



Title	Effects of in utero exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls, methylmercury, and polyunsaturated fatty acids on birth size
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1 Effects of *in utero* exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls, methylmercury, and  
2 polyunsaturated fatty acids on birth size

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31 **Highlights**

- 32 ● The risk of small for gestational age by weight decreased with increasing hair  
33 mercury concentration.
- 34 ● The concentrations of mercury in maternal hair had no association with birth  
35 weight.
- 36 ● The concentrations of polychlorinated biphenyls in maternal blood had no  
37 association with birth size.

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40 **Abstract**

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The adverse effects of *in utero* exposure to polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) or methylmercury (MeHg), and the beneficial effects of nutrients from maternal fish intake might have opposing influences on fetal growth. In this study, we assessed the effects of *in utero* exposure to PCBs and MeHg on birth size in the Japanese population, which is known to have a high frequency of fish consumption. The concentrations of PCBs and polyunsaturated fatty acids in maternal blood, and the total mercury in hair (as a biomarker of MeHg exposure) were measured during pregnancy and at delivery. Maternal intakes of fish (subtypes: fatty and lean) and shellfishes were calculated from a food frequency questionnaire administered at delivery. Newborn anthropometric measurement data were obtained from birth records. The associations between chemical exposures and birth size were analyzed by using multiple regression analysis with adjustment for confounding factors among 367 mother–newborn pairs. The birth weight was  $3073 \pm 37$  g (mean  $\pm$  SD). The incidence of babies small for gestational age (SGA) by weight was 4.9%. The median concentrations of total PCBs and hair mercury were 108 ng/g lipid and 1.41  $\mu$ g/g, respectively. There was no overall association between mercury concentrations and birth weight, birth length, chest circumference, and head circumference. We observed that the risk of SGA by weight decreased with increasing mercury concentration in regression analyses with adjustment for polyunsaturated fatty acids. Our results suggest that the beneficial effect of essential nutrition may mask the adverse effects of MeHg on birth size. The concentrations of PCBs had no association with birth size.

Keywords: polychlorinated biphenyls, methylmercury, birth size, small for gestational age, *in-utero* exposure, polyunsaturated fatty acids

## 1. Introduction

Newborn anthropometric measurements (weight, length, and head and chest circumference) reflect fetal growth *in utero*, and are reported to predict infant survival, growth, morbidity, and neurobehavioral performance in early life (Kajantie et al., 2005; Barker, 2006). In Japan, public health concerns have been raised about a marked increase in the prevalence of babies with low birth weight, from 4.2% to 8.3% between 1980 and 2000 (Takimoto et al., 2005). Birth cohort studies reported discrepant findings about the association between maternal intake of fish/seafood during pregnancy and birth size: some found a significant positive association (Olsen et al., 1990, 1993; Olsen and Secher, 2002; Thorsdottir et al., 2004; Drouillet-Pinard et al., 2010; Brantsaeter et al., 2012; Leventakou et al., 2014), whereas others found a null or negative association (Rylander et al., 2000; Oken et al., 2004; Guldner et al., 2007; Halldorsson et al., 2007; Mendez et al., 2010; Heppe et al., 2011).

A plausible explanation is that fish/seafood is a nutrient source of polyunsaturated fatty acids for the mother and, at the same time, exposes the fetus to polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) (Grandjean et al., 2001; Halldorsson et al., 2008; Papadopoulou et al., 2013) and methylmercury (MeHg) (Drouillet-Pinard et al., 2010; van Wijngaarden et al., 2014; Vejrup et al., 2014). The adverse effects of *in utero* exposure to environmental contaminants and the positive effects of the nutrients from fish might have opposing influences on fetal growth (Grandjean et al., 2001; Halldorsson et al., 2008; Papadopoulou et al., 2013). PCBs are classified as persistent organic pollutants as they are lipophilic, stable, and show widespread contamination in the environment, food web, and human tissues (Sonneborn et al. 2008). Hg in fish muscle is mostly present in the form of MeHg, which is bioconcentrated up through the aquatic food web, eventually resulting in exposure through the human diet (van Wijngaarden et al., 2014). Fetal exposure to PCBs and MeHg *in utero* has the potential for serious health concerns because these pollutants can cross the placental and blood–brain barriers to reach the immature fetal organs and tissues, which are particularly susceptible to the effects of these toxins (Zahir et al. 2005; National Research Council 2000; Wojtyniak et al., 2010; Casas et al., 2015).

The toxic mechanism of action of PCBs has not yet been fully elucidated; however, it is suspected that their estrogenic activity may play a role (Decastro et al., 2006). Experimental studies have demonstrated that PCBs display endocrine-disrupting effects in their ability to stimulate estrogen and can also function as xenoestrogens (Bonefeld-Jorgensen et al., 2001; Cooke et al., 2001). Estrogenic and antiestrogenic PCBs may have opposite associations with infant anthropometrics (Cooke et al., 2001). Other adverse effects induced by PCBs include dioxin-like activities such as activation of aryl hydrocarbon receptors (Van den Berg et al., 2006), and the potential toxic effects induced by dioxin-like PCB congeners may be stronger than those of non-dioxin-like (NDL) congeners (Giesy and Kannan, 1998). On the other hand, in our previous study, we found that fish/seafood consumption was associated with the concentration of NDL congeners (Miyashita et al., 2015). PCB 153 has been the most frequently used indicator of the effects on fetuses of exposure to PCBs in epidemiological studies. In previous studies, specific PCB congeners 153, 156, 118, 74, and 77 had potential estrogenic and antiestrogenic activities (Cooke et al., 2001; Decastro et al., 2006) and significant associations with birth size (Wojtyniak et al., 2010; Casas et al., 2015).

114 Epidemiological studies have previously reported inconsistent findings about  
115 the effect of prenatal exposure to PCBs at background levels on birth weight: some  
116 found significant inverse associations (Patandin et al., 1998; Rylander et al., 1998;  
117 Karmaus and Zhu, 2004; Sagiv et al., 2007; Halldorsson et al., 2008; Sonneborn et al.,  
118 2008; Tan et al., 2009; Brucker-Davis et al., 2010; Papadopoulou et al., 2013), whereas  
119 others found a null or positive association (Vartiainen et al., 1998; Grandjean et al.,  
120 2001; Gladen et al., 2003; Longnecker et al., 2005; Givens et al., 2007; Khanjani and  
121 Sim, 2007; Wolff et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2010; Lopez-Espinosa et al., 2011; Kezios  
122 et al., 2012; Lignell et al., 2013; Hisada et al., 2014). In populations exposed to  
123 relatively high MeHg levels because of high consumption of contaminated seafood or  
124 accidental poisoning, epidemiologic studies have reported that prenatal MeHg exposure  
125 can lead to harmful effects on children's health such as impaired neurobehavioral  
126 development, congenital malformations, and restriction of fetal growth (National  
127 Research Council 2000). However, limited epidemiological studies reported no  
128 conclusive evidence on the effects of low-level MeHg exposure on birth size  
129 (Drouillet-Pinard et al., 2010; Gundacker et al., 2010; Ramirez et al., 2000; Ramon et al.,  
130 2009; van Wijngaarden et al., 2014; Vejrup et al., 2014; Zahir et al. 2005).

131 Moreover, a balance of the opposite effects of contaminants and fish/seafood  
132 intakes across populations consuming different types of fish/seafood may have resulted  
133 in the discrepant finding among the previous birth cohort studies (Mahaffey, 2004;  
134 Halldorsson et al., 2008; Ramon et al., 2009). A meta-analysis study including 19  
135 European cohorts described that the most pronounced effect on birth weight was  
136 observed for fatty fish, which is known to be a main source of long-chain  
137 polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs) (Leventakou et al., 2014). Systematic reviews  
138 have suggested that maternal intake of omega-3 fatty acid supplements during  
139 pregnancy is associated with small but significant increases in infant birth size  
140 (Makrides et al., 2006; Szajewska et al., 2006; Salvig and Lamont, 2011). However, in  
141 some Asian countries, including Japan, where there is a high frequency of fish  
142 consumption (Miyashita et al., 2015), there is insufficient evidence about the effect of *in*  
143 *utero* exposure to PCBs and MeHg on birth size.

144 Thus, the aim of this study is to assess the effects of prenatal exposure to PCBs  
145 and MeHg on newborn anthropometric measurements, as well as the incidence of babies  
146 born small for gestational age (SGA), taking into account the biomarker of LCPUFAs  
147 among Japanese pregnant women.

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## 150 2. Materials and Methods

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### 152 2.1. Study population

153 The subjects in this study were all currently enrolled in the Hokkaido Study on  
154 Environment and Children's Health. A total of 514 pregnant Japanese women were  
155 recruited at the Sapporo Toho Hospital in Hokkaido, Japan, from July 2002 to  
156 September 2005 (Kishi et al., 2013). An overview of this study is shown in Figure 1.  
157 During their last trimester, the subjects completed a self-administered questionnaire on  
158 demographic characteristics, socioeconomic status, tobacco smoking and alcohol habits,  
159 and frequency of consumption during pregnancy of food items such as shoreline fish  
160 (e.g., saury, Pacific herring, or mackerel), pelagic fish (e.g., tuna, bonito, or salmon),  
161 beef, pork, chicken, milk, and eggs. The medical records for 504 mother–newborn pairs  
162 were used to gather information on delivery characteristics, including maternal height,  
163 maternal prepregnancy weight, pregnancy complications, gestational age, infant sex,  
164 parity, congenital anomalies, and newborn anthropometric measurements.

