scientific reports



OPEN Effects of heavy metal exposure during pregnancy on birth outcomes

Sabrina Shafi Zinia¹, Ki-Hyeok Yang¹, Eun Ju Lee¹, Myoung-Nam Lim¹, Jeeyoung Kim¹, Woo Jin Kim^{1⊠} & Ko-CHENS Study group*

Exposure to heavy metals such as lead, cadmium, and mercury poses serious health risks to pregnant women because of their high toxicity. In this study, we investigated the associations of heavy metal exposure with birth outcomes of Korean infants. Data of 5,215 women between 2015 and 2019 were analyzed. This study was part of the Korean Children's Environmental Health (Ko-CHENS) study. Linear regression and logistic regression analyses were used to examine effects of concentrations of lead, cadmium, and mercury on birth weight, small for gestational age, and large for gestational age after adjusting for maternal age groups, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, body mass index, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. Besides adjusting for these covariates, each metal was mutually adjusted to estimate birth weight and large for gestational age status. Maternal cadmium concentrations during early pregnancy $(\beta = -39.96; 95\%)$ confidence interval (CI): -63.76, -16.17) and late pregnancy ($\beta = -37.24; 95\%$) CI - 61.63, -12.84) were significantly associated with birth weight. Cadmium levels during early pregnancy (adjusted OR = 0.637; 95% CI 0.444, 0.912) were also associated with large for gestational age status. Our findings suggest that prenatal cadmium exposure, even at a low level of exposure, is significantly associated with low birth weight.

Abbreviations

SGA Small for gestational age LGA Large for gestational age BMI Body mass index OR Odds ratio SD Standard deviation GM Geometric mean CIConfidence interval

MOCEH Mothers and Children's Environmental Health Study Ko-CHENS Korean Children's Environmental Health Study

Lead, mercury, and cadmium are highly toxic metals associated with extensive environmental contamination and significant health problems. In particular, lead and mercury are highly toxic to fetuses because they can easily cross the blood-placental barrier, while cadmium can only partially cross it¹. Previous studies have explored effects of lead, cadmium, and mercury on fetal growth outcomes, including small for gestational age status and

Heavy metal toxicology can interfere with fetal cell division and differentiation. For example, lead exposure can interfere with calcium deposition in bones during fetal development¹³. Suboptimal fetal growth can result from prenatal cadmium exposure¹⁴. Methylmercury (MeHg) can adversely affect fetal growth by inhibiting the antioxidant system and increasing free radical production¹⁵.

A number of epidemiological studies have shown that harmful effects on birth outcomes can significantly impact morbidity and disability in early childhood 16 and lead to health problems in adulthood, such as respiratory disorders and cardiovascular diseases 16,17. Low infant birth weight has been associated with several chronic health consequences such as diabetes mellitus, and obesity in adulthood¹⁸. The aim of this study was to investigate

¹Department of Internal Medicine and Environmental Health Center, School of Medicine, Kangwon National University, Chuncheon 24341, Republic of Korea. *A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper. [™]email: pulmo2@kangwon.ac.kr

the associations between heavy metal (lead, cadmium, and mercury) exposure during early pregnancy, late pregnancy and at birth with birth outcomes, such as birth weight, small for gestational age and large for gestational age. Although several studies from developed countries have examined lead, cadmium, and mercury exposure in relation to birth outcomes^{2,7-9}, our study is significant for having one of the largest samples.

