	0.707	***	1.00					
PFSAAs																
PFHxS (C6 ^a)	0.268	***	0.202	*	0.239	**	0.291	***	0.264	**	0.329	***	1.00			
PFOS (C8 ^a)	0.404	***	0.128		0.166	*	0.273	***	0.043		0.202	*	0.408	***	1.00	

^aC: carbon chain length. ρ : Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$



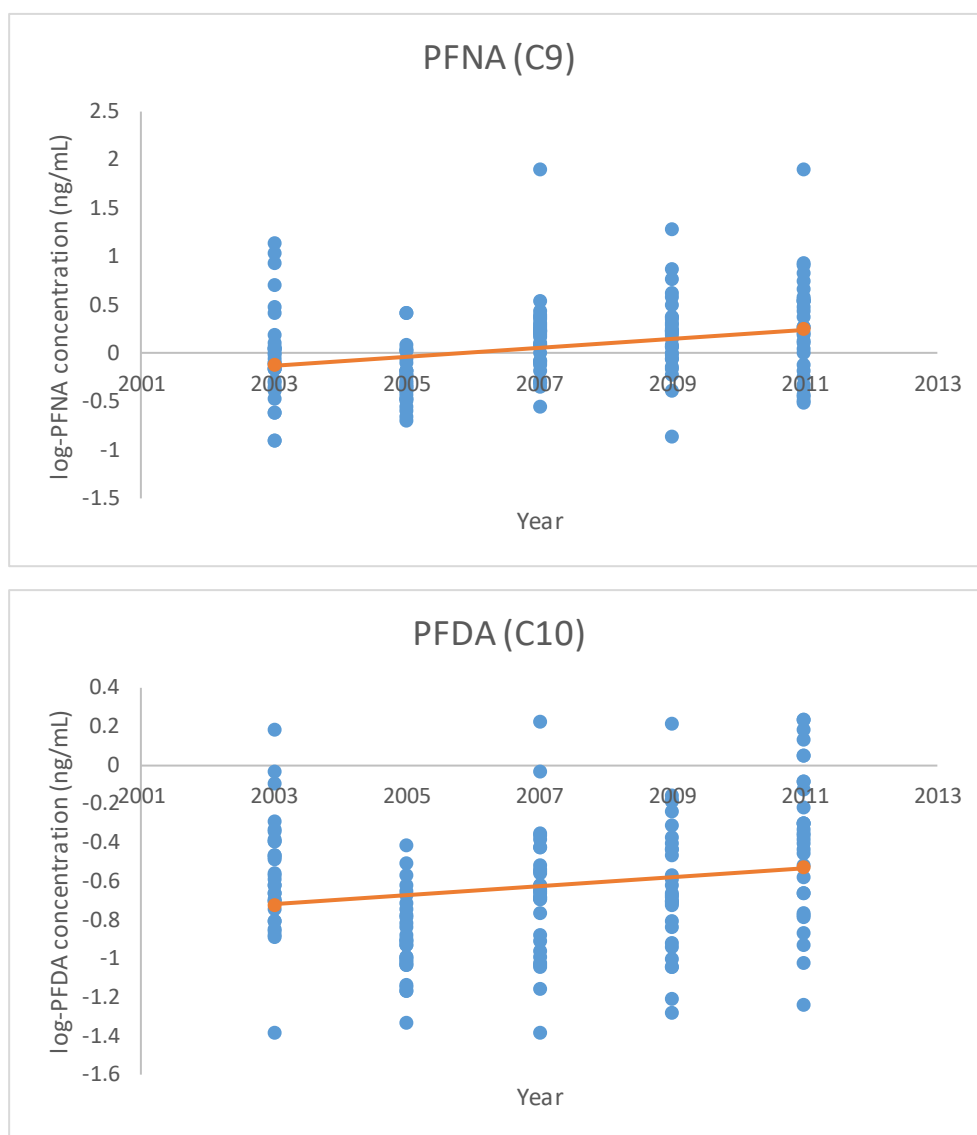


Fig. 1. Temporal trends associated with changes in PFOA, PFOS, Σ PFAs, PFNA, and PFDA, levels in maternal plasma adjusted for age and parity between 2003 and 2011. Solid lines denote the predicted fit from linear regression adjusted for age and parity (\log -PFOA = $-0.031 \text{ year} + 0.447$; \log -PFOS = $-0.088 \text{ year} + 1.943$; \log - Σ PFAs = $-0.040 \text{ year} + 2.574$; \log -PFNA = $0.046 \text{ year} - 0.171$; and \log -PFDA = $0.024 \text{ year} - 0.747$). The letter 'C' indicates the carbon chain length of each compound.

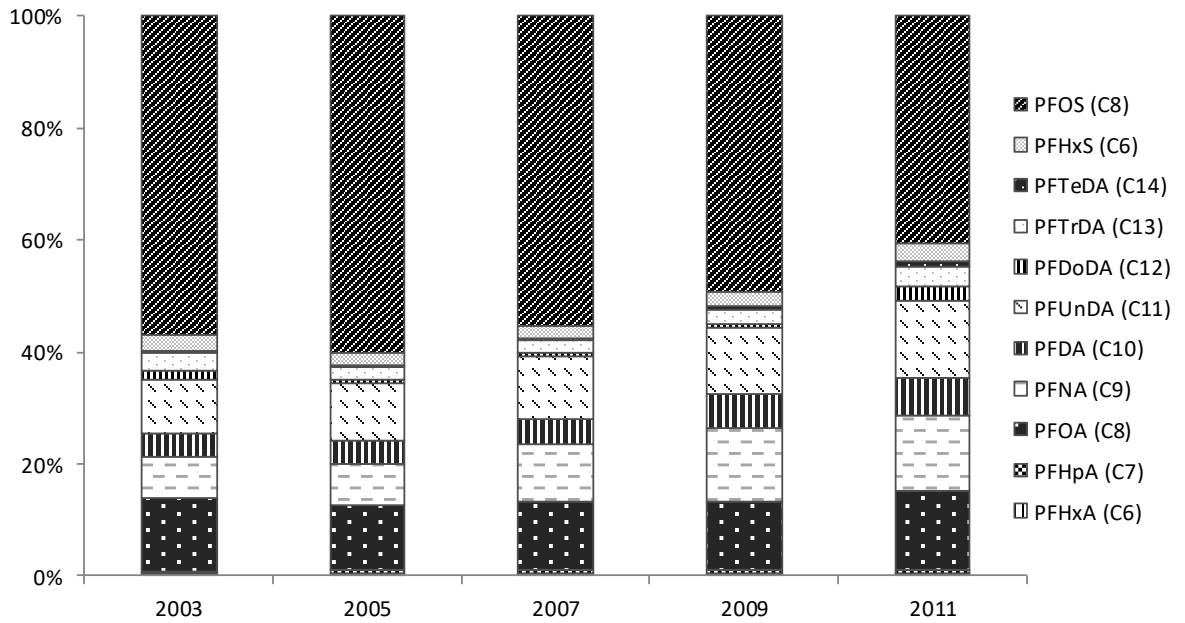


Fig. 2. The composition of total PFAA levels between 2003 and 2011. Relative levels of each PFAA (with Σ PFAA concentration set to 100%) were determined every other year between 2003 and 2011. The letter 'C' indicates the carbon chain length of each compound.