165 Within 5 days after delivery, the mothers completed a food frequency  
166 questionnaire (FFQ) to estimate their fish/seafood intake and history of synthetic hair  
167 waving ( $n = 430$ ). The FFQ provided information about the frequency and portion size  
168 for maternal fish intake (Supplementary Table 1). The estimated daily fish intake  
169 (g/day) was calculated from the FFQ (Yasutake et al., 2003). We divided maternal fish  
170 intake to four subtypes: fatty fish, lean fish, shellfishes, and whole. The fatty fish group  
171 consisted of tuna, salmon, yellowtail, sardine, mackerel, saury, eel, Atka mackerel,  
172 shishamo smelt, pacific herring, and trout. The lean fish group included bonito, sea  
173 bream, flatfish, flounder, horse mackerel, carp, sweetfish, crucian carp, and Pacific cod.  
174 The shellfishes group included cuttlefish, octopus, crab, shrimp, shellfish, and fish  
175 products (Leventakou et al., 2014).

176 This study was conducted with written informed consent from all subjects and  
177 was approved by the institutional ethics board for epidemiological studies at the  
178 Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine.

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### 180 2.2. Exposure assessment

181 A 40-mL blood sample was taken from the maternal peripheral vein during the  
182 last trimester. In subjects with pregnancy-related anemia, the samples were taken during  
183 hospitalization immediately after delivery. Consequently, 356 samples were taken  
184 during pregnancy and 148 samples were taken after delivery. All samples were stored at  
185  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until needed for analysis. The extraction, purification, and analysis of PCBs from  
186 whole blood specimens were performed by using a previously reported method (Iida  
187 and Todaka, 2003; Todaka et al., 2008a,b). The concentrations of PCBs were analyzed  
188 at the Fukuoka Institute of Health and Environmental Sciences by using high-resolution  
189 gas chromatography/high-resolution mass spectrometry of 5-g blood samples. To  
190 evaluate the accuracy and reliability of the PCB analysis, quality control studies were  
191 completed and compared against those done at three other laboratories. The average  
192 variation among the concentrations of PCBs in human blood samples was considered  
193 acceptable if it was within 10% (Kajiwara et al., 2008, 2009). The concentrations of 70  
194 PCBs congeners were measured in 426 blood samples and adjusted for lipids (pg/g  
195 lipid). The sample values below the detection limit for the 70 PCBs congeners were  
196 assigned a value of one-half the detection limit. The remaining samples were not

197 analyzed because of unavailable or insufficient sample volumes (<5 g) for measurement.  
198 PCB congeners were separated into four groups based on their suggested biological  
199 activities and the effect of exposure to them due to fish intake: estrogenic, antiestrogenic,  
200 dioxin-like, and NDL PCBs (Cooke et al., 2001). The estrogenic group included  
201 congeners 4, 10, 5, 8, 15, 17, 18, 31, 44, 47, 48, 52, 70, 99, 101, 136, 153, and 188. The  
202 antiestrogenic group included congeners 77, 110, 105, 114, 126, 156, 171, and 169. The  
203 dioxin-like PCBs included congeners 77, 81, 105, 114, 118, 123, 126, 156, 157, 167,  
204 169, and 189 (Van den Berg et al., 2006). NDL PCBs had 58 congeners excluding the  
205 12 dioxin-like PCBs from all 70 congeners measured in our study (Supplementary Table  
206 2) (Miyashita et al., 2015). Additionally, we used the specific PCB congeners 153 (main  
207 contributor), 156, 118, 74, and 77 as biomarkers of exposure to PCBs.

208 Maternal hair was collected within 5 days after delivery (n = 430). For the 1 cm  
209 of hair closest to the scalp, the concentrations of total Hg were determined by using the  
210 oxygen combustion-gold amalgamation method with the MD-1 atomic absorption  
211 detector (Nippon Instruments Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan) at the National Institute for  
212 Minamata Disease (Yasutake et al., 2003). The total Hg concentration in hair was used  
213 as a convenient biomarker of MeHg exposure (van Wijngaarden et al., 2014) because  
214 >90% of the total Hg in hair is MeHg that is covalently bound to the cysteine residue of  
215 hair protein (National Research Council, 2000).

216

### 217 2.3. Maternal polyunsaturated fatty acid assessment

218 The fatty acid levels in maternal whole blood were determined by using gas  
219 chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) as described in detail in our previous  
220 study (Nakashima et al., 2013). Briefly, whole blood lipid was extracted from 25  $\mu$ L  
221 blood (Folch et al., 1957), mixed with 1.2 mL methanol, 75  $\mu$ L acetyl chloride, and 75  
222  $\mu$ L of 10  $\mu$ g/100  $\mu$ L tricosanoic acid ethyl ester/methanol (internal standard). After  
223 adding *n*-hexane (500  $\mu$ L) and centrifugation of the sample, the upper organic layer was  
224 collected and transferred into another vial. The *n*-hexane extraction was repeated once,  
225 and then the concentration of fatty acid methyl ester in the *n*-hexane layer was measured  
226 with GC–MS. Finally, nine fatty acid species were measured including the omega-6  
227 fatty acids, palmitoleic and oleic acids, linoleic acid, and arachidonic acid (AA), and the  
228 omega-3 fatty acids,  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid, eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and  
229 docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). The detection rates for eight fatty acids were >99.0% and  
230 that for EPA was 97.8% (Kishi et al., 2015). We used EPA + DHA, AA, omega-3 fatty  
231 acids, and omega-6 fatty acids as biomarkers of maternal LCPUFAs (van Wijngaarden  
232 et al., 2014; Vejrup et al., 2014).

233

### 234 2.4. Statistical analyses

235 Some subjects were excluded from analyses because of pregnancy-induced  
236 hypertension (n = 11), diabetes mellitus (n = 1), fetal heart failure (n = 1), and multiple  
237 births (n = 7). The final study population comprised 367 mother–newborn pairs with  
238 completed questionnaire data and birth records, whose PCB and hair Hg concentrations  
239 were measured (Figure 1). SGA by weight was defined as a birth weight less than the  
240 10th percentile for the gestational age at delivery, based on growth charts specific for  
241 newborn sex and maternal parity for birth size standards by gestational age for Japanese  
242 neonates. SGA by length was defined as birth length less than the 10th percentile for the  
243 gestational age at delivery, based on growth charts for birth size standards by gestational



244 age for Japanese neonates (Itabashi et al., 2014). Associations between subject  
245 characteristics and concentrations of PCBs and hair Hg were evaluated by using the  
246 Mann–Whitney U-test and Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient. Associations  
247 between subject characteristics and birth size were evaluated by using Student’s t-test,  
248 Pearson correlation, Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient, and one-way analysis of  
249 variance. For linear regression analyses, we used  $\log_{10}$ -transformed values for  
250 concentrations of PCBs and hair Hg, as well as LCPUFAs, because these variables  
251 displayed a skewed distribution. Associations between PCBs or hair Hg (expressed as  
252 continuous concentrations) and newborn anthropometric measurements were evaluated  
253 by using linear regression analyses. For logistic regression analyses, we used  
254 concentrations of PCBs and hair Hg, divided into quartiles, to evaluate potential  
255 nonlinear relationships. The associations between PCBs or hair Hg and the incidence of  
256 babies born SGA by weight and length were evaluated by using logistic regression  
257 analyses. All regression analyses were conducted with or without adjustment of  
258 factors—chosen for their significant associations with exposure and birth size in this  
259 study ( $p < 0.05$ )—and possible confounding factors as reported in previous studies  
260 (Drouillet-Pinard et al., 2010; Halldorsson et al., 2008; Ramon et al., 2009;  
261 Papadopoulou et al., 2013; van Wijngaarden et al., 2014; Vejrup et al., 2014).  
262 Specifically, the adjusted factors included maternal age (continuous), height  
263 (continuous), prepregnancy weight (continuous), smoking during pregnancy (yes/no),  
264 alcohol consumption during pregnancy (yes/no), household income (less than or greater  
265 than 5 million Yen annually), blood sampling period (during pregnancy or after  
266 delivery), birth order (first-born or later children) reported as maternal parity, infant sex,  
267 gestational age, maternal LCPUFAs, and total 70 PCBs or hair Hg. The logistic  
268 regression analysis for SGA by weight was not adjusted for birth order, infant sex, and  
269 gestational age, because SGA by weight was defined based on growth charts for birth  
270 size standards by gestational age specific for newborn sex and maternal parity.  
271 Furthermore, the logistic regression analysis for SGA by length was not adjusted for  
272 gestational age, because SGA by length was defined based on growth charts for birth  
273 size standards by gestational age.

274 A p-value of  $<0.05$  was considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses  
275 were performed by using the Statistics Package for Social Sciences (version 19.0J; IBM,  
276 Armonk, NY, USA) software for Windows.

### 3. Results

The subjects' characteristics are described in Table 1. The percentage of babies born SGA by weight was 4.9% and that of babies SGA by length was 11.7%. Table 2 shows the distribution of maternal biomarkers of fatty acid. The median concentration of the total 70 PCBs in the maternal blood was 108 ng/g lipid (Supplementary Table 2). The distributions of PCB concentrations are shown in Table 3. The geometric mean concentrations of estrogenic, antiestrogenic, dioxin-like, and NDL PCBs were 27.9, 3.98, 10.9, and 93.8 ng/g lipid, respectively, and that of hair Hg was 1.34  $\mu\text{g/g}$ . The concentrations of total PCBs significantly increased with maternal age and intake of fish, EPA + DHA, and omega-3 fatty acids during pregnancy. The concentrations of hair Hg significantly increased with fish intake during pregnancy (Table 4). The concentrations of the total 70 PCBs and hair Hg in subjects with no history of parity; high household income; frequent consumption of pelagic fish, beef, or milk ( $\geq$ once/week); or for non-SGA babies by weight were significantly higher than those in subjects with a history of parity; low income; infrequent consumption of pelagic fish, beef, or milk; or SGA babies by weight, respectively (Table 4). The newborn anthropometric measurements significantly increased with maternal height, prepregnancy weight, male sex, birth by vaginal delivery, and increasing gestational age (Supplementary Table 3). Incidences of SGA babies by weight and length significantly reduced with increased maternal prepregnancy weight and male sex (Supplementary Table 4).