Methods Study population

This research was a component of the Korean Children's Environmental Health (Ko-CHENS) Study, which was launched in 2015 with funding from the Ministry of the Environment and the National Institute of Environmental Research to study environmental diseases in children¹⁹. This study used data collected from a total of 5215 pregnant women from 2015 to 2019. Exclusion criteria for this study were: multiple or abnormal births (n=145), toxemia of pregnancy (n=29), and missing covariates (n=3). Finally, heavy metal concentrations were measured for a total of 4948 women during early pregnancy and 4745 (missing 203) women during late pregnancy. Heavy metal concentrations were also measured for 3982 (missing 966) cord blood samples (Fig. 1). All subjects and/or their legal guardian(s) in this study provided written informed consent. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Kangwon National University Hospital (KNUH-2021-10-003). This study was conformed to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Measurement methods for lead, cadmium, and mercury

Venous blood samples were obtained from participants during early pregnancy (12–20 weeks) and late pregnancy (>28 weeks) upon outpatient visits. Vacuum blood collection tubes containing sodium ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid were used to collect whole blood samples (Vacutainer*, Beckton & Dickson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). After storing samples in a refrigerator, they were transferred to the laboratory for lead, mercury, and cadmium measurements²⁰. Blood metal levels were measured using an Agilent 7900 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Lead, cadmium, and mercury levels in blood samples were detected at 0.009 μ g/dL, 0.05 μ g/L, and 0.10 μ g/L, respectively. In addition, to handle the limit of detection (LOD) effect we used LOD analysis method, LOD/ $\sqrt{2}$, for each batch to improve research measurement accuracy of lead, cadmium and mercury²¹.

Birth weight, small for gestational age, and large for gestational age determinations

Birth outcomes such as birth weight and perinatal medical information were collected from prenatal care and delivery clinic medical charts. Other health outcomes were measured using questionnaire surveys, medical utilization databases, and health checkup databases. Birth weight was the first weight of the baby. It was taken soon after birth. If an infant's weight was measured at less than the 10th percentile, it was classified as small for gestational age (SGA). If it was measured greater than the 90th percentile, it was termed large for gestational age (LGA). In this study, a chart suggested by Fenton that was consistent with the World Health Organization growth standard was used²².

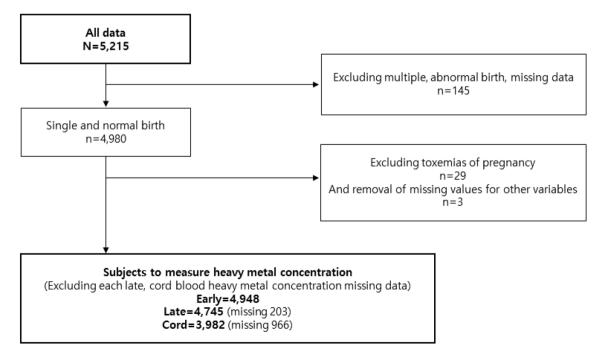


Figure 1. Flowchart showing the selection process of final participants from the Korean Children's Environmental Health Study (Ko-CHENS) to be included in this study.

Statistical analysis

Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to evaluate the association between prenatal heavy metal exposure and birth weight. Multiple logistic regression analysis was performed to calculate the odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for evaluating effects of heavy metal concentrations on SGA and LGA. Statistical model was adjusted for maternal age, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, body mass index (BMI), still birth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. The main reason for choosing these variables was their influence on birth outcomes. According to various ethnic studies, maternal smoking correlates with reduced birthweight and low birthweight prevalence among different ethnic groups^{23,24}. It has also been shown that maternal age affects birth weight. Low-birth-weight infants are more likely to be born to younger and older mothers²⁵. Additionally, infants with low birth weight are also more likely to be preterm births²⁶. Besides adjusting for these covariates, a mutually adjusted linear regression model for lead, cadmium, and mercury was used to estimate the association of heavy metal exposure with birth weight. Each metal was also mutually adjusted by a logistic regression model to explore the relationship of heavy metal exposure with LGA. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