We found no associations between the concentrations of estrogenic PCBs, antiestrogenic PCBs, dioxin-like PCBs, NDL PCBs, or hair Hg and newborn anthropometric measurements of birth weight, length, chest circumference, and head circumference in the multiple linear regression models with or without adjustment for factors (Supplementary Table 5). As shown in Table 5, we found no significant associations of SGA by weight with any quartile of estrogenic, antiestrogenic, dioxin-like, or NDL PCB levels, for all models. We also found no significant associations between the incidence of SGA by length and levels of estrogenic PCBs, antiestrogenic PCBs, dioxin-like PCBs, NDL PCBs, and hair Hg in all models. The adjusted odds ratios (ORs) for SGA by weight among the third (OR: 0.12, 95% confidence interval [95% CI]: 0.02–0.68), and fourth quartiles (OR: 0.17, 95% CI: 0.04–0.79) for hair Hg significantly reduced as compared with those in the first quartile (reference) with a significant trend (Table 5). The overall results analyzed by using regression analyses remained statistically significant after adjusting for omega-3 fatty acids (Table 5, Supplementary Table 5), and EPA + DHA, AA, omega-6 fatty acids, fish intake, fatty fish intake, and frequent consumption of pelagic fish, beef, and milk (data not shown). Additionally, we found no interaction effect of PCBs or Hg and omega-3 fatty acids on SGA risk (Table 5), as well as EPA + DHA, AA, and omega-6 fatty acids on birth weight, birth length, chest circumference, head circumference, and SGA risk (data not shown).

PCB 153, 156, 118, and 74 were detected in all subjects, and PCB 77 was detected in 64% of the subjects. The median concentrations of PCB 153, 156, 118, 74, and 77 were 21.4, 1.95, 5.78, 3.12, and 0.011 ng/g lipid, respectively. The contribution rates of PCB 153, 156, 118, 74, and 77 according to total PCBs were 20.3%, 1.8%, 5.4%, 3.0%, and 0.01%, respectively. PCB 153 was the main contributor to PCB exposure in this study (Supplementary Table 2). In congener-specific analyses, after

324 sample values below the detection limit were assigned a value of one-half the detection  
325 limit, associations between PCB 153, 156, 118, 74, or 77 and birth size were evaluated  
326 by regression analyses with adjustment for confounding factors. There were no  
327 associations between concentrations of specific PCB congeners and newborn  
328 anthropometric measurements or the incidence of babies born SGA in any of the  
329 regression analyses (data not shown).  
330  
331

## 332 4. Discussion

333

### 334 Prenatal exposure to PCBs and birth size

335 We found that prenatal exposure to PCBs, including antiestrogenic PCBs as  
336 well as specific PCB congeners, has no association with newborn anthropometric  
337 measurements at birth, or the incidence of babies born SGA after adjusting for  
338 confounding factors, including hair Hg, demographic characteristics, socioeconomic  
339 status, and maternal level of LCPUFAs. Similar results were obtained when examining  
340 only subjects with a normal birth weight and gestation period.

341 Median concentrations of PCB 153 have been reported with a wide range, from  
342 10.7 ng/g lipid weight in a Poland cohort to 450 ng/g lipid in the maternal serum of a  
343 Faroe Island cohort (Grandjean et al., 2001; Hertz-Picciotto et al., 2005; Sonneborn et  
344 al., 2008; Wojtyniak et al., 2010). Concerning the exposure levels among the general  
345 population in Japan, the maternal PCB 153 level of 21.0 ng/g lipid in this study seemed  
346 to be comparable to that of 15.9 ng/g lipid (Nakamura et al., 2008) and 16.0 ng/g lipid  
347 (Hisada et al., 2014) measured in pregnant women in previous studies. Hisada (2014)  
348 described that no association was observed between prenatal exposure to PCBs and  
349 birth size, and the levels of PCB exposure among the general population in this study  
350 was considerably lower than that among European (Wojtyniak et al., 2010) and  
351 American populations (Hertz-Picciotto et al., 2005), in which a significant negative  
352 association with prenatal exposure to PCBs and birth size was found. Therefore, one of  
353 the reasons for the inconsistent results may be the difference in PCB exposure level.  
354 Murphy (2010) reported no association between prenatal exposure to antiestrogenic  
355 PCBs and birth weight of newborns of fish anglers, which is consistent with our  
356 findings. The estrogenic/antiestrogenic activities of PCBs have been demonstrated in *in*  
357 *vitro* and *in vivo* models; however, their affinity for estrogens and xenoestrogens are two  
358 to five times lower than that of natural hormones (Decastro et al. 2006). This suggests  
359 that the concentrations of estrogenic/antiestrogenic PCBs in our study may not be at  
360 levels too low to see any adverse effects on birth size but rather indicate a true  
361 biological effect.

362 A European meta-analysis with a pooled dataset including populations with a  
363 low PCB exposure described that birth weight reduced because of PCB 153 in cord  
364 serum (El Majidi et al., 2012; Casas et al., 2015). However, a systematic analysis of 20  
365 epidemiological studies described that the observed discrepancies in the concentration–  
366 response relation between prenatal PCB exposure and birth weight could not be  
367 attributed conclusively to a difference in biological PCB levels (El Majidi et al., 2012).  
368 In fact, in Inuit children exposed to high concentrations of PCBs, a lack of association  
369 between PCB 153 in cord blood and birth size was observed (Dallaire et al., 2014). As  
370 one of the possible explanations, the beneficial nutrients from fish/seafood intake may  
371 have an opposite action to the toxic effects of PCBs (Mahaffey, 2004; Halldorsson et al.,  
372 2008; Ramon et al., 2009). In the Danish National Birth Cohort of subjects with 70 ng/g  
373 lipid of the median PCB 153 and 5 g/day of median fatty fish intake from the FFQ,  
374 inverse associations were observed between maternal PCB levels and birth weight  
375 (Halldorsson et al., 2008). In a Faroe Island cohort of subjects, higher concentrations of  
376 PCB 153 and PUFAs than that in our study were found, and a negative effect of  
377 maternal EPA and no effect of PCB exposure on birth weight were observed (Grandjean  
378 et al., 2001). We found no association between maternal levels of LCPUFAs and birth

379 weight, birth length, chest circumference, and head circumference or SGA risk in this  
380 study. However, our previous study on the same cohort suggested that maternal EPA  
381 might affect infant chest circumference (Jia et al., 2014). It is difficult to compare our  
382 results with those of other studies because of substantial differences in the exposure  
383 levels, profiles of fish/seafood intake, and contribution rate of fish/seafood to the overall  
384 PCB exposure level. However, we have provided additional data to support the finding  
385 that low exposure to PCBs is likely insufficient to cause a negative effect on fetal  
386 growth taking into account maternal LCPUFAs.

387

### 388 **Prenatal exposure to MeHg and birth size**

389 Our findings suggest that prenatal exposure to MeHg has no association with  
390 newborn anthropometric measurements, although the incidence of babies born SGA by  
391 weight may reduce with higher concentrations of Hg in hair. The maternal hair Hg level  
392 of 1.41  $\mu\text{g/g}$  at delivery in our population was comparable to that of 1.96  $\mu\text{g/g}$  (Suzuki  
393 et al., 2010) and 1.62  $\mu\text{g/g}$  in pregnant women (Sakamoto et al., 2012), and that of 1.43  
394  $\mu\text{g/g}$  in nonpregnant women from the general population in Japan (Yasutake et al.,  
395 2003), in which the effect on birth size was not evaluated.

396 Our finding is consistent with the results of several epidemiological studies that  
397 also showed a lack of significant association between parental exposure to MeHg and  
398 birth weight (Drouillet-Pinard et al., 2010; Gundacker et al., 2010; Ramirez et al., 2000;  
399 Ramon et al., 2009; van Wijngaarden et al., 2014). However, two different studies  
400 described adverse effects from prenatal exposure to MeHg in relation to birth size  
401 taking into account maternal fish intake (Ramon et al., 2009; Vejrup et al., 2014). In a  
402 study in Spain in which the subjects had a mean total Hg of 9.4  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in cord blood and a  
403 mean fish intake of 36 g/day, the concentrations of total Hg increased with reduced birth  
404 weight and increased the risk of being born SGA for length but not SGA for weight  
405 (Ramon et al., 2009). One possible explanation for the inconsistent findings is that the  
406 subjects of our study more frequently consumed fatty fish than the subjects of the  
407 Spanish study. Fatty fish is known to be the main source of PUFAs (Leventakou et al.,  
408 2014). In study in the Republic of Seychelles on subjects with a mean hair MeHg of 5.9  
409  $\mu\text{g/g}$  and a median omega-3 fatty acid level of 30  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , no association was observed  
410 between MeHg or PUFAs and birth weight (van Wijngaarden et al., 2014). In a  
411 Norwegian study of subjects with 1.45  $\mu\text{g/day}$  median estimated dietary Hg and 6 g/day  
412 fatty fish intake, a positive effect of maternal fish/seafood intake and a negative effect of  
413 Hg exposure on birth weight were observed (Vejrup et al., 2014). Our study subjects had  
414 23.3 g/day median fatty fish intake and 43  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  median omega-3 fatty acids, which  
415 were higher than that found in the Seychelles and Norwegian studies. The beneficial  
416 effect of essential nutrition in our study may mask the adverse effects of MeHg on birth  
417 size, as observed in the Norwegian study.

418 On the other hand, our finding that the risk of SGA by weight reduced at higher  
419 concentrations of Hg in hair remained significant after adjustment for the concentrations  
420 of LCPUFAs. A plausible physiological mechanism underlying our findings should be  
421 investigated. To our knowledge, no previous studies have reported a reasonable  
422 assumption about the direct protective role of low MeHg exposure *in utero* on fetal  
423 growth. As another possible explanation, the association between higher Hg in hair and  
424 reduced risk of SGA by weight may be confounded by an unobserved common factor.  
425 In fact, biochemical observations showed that selenium, one of the essential

426 micronutrients for fetal growth, plays a protective role against Hg toxicity (Zahir et al.,  
427 2005; Chen et al., 2006). Because our findings of the impact of prenatal MeHg exposure  
428 on fetal growth even at low levels are not conclusive, we consider continuous risk  
429 assessment as important among our population in which the fourth quartile included  
430 subjects (n = 59) with hair Hg concentrations >2.2 µg/g, which corresponds to the  
431 provisionally tolerable MeHg intake level as set by the Food and Agriculture  
432 Organization and the World Health Organization in 2006 (1.6 µg/kg body weight/week)  
433 (FAO/WHO, 2006).

### 434 **Strengths and limitations**

435 The strengths of this study are as follows: (1) the assessment of biomarkers of  
436 LCPUFAs; (2) the detection of 70 congeners of PCBs that were reported as the most  
437 predominant congeners in the Japanese population (Todaka et al., 2008ab); (3) a high  
438 PCB detection rate of 98.8%, and the ability to group and analyze them based on  
439 bioactivities such as estrogen/antiestrogen, and dioxin-like effects; (4) various  
440 demographic, socioeconomic, behavioral, and dietary data were collected prospectively,  
441 minimizing recall error; and (4) evaluation with multiple linear models adjusted for  
442 confounding effects between demographic characteristics, socioeconomic status,  
443 maternal diet, and PCB or Hg contamination in fish/seafood. We propose that additional  
444 studies be conducted to assess whether exposure to PCBs and MeHg in the general  
445 population is at levels insufficient to cause impaired fetal growth in humans. The  
446 mothers included in this study were older at delivery, had heavier weight at  
447 prepregnancy, had lower smoking rate during pregnancy, and had a later sampling  
448 period than mothers who were not included in analysis. However, we considered that  
449 the potential selection bias was limited because we found no difference in PCB and Hg  
450 exposure levels between the mothers included and those not included in this study. The  
451 children included in this study had a higher gestational age, weight, length, chest  
452 circumference, and head circumference, and lower SGA for length at birth than those  
453 children who were not included in the analysis. A potential selection bias may have  
454 resulted from the effect on healthy children, in whom the influence of contaminants on  
455 birth size may have been underestimated. We cannot exclude the possibility that our  
456 findings occur by chance because of the small number of babies born SGA. A further  
457 study with a larger sample size is needed to evaluate the effects of prenatal exposure to  
458 PCBs and MeHg on the later growth of children.

### 460 **Conclusion**

461 No overall association was found between mercury concentrations and birth  
462 weight, length, chest circumference, and head circumference. We observed that the risk  
463 of SGA by weight reduced with increasing mercury concentration in hair in regression  
464 analyses with adjustment for polyunsaturated fatty acids. In Japanese pregnant women,  
465 who are known to have a high frequency of fish consumption, the beneficial effect of  
466 essential nutrition may mask the adverse effects of MeHg on birth size, as was observed  
467 in a previous European study. On the other hand, we cannot exclude the possibility that  
468 prenatal MeHg exposure may adversely influence fetal growth even at low levels;  
469 therefore, a follow-up study is needed to evaluate the effect of prenatal MeHg exposure  
470 on the later growth of children. The concentrations of estrogenic, antiestrogenic,  
471 dioxin-like, and NDL PCBs had no association with birth weight, length, chest  
472

473 circumference, head circumference, and SGA risk.

474

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766

Table 1. Maternal and infant characteristics (n = 367).

Characteristics	n (%)
<b>Maternal characteristics</b>	
Age at delivery (years)	30.8 ± 4.8 <sup>a</sup>
Height (cm)	158 ± 5.4 <sup>a</sup>
Prepregnancy maternal weight (kg)	52.5 ± 8.0 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Parity</b>	
0	180 (49.0)
1	146 (39.8)
2	35 (9.5)
3	6 (1.6)
<b>Blood sampling period</b>	
<28 weeks	21 (5.7)
28 to <36 weeks	148 (40.3)
≥36 weeks	78 (21.3)
After delivery	120 (32.7)
<b>History of chemical hair waving</b>	
No	260 (70.8)
Yes	107 (29.2)
<b>Education level (years)</b>	
≤9	7 (1.9)
10–12	147 (40.1)
13–16	208 (56.7)
≥17	5 (1.4)
<b>Annual household income (million yen)</b>	
<3	61 (16.6)
3 to <5	183 (49.9)
5 to <7	78 (21.3)
≥7	45 (12.3)
<b>Tobacco smoking during pregnancy</b>	
Nonsmoker	305 (83.1)
Smoker	62 (16.9)
<b>Alcohol consumption during pregnancy</b>	
No	255 (69.5)
Yes	112 (30.5)
Caffeine intake during pregnancy (mg/day)	120 (1.50, 646) <sup>b</sup>
<b>Frequency of food consumption during pregnancy</b>	
<b>Shoreline fish</b>	
<Once/week	198 (54.0)
≥Once/week	169 (46.0)
<b>Pelagic fish</b>	
<Once/week	171 (46.6)
≥Once/week	196 (53.4)
<b>Beef</b>	
<Once/week	274 (75.3)
≥Once/week	90 (24.7)
<b>Pork</b>	
<Once/week	274 (75.3)
≥Once/week	90 (24.7)
<b>Chicken</b>	
<Once/week	30 (8.2)
≥Once/week	337 (91.8)
<b>Egg</b>	
<Once/week	53 (14.4)
≥Once/week	314 (85.6)
<b>Milk</b>	
<Once/week	10 (2.7)
≥Once/week	356 (97.3)
<b>Fish intake from food frequency questionnaires</b>	
Fish intake (g/day)	38.8 (0.0, 400) <sup>b</sup>
Fatty fish	23.3 (0.0, 160) <sup>b</sup>
Lean fish	0.0 (0.0, 66.7) <sup>b</sup>
Shellfish	11.1 (0.0, 200) <sup>b</sup>
Whale	0.0 (0.0, 6.70) <sup>b</sup>
<b>Infant characteristics</b>	
<b>Sex</b>	

Male	173 (47.1)
Female	194 (52.9)
Type of delivery	
Vaginal birth	292 (79.3)
Cesarean section	76 (20.7)
Gestational age at birth (weeks)	39.0 ± 1.4 <sup>a</sup>
Birth weight (g)	3073 ± 37 <sup>a</sup>
Length (cm)	48.1 ± 1.9 <sup>a</sup>
Chest circumference (cm)	31.5 ± 1.6 <sup>a</sup>
Head circumference (cm)	33.3 ± 1.3 <sup>a</sup>
SGA by weight	18 (4.9)
SGA by length	43 (11.7)

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769

<sup>a</sup>Mean ± SD.

770

<sup>b</sup>Median (minimum, maximum).

771

SGA: small for gestational age.

772 Table 2. Concentrations of LCPUFA ( $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) in maternal blood (n = 367).

	Percentile				Maximum
	Minimum	25th	50th	75th	
EPA + DHA	3.0	20.5	32.2	47.8	163
AA	2.8	43.5	61.2	89.7	219
Omega-3 fatty acids	4.1	28.2	43.4	63.9	188
Omega-6 fatty acids	16.1	581	798	1030	2840

773 LCPUFA: long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids; EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid; DHA:  
 774 docosahexaenoic acid; AA: arachidonic acid; Omega-3 fatty acids: EPA, DHA,  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid  
 775 (ALA); Omega-6 fatty acids: AA, linoleic acid (LA).

776



777

778 Table 3. Concentrations of polychlorinated biphenyls in maternal blood (PCBs; ng/g lipid) and  
779 hair mercury ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ) in maternal samples (n = 367).

	Minimum	Percentile			Maximum
		25th	50th	75th	
Estrogenic PCBs <sup>a</sup>	3.88	19.5	28.7	40.0	147
Anti-estrogenic PCBs <sup>b</sup>	0.63	2.75	4.13	5.60	21.7
Dioxin-like PCBs <sup>c</sup>	1.74	7.51	11.2	15.6	49.8
Non-dioxin-like PCBs	16.0	64.8	95.7	133	445
Hair Hg	0.24	0.96	1.41	1.89	4.73

780 <sup>a</sup>PCB 52, 49, 47, 44, 70, 95, 101, 99, 110, and 153 (Cooke, 2001).

781 <sup>b</sup>PCB 37, 77, 81, 126, 169, 114, 105, and 156 (Cooke, 2001).

782 <sup>c</sup>PCB 77, 81, 105, 114, 118, 123, 126, 156, 157, 167, 169, and 189 (Van den Berg et al., 2006).