Results

More than 95% of the samples were collected from pregnant women aged 30 years and older (early pregnancy, 96.9%; late pregnancy, 97%; and cord blood, 97.2%). Nearly three-quarters of the women had a normal BMI prior to pregnancy (early and late pregnancy, 73.4%; cord blood, 73.7%). Approximately 76% of the women reported studying in universities. Nearly half of them had a family income of \$1500 to \$3000. More than 85% of the women had never smoked. Very few reported current alcohol consumption (early pregnancy, 1.7%; late pregnancy and cord blood, 1.8%). It was found that 1.1% of early and late pregnancy groups and 1% of the cord blood group had hypertension and 1.8% of all women had gestational diabetes. Approximately 25% of early and late pregnancy groups and cord blood group reported stillbirth. In birth outcomes, proportions of SGA and LGA were about 12% and 3%, respectively, for all three sample types. The mean birth weight was 3222.2 g (SD = 443.4 g) in the early pregnancy group, 3240.6 g (SD = 405.4 g) in the late pregnancy group, and 3249.9 g (SD = 399.8 g) in the cord blood group (Table 1).

Maternal blood lead concentration was $0.74\pm0.42~\mu g/dL$ in the early pregnancy group, $0.70\pm0.58~\mu g/dL$ in the late pregnancy group, and $0.55\pm0.33~\mu g/dL$ in the cord blood group. Cadmium levels were $0.62\pm0.31~\mu g/L$ and $0.70\pm0.32~\mu g/L$ in early and late pregnancy groups, respectively, and $0.24\pm0.12~\mu g/L$ in the cord blood group. Mercury levels were $2.37\pm1.26~\mu g/L$ and $1.95\pm1.03~\mu g/L$ in early and late pregnancy groups, respectively, and $3.62\pm1.99~\mu g/L$ in the cord blood group (Table 2).

In the multiple linear regression model, after adjusting for variables in multivariate regression, birth weight showed significant negative associations with cadmium level in early pregnancy (adjusted OR = -39.96 (95% CI – 63.76, – 16.17; P = 0.0010), cadmium level in late pregnancy (adjusted OR = -37.24 (95% CI – 61.63, – 12.84; P = 0.0028), and lead level in late pregnancy (adjusted OR = -23.80 (95% CI – 44.50, – 3.10; P = 0.0243). However, cord blood lead level (adjusted OR = 30.02 (95% CI 10.38, 49.65; P = 0.0027) showed a significant positive correlation with birth weight (Table 3).

After controlling for potential confounding factors, Fenton LGA status showed significant positive associations with early pregnancy cadmium level (adjusted OR = 0.637 (95% CI 0.444, 0.912; P = 0.0139) and mercury level (adjusted OR = 1.439 (95% CI 1.010, 2.051; P = 0.0441) as well as cord blood lead level (adjusted OR = 1.443 (95% CI 1.035, 2.012; P = 0.0305). However, lead, cadmium, and mercury levels in early pregnancy, late pregnancy, and cord blood samples were not significantly associated with Fenton SGA status (Table 4).

In the mutually adjusted linear regression model, when lead and other confounding factors were adjusted, a significant negative association between maternal blood cadmium level with birth weight was seen in early pregnancy (beta = -36.62, 95% CI -61.20, -12.05; P = 0.0035) and late pregnancy (beta = -32.65, 95% CI -57.65; P = 0.0105). After adjusting for cadmium level along with other confounding factors, birth weight showed a statistically significant positive association with cord blood lead level (beta = 31.26, 95% CI 11.53, 50.98; P = 0.0019). Also, after adjusting for mercury and other confounding factors, cadmium levels in early (beta = -40.71, 95% CI -64.74, -16.68; P = 0.0009) and late (beta = -36.28, 95% CI -61.01, -11.55; P = 0.0040) pregnancy showed significant negative associations with birth weight. However, birth weight showed a significant positive association with lead level in cord blood (beta = 32.52, 95% CI 12.58, 52.46; P = 0.0014) (Table 5).

In mutually adjusted logistic regression, after adjusting for lead along with other confounding factors, LGA showed significant positive associations with early pregnancy cadmium level (beta = 0.643, 95% CI 0.444, 0.932; P = 0.0198) and early pregnancy mercury level (beta = 1.502, 95% CI 0.047, 0.027). When cadmium level was adjusted along with other confounding factors, early pregnancy mercury level (beta = 1.542, 95% CI 0.078, 0.027) and cord blood lead level (beta = 0.027). When cadmium level was associations with LGA. After adjusting for mercury and other confounding factors, LGA was associated with maternal blood early pregnancy cadmium level (beta = 0.601, 95% CI = 0.419, 0.863; P = 0.0058) and cord blood lead level (beta = 0.427, 95% CI 0.047) (Table 6).