783

Table 4. Total polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and hair mercury (Hg) levels in relation to maternal and infant characteristics and polyunsaturated fatty acids (n = 367)

Characteristics		Total PCBs (ng/g lipid)		Hair Hg (µg/g)	
		r	Median (min, max)	r	Median (min, max)
<b>Maternal characteristics</b>					
Age at delivery (years)		0.415***		0.094 <sup>a</sup>	
Height (cm)		0.079 <sup>a</sup>		-0.055 <sup>a</sup>	
Prepregnancy weight (kg)		0.016 <sup>a</sup>		-0.029 <sup>a</sup>	
Parity	0		115 (19.6, 495)*		1.41 (0.30, 3.73)*
	≥1		102 (17.8, 354)		1.38 (0.24, 4.73)
Blood sampling period	During pregnancy		110 (17.8, 363)		1.41 (0.24, 4.73)
	After delivery		104 (27.4, 495)		1.40 (0.30, 4.30)
History of chemical hair waving	No		108 (17.8, 495)		1.37 (0.24, 4.35)
	Yes		109 (19.6, 362)		1.46 (0.30, 4.73)
Education level (years)	≤12		99.0 (17.8, 363)		1.33 (0.24, 4.35)
	>12		111 (19.6, 495)		1.42 (0.30, 4.73)
Annual household income (million yen)	<5		102 (17.8, 362)*		1.28 (0.24, 4.73)*
	≥5		123 (27.4, 495)		1.47 (0.30, 4.33)
Tobacco smoking during pregnancy	Nonsmoker		110 (17.8, 362)		1.41 (0.30, 4.35)
	Smoker		95.4 (19.6, 495)		1.39 (0.24, 4.73)
Alcohol consumption during pregnancy	No		100 (17.8, 354)		1.33 (0.31, 4.03)
	Yes		113 (27.8, 495)		1.42 (0.24, 4.73)
Caffeine intake (mg/day)		0.017 <sup>a</sup>		-0.005 <sup>a</sup>	
<b>Frequency of food consumption during pregnancy</b>					
Shoreline fish	<Once/week		101 (17.8, 362)		1.31 (0.31, 4.35)
	≥Once/week		113 (19.6, 495)		1.46 (0.24, 4.73)
Pelagic fish	<Once/week		106 (17.8, 362)		1.24 (0.24, 4.03)**
	≥Once/week		109 (27.4, 495)		1.49 (0.32, 4.73)
Beef	<Once/week		108 (17.8, 363)		1.34 (0.24, 4.73)*
	≥Once/week		107 (19.6, 495)		1.51 (0.30, 3.69)
Pork	<Once/week		85.9 (19.6, 302)		1.54 (0.66, 4.03)
	≥Once/week		109 (17.8, 495)		1.39 (0.24, 4.73)
Chicken	<Once/week		108 (31.3, 362)		1.30 (0.37, 4.03)
	≥Once/week		108 (17.8, 495)		1.41 (0.24, 4.73)
Egg	<Once/week		102 (59.0, 213)		1.28 (1.19, 1.49)
	≥Once/week		108 (17.8, 495)		1.41 (0.24, 4.73)
Milk	<Once/week		74.9 (30.2, 354)**		1.24 (0.45, 3.09)
	≥Once/week		111 (17.8, 495)		1.42 (0.24, 4.73)
<b>Food frequency questionnaires at delivery</b>					
Fish intake (g/day)		0.187***		0.215***	
Fatty fish (g/day)		0.141***		0.210***	
Shellfish (g/day)		0.087 <sup>a</sup>		0.084 <sup>a</sup>	
<b>LCPUFA in maternal blood</b>					
EPA + DHA		0.182***		0.056 <sup>a</sup>	
AA		0.048 <sup>a</sup>		-0.077 <sup>a</sup>	
Omega-3 fatty acids		0.155***		0.022 <sup>a</sup>	
Omega-6 fatty acids		0.073 <sup>a</sup>		-0.018 <sup>a</sup>	
<b>Infant characteristics</b>					
Sex	Male		111 (27.4, 362)		1.41 (0.24, 4.35)
	Female		104 (17.8, 495)		1.39 (0.30, 4.73)
Type of delivery	Vaginal birth		109 (17.8, 363)		1.43 (0.24, 4.73)
	Cesarean section		97.0 (19.6, 495)		1.24 (0.30, 4.35)
Gestational age (weeks)		0.025 <sup>a</sup>		0.017 <sup>a</sup>	
SGA by weight	No		108 (17.8, 495)		1.42 (0.30, 4.73)*
	Yes		98.7 (51.0, 223)		0.92 (0.24, 2.62)
SGA by length	No		109 (17.8, 495)		1.41 (0.24, 4.73)
	Yes		97 (19.6, 247)		1.24 (0.46, 3.55)

<sup>a</sup>r: Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

787 \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 by Mann–Whitney U-test and Spearman’s rank correlation test.  
788 LCPUFA: long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, EPA: eicosapentaenoic acid, DHA: docosahexaenoic acid, AA: arachidonic acid.

Table 5. Odds ratios for babies born small for gestational age (n = 367).

		SGA by weight			SGA by length		
		Crude	Adjusted 1 <sup>a</sup>	Adjusted 2 <sup>a</sup>	Crude	Adjusted 1 <sup>b</sup>	Adjusted 2 <sup>b</sup>
		OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
Estrogenic PCBs	Quartile 1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Quartile 2	0.41 (0.10–1.65)	0.51 (0.11–2.30)	0.56 (0.12–2.58)	1.21 (0.53–2.79)	1.48 (0.60–3.67)	1.57 (0.62–4.00)
	Quartile 3	0.27 (0.05–1.34)	0.40 (0.07–2.24)	0.42 (0.07–2.41)	0.38 (0.13–1.14)	0.36 (0.11–1.17)	0.37 (0.11–1.22)
	Quartile 4	0.85 (0.27–2.62)	1.95 (0.46–8.18)	1.88 (0.45–7.83)	1.00 (0.42–2.36)	0.81 (0.28–2.29)	0.68 (0.23–2.03)
	p for trend	0.662	0.694	0.696	0.509	0.334	0.197
	P for interaction			0.335			0.211
Anti-estrogenic PCBs	Quartile 1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Quartile 2	0.99 (0.28–3.54)	1.16 (0.29–4.68)	1.31 (0.32–5.34)	1.31 (0.56–3.05)	1.44 (0.58–3.57)	1.53 (0.61–3.84)
	Quartile 3	0.57 (0.13–2.47)	0.99 (0.20–4.87)	1.07 (0.21–5.47)	0.50 (0.18–1.42)	0.52 (0.17–1.63)	0.50 (0.16–1.57)
	Quartile 4	1.00 (0.28–3.58)	1.95 (0.44–8.55)	1.89 (0.43–8.29)	1.10 (0.46–2.65)	1.07 (0.38–2.98)	0.94 (0.32–2.73)
	p for trend	0.824	0.523	0.511	0.71	0.718	0.550
	P for interaction			0.317			0.249
Dioxin-like PCBs	Quartile 1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Quartile 2	1.23 (0.36–4.18)	1.54 (0.39–6.05)	1.93 (0.48–7.77)	1.34 (0.57–3.13)	1.62 (0.64–4.09)	1.79 (0.70–4.56)
	Quartile 3	0.38 (0.07–2.02)	0.66 (0.11–4.06)	0.64 (0.10–4.01)	0.60 (0.22–1.62)	0.68 (0.22–2.07)	0.62 (0.20–1.94)
	Quartile 4	1.01 (0.28–3.62)	2.20 (0.48–10.1)	2.01 (0.44–9.19)	1.01 (0.42–2.47)	1.01 (0.35–2.90)	0.83 (0.28–2.48)
	p for trend	0.669	0.570	0.560	0.617	0.714	0.260
	P for interaction			0.155			0.096
Non-dioxin like PCBs	Quartile 1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Quartile 2	0.48 (0.12–1.97)	0.56 (0.12–2.59)	0.57 (0.12–2.65)	1.71 (0.73–3.99)	1.99 (0.79–5.01)	2.02 (0.79–5.17)
	Quartile 3	0.81 (0.24–2.77)	1.36 (0.32–5.69)	1.47 (0.34–6.42)	0.47 (0.15–1.42)	0.49 (0.15–1.64)	0.49 (0.14–1.66)
	Quartile 4	0.64 (0.18–2.36)	1.21 (0.24–6.22)	1.18 (0.23–5.96)	1.21 (0.50–2.97)	1.00 (0.33–3.05)	0.88 (0.28–2.76)
	p for trend	0.654	0.759	0.752	0.697	0.483	0.345
	P for interaction			0.417			0.461
Hair Hg	Quartile 1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Quartile 2	0.28 (0.07–1.04)	0.24 (0.06–1.00)	0.22 (0.05–0.94)*	0.68 (0.29–1.62)	0.69 (0.27–1.76)	0.71 (0.27–1.84)
	Quartile 3	0.18 (0.04–0.86)*	0.12 (0.02–0.68)*	0.11 (0.02–0.64)*	0.60 (0.25–1.47)	0.58 (0.22–1.54)	0.57 (0.21–1.55)
	Quartile 4	0.28 (0.07–1.05)	0.17 (0.04–0.79)*	0.16 (0.03–0.77)*	0.69 (0.29–1.64)	0.65 (0.24–1.76)	0.61 (0.22–1.73)
	p for trend	0.023	0.014	0.014	0.359	0.362	0.324
	P for interaction			0.965			0.562

The odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) for babies born small for gestational age (SGA) were calculated by using the first quartile as the reference category.