Discussion

This study examined adverse effects of prenatal exposure to heavy metals on birth outcomes in a Korean population. We investigated heavy metal concentrations in early and late pregnancy and in cord blood. After controlling for confounders, maternal cadmium concentrations in early and late pregnancy were significantly associated with low birth weights of infants.

The mean maternal blood cadmium concentration was $0.62~\mu g/L$ in early pregnancy, $0.70~\mu g/L$ in late pregnancy, and $0.24~\mu g/L$ in cord blood. The mean maternal and cord blood cadmium concentrations in this study

	Early	Late	Cord	
	n=4948	n=4745	n=3982	
	n (%) or mean ± sd	n (%) or mean ± sd	n (%) or mean ± sd	
Maternal age categories		•		
20-29	154 (3.1)	144 (3.0)	112 (2.8)	
30-34	1176 (23.8)	1141 (24.1)	915 (23.0)	
34-39	2365 (47.8)	2270 (47.8)	1919 (48.2)	
40+	1253 (25.3)	1190 (25.1)	1036 (26.0)	
Parity				
0	3436 (69.4)	3286 (69.3)	2767 (69.5)	
1+	1512 (30.6)	1459 (30.8)	1215 (30.5)	
Infant sex				
Male	2533 (51.1)	2432 (51.2)	2028 (50.9)	
Female	2415 (48.8)	2313 (48.8)	1954 (49.1)	
Education				
Middle & high	600 (12.1)	569 (12.0)	494 (12.4)	
University	3745 (75.7)	3591 (75.7)	3018 (75.8)	
Graduate school+	603 (12.2)	585 (12.3)	470 (11.8)	
Family income (dollars)	1			
<\$1500	326 (6.6)	316 (6.7)	274 (6.9)	
\$1500~\$3000	2464 (49.8)	2358 (49.7)	2026 (50.9)	
≥\$3000	2158 (43.6)	2071 (43.7)	1682 (42.2)	
Smoking status		'		
Current	27 (0.6)	26 (0.6)	26 (0.7)	
Former	612 (12.4)	585 (12.3)	496 (12.5)	
Never	4309 (87.1)	4134 (87.1)	3460 (86.9)	
Drinking status		•		
Current	86 (1.7)	83 (1.8)	72 (1.8)	
Former	3734 (75.5)	3584 (75.6)	3027 (76.0)	
Never	1128 (22.8)	1078 (22.7)	883 (22.2)	
BMI group				
Underweight	532 (10.8)	510 (10.8)	420 (10.6)	
Normal	3631 (73.4)	3481 (73.4)	2934 (73.7)	
Obese	785 (15.9)	754 (15.9)	628 (15.8)	
Stillbirth	1253 (25.3)	1208 (25.5)	995 (25.0)	
Hypertension	56 (1.1)	53 (1.1)	39 (1.0)	
Diabetes	33 (0.7)	31 (0.7)	24 (0.6)	
Gestational diabetes	91 (1.8)	86 (1.8)	71 (1.8)	
Preterm birth (<37 weeks)	262 (5.3)	199 (4.2)	148 (3.7)	
Birth outcomes		•		
Birth weight (grams)	3222.2 ± 443.4	3240.6 ± 405.4	3249.9 ± 399.8	
SGA	628 (12.7)	605 (12.8)	504 (12.7)	
LGA	145 (2.9)	139 (2.9)	119 (3.0)	

Table 1. General characteristics of the study population. Data are presented as numbers (%) or mean ± standard deviation. *SGA* small for gestational age, *LGA* large for gestational age, *BMI* body mass index.