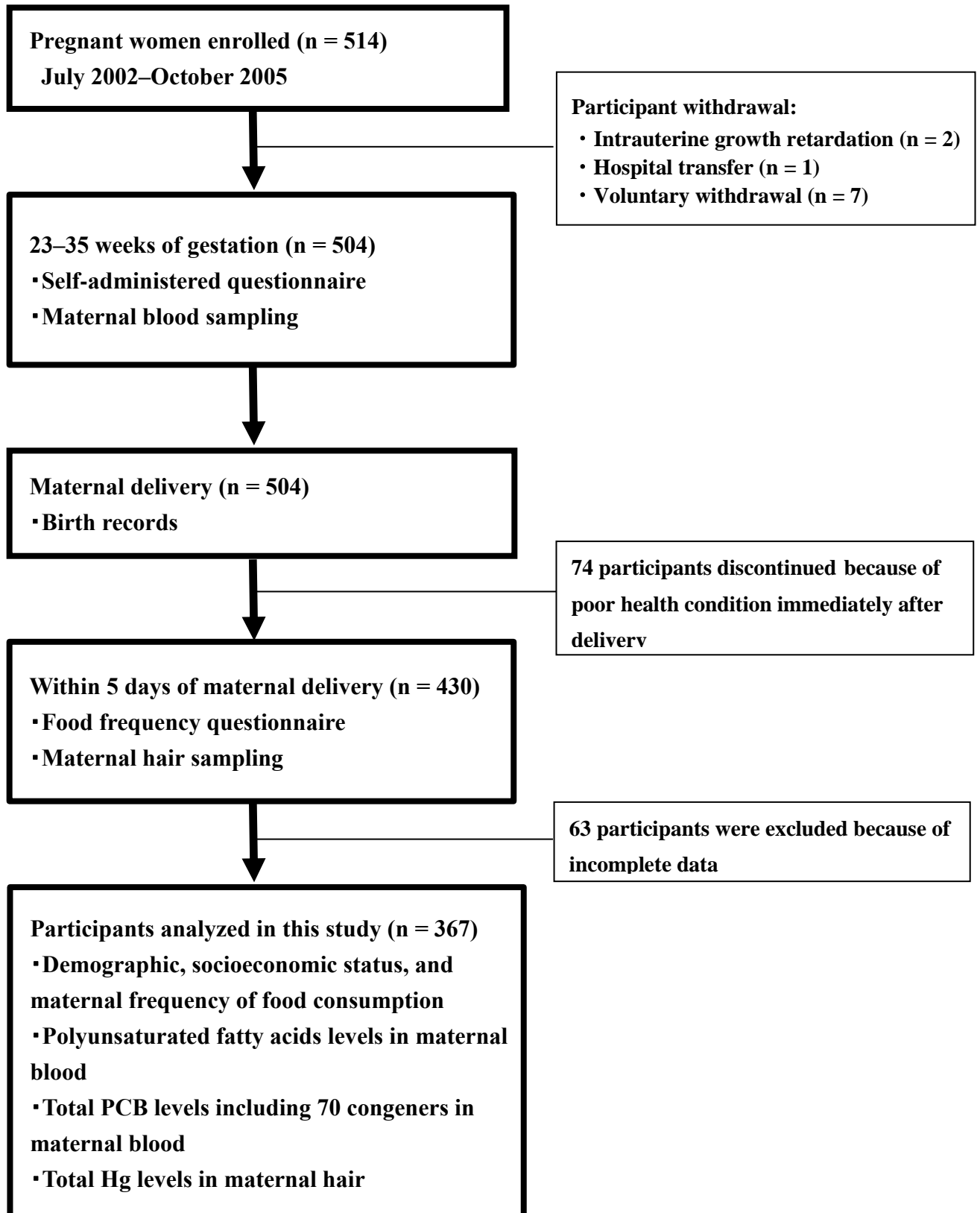
792 p for trend: linear trend across quartiles.  
793 Adjusted 1<sup>a</sup>: adjusted for maternal age, maternal height, prepregnancy maternal weight, tobacco smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption during pregnancy, household income, blood sampling  
794 period, and total PCBs or hair Hg.  
795 Adjusted 2<sup>a</sup>: adjusted for omega-3 fatty acids in addition to the adjusted factors in Adjusted 1<sup>a</sup>  
796 Adjusted 1<sup>b</sup>: adjusted for maternal age, maternal height, prepregnancy maternal weight, tobacco smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption during pregnancy, household income, blood sampling  
797 period, parity, infant sex, and total PCBs or hair Hg.  
798 Adjusted 2<sup>b</sup>: adjusted for omega-3 fatty acids in addition to the adjusted factors in Adjusted 1<sup>b</sup>  
799 P for interaction: introduced for interaction terms of quartile PCBs or quartile Hg, and quartile omega-3 fatty acids, in addition to the adjusted factors in Adjusted 2<sup>a</sup> or Adjusted 2<sup>b</sup>.  
800 \*p<0.05.  
801

802 **Figure legends**

803

804 **Figure 1. Research overview.**

805



806 **Supplementary Material**

807

808 Supplementary Table 1. Food frequency questionnaire.

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Question 1: Frequency of fish consumption (choose one of the following options)

1. Often. Please indicate the number of fish servings per day.
2. Sometimes. Please provide an estimated frequency of fish consumption.
3. Rarely
4. Never

Question 2: Portion size of fish in one serving (choose one of the following options)

1. <50 g
2. 50–100 g
3. 100–150 g
4. 150–200 g
5. >200 g
6. Unknown

Question 3: Type of fish frequently consumed (choose as many of the following as applicable)

Tuna, bonito, salmon, yellowtail, sea bream, flatfish, flounder, sardine, mackerel, saury, horse mackerel, eel, carp, sweetfish, crucian carp, cuttlefish, octopus, crab, shrimp, shellfish, whale, fish products, Atka mackerel, shishamo smelt, Pacific cod, Pacific herring, trout

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809

Supplementary Table 2. Analysis results of 70 PCB congeners (ng/g lipid) (n = 367).

PCB congeners	Detection limit	Detection rate (%)	Median (25th–75th)	22'44'55'-HexaCB(#153)		Contribution rate (%)
				r	r	
245-TriCB(#29)	0.01	32.4	0.01 (0.01–0.03)	0.090	0.075	0.02
244'-TriCB(#28)	0.01	99.7	1.08 (0.78–1.50)	0.373**	0.393**	0.99
344'-TriCB(#37)	0.01	21.8	0.01 (0.01–0.01)	0.070	0.126*	0.27
22'55'-TetraCB(#52)	0.01	94.8	0.62 (0.36–0.90)	0.179**	0.225**	0.58
22'45'-TetraCB(#49)	0.01	92.1	0.17 (0.09–0.26)	0.122*	0.197**	0.16
22'44'-TetraCB(#47)	0.01	91.3	0.34 (0.20–0.50)	0.186**	0.263**	0.31
22'35'-TetraCB(#44)	0.01	84.2	0.27 (0.10–0.38)	0.113*	0.149**	0.22
23'4'6-TetraCB(#71)	0.01	86.4	0.10 (0.04–0.17)	-0.017	0.022	0.10
234'5-TetraCB(#63)	0.01	93.5	0.05 (0.03–0.07)	0.542**	0.572**	0.05
244'5-TetraCB(#74)	0.01	100	3.12 (2.20–4.55)	0.867**	0.862**	3.03
23'4'5-TetraCB(#70)	0.01	87.5	0.15 (0.09–0.20)	0.207**	0.205**	0.13
23'44'-TetraCB(#66)	0.01	100	0.64 (0.43–0.98)	0.643**	0.652**	0.63
233'4'-/2344'TetraCBs(#56/60)	0.01	98.1	0.27 (0.18–0.40)	0.568**	0.577**	0.25
22'35'6-PentaCB(#95)	0.01	96.7	0.37 (0.22–0.56)	0.318**	0.341**	0.35
22'355'-PentaCB(#92)	0.01	97.0	0.26 (0.16–0.41)	0.578**	0.599**	0.27
22'455'-PentaCB(#101)	0.01	99.5	0.64 (0.42–0.91)	0.552**	0.588**	0.62
22'44'5-PentaCB(#99)	0.01	100	3.97 (2.66–5.51)	0.893**	0.888**	3.72
234'56-PentaCB(#117)	0.01	98.9	0.25 (0.17–0.36)	0.714**	0.769**	0.24
22'345'-PentaCB(#87)	0.01	97.5	0.25 (0.18–0.35)	0.529**	0.590**	0.24
22'344'-PentaCB(#85)	0.01	93.5	0.09 (0.05–0.13)	0.411**	0.458**	0.09
233'4'6-PentaCB(#110)	0.01	89.9	0.17 (0.10–0.26)	0.338**	0.379**	0.16
233'4'5-PentaCB(#107)	0.01	99.2	0.28 (0.17–0.43)	0.734**	0.776**	0.28
22'355'6-HexaCB(#151)	0.01	99.2	0.32 (0.22–0.53)	0.641**	0.659**	0.36
22'33'56'-HexaCB(#135)	0.01	97.0	0.14 (0.09–0.23)	0.628**	0.628**	0.15
22'34'56-HexaCB(#147)	0.01	93.7	0.12 (0.07–0.18)	0.693**	0.694**	0.12
22'344'6-/22'34'5'6-HexaCB(#139/149)	0.01	91.3	0.24 (0.13–0.37)	0.486**	0.479**	0.23
22'33'56-HexaCB(#134)	0.01	35.7	0.01 (0.01–0.02)	0.030	0.044	0.01
233'55'6-HexaCB(#165)	0.01	0				
22'34'55'-HexaCB(#146)	0.01	100	2.99 (2.02–4.32)	0.973**	0.960**	2.89
22'33'46'-HexaCB(#132)	0.01	85.0	0.11 (0.06–0.17)	0.376**	0.354**	0.11
22'44'55'-HexaCB(#153)	0.01	100	21.4 (14.5–31.2)		0.982**	20.3
22'3455'-HexaCB(#141)	0.01	83.1	0.09 (0.05–0.16)	0.471**	0.495**	0.10
22'344'5-HexaCB(#137)	0.01	100	0.77 (0.52–1.06)	0.949**	0.949**	0.70
22'33'45'-HexaCB(#130)	0.01	100	0.66 (0.44–0.96)	0.909**	0.917**	0.63
233'4'5'6-HexaCB(#164)	0.01	100	3.99 (2.63–5.91)	0.842**	0.872**	3.91
22'344'5'-HexaCB(#138)	0.01	100	11.9 (7.84–16.7)	0.974**	0.967**	11.1
22'33'44'-HexaCB(#128)	0.01	99.5	0.32 (0.20–0.48)	0.662**	0.714**	0.33
22'33'566'-HptaCB(#179)	0.01	86.4	0.07 (0.04–0.13)	0.503**	0.515**	0.08
22'33'55'6-HptaCB(#178)	0.01	99.7	1.31 (0.90–1.90)	0.915**	0.935**	1.32
22'344'56-HptaCB(#182)	0.01	100	6.06 (3.86–8.52)	0.940**	0.965**	5.93
22'344'5'6-HptaCB(#183)	0.01	99.7	1.65 (1.09–2.42)	0.928**	0.945**	1.64
22'344'56-HptaCB(#181)	0.01	71.1	0.03 (0.01–0.05)	0.379**	0.399**	0.03
22'33'4'56-HptaCB(#177)	0.01	99.7	1.45 (0.99–2.13)	0.907**	0.938**	1.45
22'33'455'-HptaCB(#172)	0.01	98.9	0.68 (0.44–1.01)	0.858**	0.904**	0.68
22'344'55'-HptaCB(#180)	0.01	100	13.0 (8.63–19.4)	0.892**	0.935**	12.9
233'44'5'6-HptaCB(#191)	0.01	90.7	0.16 (0.11–0.25)	0.727**	0.759**	0.16
22'33'44'5-HptaCB(#170)	0.01	100	4.57 (3.05–6.42)	0.879**	0.923**	4.46
22'33'55'66'-OctaCB(#202)	0.01	99.7	0.49 (0.31–0.73)	0.828**	0.810**	0.48
22'33'45'66'-OctaCB(#200)	0.01	91.6	0.09 (0.06–0.15)	0.714**	0.708**	0.10
22'33'45'66'-/22'33'455'6'-OctaCB(#201/198)	0.01	100	1.88 (1.22–2.71)	0.881**	0.880**	1.82