were higher than those reported in the United Kingdom (mean 0.56 μ g/L in early pregnancy) in 2016³, in Australia (mean 0.54 μ g/L in late pregnancy) in 2013²⁷, in an eastern China study conducted in 209 pregnant women in late pregnancy (mean 0.48 μ g/L) and cord blood (mean 0.09 μ g/L)¹⁰ in 2014, in North Carolina, USA (mean 0.46 μ g/L in late pregnancy) in 2014⁵, in South Africa (mean 0.25 μ g/L in late pregnancy and 0.27 μ g/L in cord blood) in 2015⁶; and in Norway in second-trimester smokers (Geometric mean, GM = 0.26 μ g/L) and non-smokers (GM = 0.15 μ g/L) in 2011²⁸. However, our study found lower cadmium levels in maternal blood in late pregnancy (mean 0.98 μ g/L) and cord blood (mean 0.78 μ g/L) than those in a Saudi Arabian study in 2014⁷. A number of factors, such as the number of subjects and the type of covariates used, might have contributed to such differences in cadmium levels in above-mentioned results from developed and developing countries.

The present study also showed lower cadmium concentrations than those in the Korean multi-center prospective birth cohort MOCEH study. However, our study found trends similar to those in the MOCEH study (late pregnancy maternal blood: $1.51 \, \mu g/L$ vs. early pregnancy maternal blood: $1.41 \, \mu g/L$ vs. cord blood $0.67 \, \mu g/L$)²⁹.

	Mean ± SD	n of < LOD	Min	5%	10%	25%	50%	75%	90%	95%	Max
Lead (µg	Lead (µg/dL)										
Early	0.74 ± 0.42	606	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.48	0.67	0.92	1.21	1.42	6.11
Late	0.70 ± 0.58	736	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.44	0.62	0.84	1.12	1.35	24.78
Cord	0.55 ± 0.33	0	0.13	0.13	0.20	0.33	0.49	0.70	0.93	1.11	4.16
Cadmiu	Cadmium (μg/L)										
Early	0.62 ± 0.31	335	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.42	0.57	0.76	1.00	1.19	3.53
Late	0.70 ± 0.32	755	0.23	0.23	0.37	0.49	0.66	0.86	1.07	1.26	3.71
Cord	0.24 ± 0.12	0	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.23	0.29	0.36	0.40	1.95
Mercury	Mercury (μg/L)										
Early	2.37 ± 1.26	1463	0.14	1.01	1.19	1.55	2.07	2.84	3.87	4.72	12.02
Late	1.95 ± 1.03	374	0.06	0.88	1.02	1.31	1.72	2.31	3.09	3.72	19.81
Cord	3.62 ± 1.99	0	0.43	1.53	1.81	2.37	3.16	4.30	5.77	7.24	23.51

Table 2. Heavy metal concentrations (lead, cadmium, mercury). *LOD* limit of detection.

	Birth weight				
	Beta (95% CI)	p-value			
Early					
Lead (μg/dL)	-19.89 (-41.13, 1.34)	0.0664			
Cadmium (µg/L)	-39.96 (-63.76, -16.17)	0.0010*			
Mercury (μg/L)	-0.28 (-23.81, 23.24)	0.9810			
Late					
Lead (μg/dL)	-23.80 (-44.50, -3.10)	0.0243*			
Cadmium (µg/L)	-37.24 (-61.63, -12.84)	0.0028*			
Mercury (μg/L)	-11.54 (-35.38, 12.30)	0.3428			
Cord					
Lead (μg/dL)	30.02 (10.38, 49.65)	0.0027*			
Cadmium (µg/L)	-14.03 (-42.40, 14.33)	0.3322			
Mercury (μg/L)	-11.06 (-35.94, 13.80)	0.3830			

Table 3. Multiple regression of log-transformed lead, cadmium, and mercury levels. Adjusted for maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. *p-value < 0.05.