22'344'55'6-OctaCB(#203)	0.01	100	1.63 (1.07–2.37)	0.859**	0.850**	1.58
22'33'44'56-OctaCB(#195)	0.01	100	0.42 (0.30–0.63)	0.877**	0.857**	0.41
22'33'44'55'6-OctaCB(#194)	0.01	100	1.64 (1.11–2.37)	0.866**	0.871**	1.57
233'44'55'6-OctaCB(#205)	0.01	87.2	0.07 (0.05–0.10)	0.619**	0.631**	0.07
22'33'455'66'-NonaCB(#208)	0.01	98.1	0.22 (0.14–0.33)	0.737**	0.707**	0.22
22'33'44'566'-NonaCB(#207)	0.01	96.2	0.11 (0.07–0.17)	0.694**	0.656**	0.11
22'33'44'55'6-NonaCB(#206)	0.01	99.7	0.54 (0.38–0.75)	0.827**	0.816**	0.51
22'33'44'55'66'-DecaCB(#209)	0.01	100	0.46 (0.33–0.61)	0.776**	0.763**	0.42
344'5-TeCB(#81)	0.01	0				
33'44'-TeCB(#77)	0.01	64.3	0.01 (0.01–0.01)	0.266**	0.328**	0.01
33'44'5-PentaCB(#126)	0.01	96.5	0.03 (0.02–0.05)	0.726**	0.763**	0.03
33'44'55'-HexaCB(#169)	0.01	94.6	0.02 (0.02–0.03)	0.777**	0.817**	0.02
2'344'5-PetaCB(#123)	0.01	98.1	0.11 (0.07–0.15)	0.727**	0.750**	0.10
23'44'5-PetaCB(#118)	0.01	100	5.78 (3.82–8.22)	0.896**	0.902**	5.43
2344'5-PetaCB(#114)	0.01	98.9	0.34 (0.23–0.48)	0.880**	0.887**	0.32
233'44'-PetaCB(#105)	0.01	100	1.40 (0.98–2.06)	0.847**	0.859**	1.35
23'44'55'-HexaCB(#167)	0.01	99.7	0.69 (0.46–0.98)	0.945**	0.950**	0.65
233'44'5-HexaCB(#156)	0.01	100	1.95 (1.32–2.72)	0.931**	0.932**	1.82
233'44'5'-HexaCB(#157)	0.01	99.7	0.48 (0.33–0.66)	0.916**	0.910**	0.45
233'44'55'-HptaCB(#189)	0.01	99.2	0.24 (0.17–0.34)	0.811**	0.803**	0.22
Total PCBs			108 (72.7–149)			

812 r was calculated by using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

813 \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01.

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Supplementary Table 3. Relation between newborn anthropometric measurements and subject characteristics (n = 367).

Characteristics	Birth weight (g)		Length (cm)		Chest circumference (cm)		Head circumference (cm)	
	r	Mean ± SD	r	Mean ± SD	r	Mean ± SD	r	Mean ± SD
<b>Maternal characteristics</b>								
Age at delivery (years)	-0.010 <sup>a</sup>		-0.033 <sup>a</sup>		0.021 <sup>a</sup>		0.023 <sup>a</sup>	
Height (cm)	0.127 <sup>**</sup>		0.153 <sup>***</sup>		0.123 <sup>**</sup>		0.116 <sup>**</sup>	
Pre-pregnancy weight (kg)	0.162 <sup>**</sup>		0.140 <sup>**</sup>		0.119 <sup>**</sup>		0.106 <sup>**</sup>	
Parity								
	0	3055 ± 375		48.1 ± 2.0		31.4 ± 1.7		33.2 ± 1.4
	≥1	3092 ± 368		48.2 ± 1.9		31.6 ± 1.4		33.4 ± 1.3
Education level (years)								
	≤12	3056 ± 384		48.0 ± 1.8		31.4 ± 1.6		33.2 ± 1.3
	>12	3086 ± 363		48.2 ± 2.0		31.6 ± 1.5		33.4 ± 1.3
Annual household income (million yen)								
	<5	3084 ± 365		48.1 ± 2.0		31.5 ± 1.5		33.3 ± 1.3
	≥5	3052 ± 385		48.2 ± 1.7		31.5 ± 1.7		33.3 ± 1.3
Tobacco smoking during pregnancy								
	Nonsmoker	3085 ± 384		48.2 ± 2.0		31.5 ± 1.6		33.4 ± 1.4
	Smoker	3019 ± 299		47.9 ± 1.5		31.4 ± 1.2		33.1 ± 1.2
Alcohol consumption during pregnancy								
	No	3059 ± 386		48.0 ± 2.0		31.4 ± 1.7		33.3 ± 1.4
	Yes	3107 ± 335		48.3 ± 1.7		31.7 ± 1.2		33.4 ± 1.3
Caffeine intake (mg/day)	-0.072 <sup>b</sup>		-0.043 <sup>b</sup>		-0.091 <sup>b</sup>		-0.001 <sup>b</sup>	
<b>Frequency of food consumption during pregnancy</b>								
Shoreline fish								
	<Once/week	3096 ± 341		48.2 ± 1.7		31.5 ± 1.4		33.4 ± 1.3
	≥Once/week	3047 ± 404		48.0 ± 2.2		31.5 ± 1.7		33.2 ± 1.3
Pelagic fish								
	<Once/week	3060 ± 380		48.0 ± 1.8		31.4 ± 1.5		33.3 ± 1.3
	≥Once/week	3086 ± 365		48.2 ± 2.0		31.6 ± 1.6		33.3 ± 1.4
Beef								
	<Once/week	3061 ± 384		48.0 ± 1.8		31.5 ± 1.6		33.3 ± 1.3
	≥Once/week	3112 ± 334		48.3 ± 2.4		31.6 ± 1.4		33.3 ± 1.3
Pork								
	<Once/week	3061 ± 384		48.0 ± 1.8		31.5 ± 1.6		33.3 ± 1.3
	≥Once/week	3112 ± 334		48.3 ± 2.4		31.6 ± 1.4		33.3 ± 1.3
Chicken								
	<Once/week	2969 ± 325		47.5 ± 1.5*		31.2 ± 1.5		33.1 ± 1.2
	≥Once/week	3083 ± 374		48.2 ± 2.0		31.5 ± 1.6		33.3 ± 1.3
Egg								
	<Once/week	3002 ± 384		47.5 ± 2.9		31.3 ± 1.7		33.2 ± 1.4
	≥Once/week	3085 ± 369		48.2 ± 1.7		31.5 ± 1.5		33.3 ± 1.3
Milk								
	<Once/week	3094 ± 410		48.3 ± 1.7		31.5 ± 1.2		33.3 ± 1.4
	≥Once/week	3074 ± 370		48.1 ± 1.9		31.5 ± 1.6		33.3 ± 1.3
<b>Food frequency questionnaire at delivery<sup>b</sup></b>								
Fish intake (g/day)	0.000		0.025		-0.021		-0.087	
Fatty fish intake (g/day)	0.057		0.056		0.067		-0.018	
Shellfish (g/day)	0.013		0.043		-0.030		-0.074	
Fatty acid in maternal blood <sup>b</sup>								
EPA + DHA	-0.063		-0.034		-0.048		-0.048	
AA	-0.101		-0.078		-0.103		-0.075	
Omega-3 fatty acids	-0.075		-0.053		-0.063		-0.047	
Omega-6 fatty acids	-0.089		-0.094		-0.068		-0.046	
<b>Infant characteristics</b>								
Sex								
	Male	3132 ± 362 <sup>**</sup>		48.4 ± 2.1 <sup>**</sup>		31.7 ± 1.4 <sup>*</sup>		33.7 ± 1.3 <sup>**</sup>
	Female	3022 ± 373		47.8 ± 1.8		31.3 ± 1.7		32.9 ± 1.3
Type of delivery								
	Vaginal birth	3119 ± 343 <sup>**</sup>		48.3 ± 1.9 <sup>**</sup>		31.7 ± 1.4 <sup>**</sup>		33.3 ± 1.3
	Cesarean section	2900 ± 423		47.2 ± 1.9		30.9 ± 1.9		33.3 ± 1.6
Gestational age (weeks)	0.467 <sup>**</sup> *		0.395 <sup>***</sup>		0.421 <sup>***</sup>		0.221 <sup>***</sup>	

<sup>a</sup>r: Pearson correlation coefficient.<sup>b</sup>r: Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

\*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01 by the Pearson correlation and Spearman's rank correlation test and one-way analysis of variance.

821 Supplementary Table 4. Relation between small for gestational age (SGA) status and subject  
 822 characteristics (n = 367).

Characteristics	SGA by weight		SGA by length	
	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Yes n (%)
<b>Maternal characteristics</b>				
Age at delivery (years)	30.8 ± 4.8 <sup>a</sup>	30.9 ± 4.5 <sup>a</sup>	30.8 ± 4.8 <sup>a</sup>	30.8 ± 4.8 <sup>a</sup>
Height (cm)	158 ± 5.3 <sup>a</sup>	157 ± 6.7 <sup>a</sup>	158 ± 5.2 <sup>a</sup>	158 ± 6.5 <sup>a</sup>
Pre-pregnancy weight (kg)	52.7 ± 8.0 <sup>a</sup>	47.9 ± 5.7 <sup>a*</sup>	52.9 ± 7.9 <sup>a</sup>	49.7 ± 7.8 <sup>a*</sup>
Parity				
	0	11 (6.1)	156 (86.7)	24 (13.3)
	≥1	7 (3.7)	168 (89.8)	19 (10.2)
Education level (years)				
	≤12	11 (7.1)	129 (83.8)	25 (16.2)*
	>12	7 (3.3)	195 (91.5)	18 (8.5)
Annual household income (million yen)				
	<5	12 (4.9)	212 (86.9)	32 (13.1)
	≥5	6 (4.9)	112 (91.1)	11 (8.9)
Tobacco smoking during pregnancy				
	Nonsmoker	16 (5.2)	270 (88.5)	35 (11.5)
	Smoker	2 (3.2)	54 (87.1)	8 (12.9)
Alcohol consumption during pregnancy				
	No	12 (4.7)	229 (89.8)	26 (10.2)
	Yes	6 (5.4)	95 (84.8)	17 (15.2)
Caffeine intake (mg/day)	117 (1.50, 646) <sup>b</sup>	128 (2.00, 395) <sup>b</sup>	115 (1.50, 646) <sup>b</sup>	135 (2.00, 427) <sup>b</sup>
<b>Frequency of food consumption during pregnancy</b>				
Shoreline fish				
	<Once/week	7 (3.5)	178 (89.9)	20 (10.1)
	≥Once/week	11 (6.5)	146 (86.4)	23 (13.6)
Pelagic fish				
	<Once/week	10 (5.8)	147 (86.0)	24 (14.0)
	≥Once/week	8 (4.1)	177 (90.3)	19 (9.7)
Beef				
	<Once/week	15 (5.5)	242 (88.3)	32 (11.7)
	≥Once/week	3 (3.3)	79 (87.8)	11 (12.2)
Pork				
	<Once/week	0 (0)	27 (90.0)	3 (10.0)
	≥Once/week	18 (5.3)	297 (88.1)	40 (11.9)
Chicken				
	<Once/week	1 (1.9)	48 (90.6)	5 (9.4)
	≥Once/week	17 (5.4)	276 (87.9)	38 (12.1)
Egg				
	<Once/week	0 (0)	9 (90.0)	1 (10.0)
	≥Once/week	18 (5.1)	314 (88.2)	42 (11.8)
Milk				
	<Once/week	3 (5.9)	43 (84.3)	8 (15.7)
	≥Once/week	15 (4.7)	281 (88.9)	35 (11.1)
<b>Food frequency questionnaire at delivery<sup>b</sup></b>				
Fish intake (g/day)	40.0 (0.83, 400)	41.7 (1.67, 100)	37.5 (0.83, 250)	50.0 (1.67, 400)
Fatty fish intake (g/day)	25.0 (0.00, 160)	20.0 (1.11, 75.0)	25.0 (0.00, 160)	20.0 (0.00, 133)
Shellfish (g/day)	11.1 (0.00, 200)	12.2 (0.00, 32)	11.1 (0.00, 100)	7.5 (0.00, 200)
<b>Fatty acid in maternal blood<sup>b</sup></b>				
EPA + DHA	31.8 (2.96, 163)	33.1 (9.44, 110)	31.7 (2.96, 163)	33.2 (5.47, 121)
AA	60.8 (2.77, 219)	90.2 (9.20, 158)	61.9 (2.77, 219)	57.8 (3.71, 187)

Omega-3 fatty acids		43.5 (4.09, 188)	41.4 (12.0, 144)	43.2 (4.09, 179)	45.2 (6.09, 188)
Omega-6 fatty acids		790 (16.1, 2836)	911 (68.2, 1552)	798 (16.1, 2836)	811 (36.7, 2104)
Infant characteristics					
Sex	Male	165 (95.4)	8 (4.6)	161 (93.1)	12 (6.9)**
	Female	184 (94.8)	10 (5.2)	163 (84.0)	31 (16.0)
Type of delivery	Vaginal birth	278 (95.5)	13 (4.5)	259 (89.0)	32 (11.0)
	Cesarean section	71 (93.4)	5 (6.6)	65 (85.5)	11 (14.5)
Gestational age (weeks)		39.0 ± 1.4 <sup>a</sup>	39.2 ± 1.6 <sup>a</sup>	39.0 ± 1.4 <sup>a</sup>	39.2 ± 1.1 <sup>a</sup>

823 <sup>a</sup>Mean ± SD.

824 <sup>b</sup>Median (minimum, maximum).

825 \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 by the t-test and  $\chi^2$  test.

826 SGA: small for gestational age, LCPUFA: long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, EPA: eicosapentaenoic

827 acid, DHA: docosahexaenoic acid, AA: arachidonic acid.

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Supplementary Table 5. Regression coefficients between newborn anthropometric measurements and concentrations of PCBs and Hg (n = 367).

		Birth weight (g)	Length (cm)	Chest circumference (cm)	Head circumference (cm)
		B (95% CI)	B (95% CI)	B (95% CI)	B (95% CI)
Estrogenic PCBs	Crude	0.68 (-175–176)	0.33 (-0.58–1.24)	0.55 (-0.18–1.28)	-0.24 (-0.87–0.38)
	Adjusted 1	-95.6 (-273–82.2)	0.18 (-0.80–1.17)	0.32 (-0.46–1.11)	-0.24 (-0.94–0.46)
	Adjusted 2	-80.1 (-259–98.8)	0.28 (-0.72–1.28)	0.38 (-0.40–1.17)	-0.27 (-0.98–0.43)
Anti-estrogenic PCBs	Crude	-8.61 (-178–161)	0.08 (-0.80–0.96)	0.30 (-0.40–1.00)	-0.17 (-0.78–0.43)
	Adjusted 1	-86.8 (-258–84.1)	-0.09 (-1.04–0.85)	0.05 (-0.71–0.80)	-0.16 (-0.83–0.51)
	Adjusted 2	-87.3 (-258–83.5)	-0.07 (-1.02–0.89)	0.04 (-0.72–0.79)	-0.23 (-0.90–0.45)
Dioxin-like PCBs	Crude	-3.83 (-172–164)	0.31 (-0.56–1.18)	0.43 (-0.26–1.13)	-0.06 (-0.66–0.54)
	Adjusted 1	-131 (-301–38.5)	0.01 (-0.93–0.95)	0.09 (-0.66–0.84)	-0.10 (-0.77–0.57)
	Adjusted 2	-119 (-290–52.1)	0.09 (-0.87–1.05)	0.14 (-0.62–0.89)	-0.16 (-0.84–0.51)
Non-dioxin-like PCBs	Crude	-23.8 (-197–149)	0.19 (-0.71–1.08)	0.40 (-0.32–1.12)	-0.27 (-0.89–0.35)
	Adjusted 1	-122 (-305–61.8)	0.07 (-0.95–1.08)	0.15 (-0.66–0.96)	-0.33 (-1.05–0.40)
	Adjusted 2	-104 (-289–81.4)	0.17 (-0.86–1.21)	0.22 (-0.60–1.04)	-0.36 (-1.09–0.38)
Hair Hg	Crude	121 (-53.8–296)	0.36 (-0.55–1.27)	0.46 (-0.27–1.19)	-0.26 (-0.88–0.37)
	Adjusted 1	160 (-3.34–323)	0.27 (-0.64–1.17)	0.32 (-0.41–1.04)	-0.19 (-0.83–0.46)
	Adjusted 2	140 (-24.2–304)	0.24 (-0.68–1.16)	0.24 (-0.48–0.97)	-0.24 (-0.89–0.41)

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Adjusted 1: adjusted for maternal age, maternal height, pre-pregnancy maternal weight, tobacco smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption during pregnancy, household income, blood sampling period, parity, gestational age, infant sex and log<sub>10</sub>-transformed PCBs or log<sub>10</sub>-transformed Hg.

Adjusted 2: adjusted for omega-3 fatty acids in addition to adjustment factors in Adjusted 1

B: partial regression coefficient, CI: confidence interval,