	SGA		LGA				
	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p-value	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p-value			
Early							
Lead (μg/dL)	1.059 (0.899, 1.246)	0.4937	0.871 (0.626, 1.212)	0.4134			
Cadmium (µg/L)	1.066 (0.887, 1.282)	0.4956	0.637 (0.444, 0.912)	0.0139*			
Mercury (μg/L)	0.909 (0.758, 1.090)	0.3030	1.439 (1.010, 2.051)	0.0441*			
Late							
Lead (μg/dL)	1.151 (0.975, 1.359)	0.0958	0.956 (0.687, 1.330)	0.7889			
Cadmium (µg/L)	1.044 (0.858, 1.271)	0.6681	0.790 (0.535, 1.166)	0.2349			
Mercury (μg/L)	1.052 (0.868, 1.276)	0.6047	1.381 (0.952, 2.004)	0.0893			
Cord							
Lead (μg/dL)	0.942 (0.804, 1.105)	0.4646	1.443 (1.035, 2.012)	0.0305*			
Cadmium (µg/L)	1.244 (0.991, 1.562)	0.0595	0.795 (0.502, 1.258)	0.3270			
Mercury (μg/L)	1.048 (0.856, 1.284)	0.6473	1.202 (0.813, 1.778)	0.3567			

Table 4. Multiple logistic regression of log-transformed lead, cadmium, and mercury levels. Adjusted for maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. SGA small for gestational age, LGA large for gestational age. *p-value < 0.05.

	Birth weight (grams)						
	Beta (95% CI)	p-value	Beta (95% CI)	p-value			
Early							
Cadmium (µg/L)	-36.62 (-61.20, -12.05)	0.0035	-40.71 (-64.74, -16.68) ²	0.0009			
Late							
Cadmium (µg/L)	-32.65 (-57.65, -7.65)1	0.0105	-36.28 (-61.01, -11.55)2	0.0040			
Cord							
Lead (μg/dL)	31.26 (11.53, 50.98) ³	0.0019	32.52 (12.58, 52.46) ²	0.0014			

Table 5. Mutually adjusted linear regression model of log-transformed lead, cadmium, and mercury levels.

¹Adjusted for lead, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes.

²Adjusted for mercury, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes.

³Adjusted for cadmium, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes.

	LGA	LGA					
	Beta (95% CI)	p-value	Beta (95% CI)	p-value			
Early		·					
Cadmium (µg/L)	0.643 (0.444, 0.932)1	0.0198	0.601 (0.419, 0.863)2	0.0058			
Mercury (μg/L)	1.502 (1.047, 2.154)1	0.0271	1.542 (1.078, 2.205) ³	0.0177			
Cord							
Lead (μg/dL)	1.471 (1.053, 2.056) ³	0.0236	1.421 (1.014, 1.989) ²	0.0410			

Table 6. Mutually adjusted logistic regression model of log-transformed lead, cadmium, and mercury levels. *LGA* large for gestational age. ¹Adjusted for lead, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. ²Adjusted for mercury, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes. ³Adjusted for cadmium, maternal age group, parity, infant sex, education, income, smoking, drinking, BMI group, stillbirth, premature birth, diabetes, hypertension, and gestational diabetes.

Blood cadmium concentrations during late pregnancy were higher than those during early pregnancy. They were the lowest in cord blood (late pregnancy maternal blood: $0.70~\mu g/L$ vs. early pregnancy maternal blood: $0.62~\mu g/L$ vs. cord blood $0.24~\mu g/L$). These observations were consistent with another study (late pregnancy maternal blood: $0.98~\mu g/L$ vs. cord blood: $0.78~\mu g/L$). Although cadmium levels in our study were lower than those in the above studies, cadmium is harmful even at low concentrations³⁰. Moreover, we found that maternal and cord blood cadmium levels, even when they were low, were more strongly associated with an increased risk of low birth weight and LGA status than lead and mercury levels.

This study found that blood lead concentrations were particularly low (0.74 $\mu g/dL$ in early pregnancy, 0.70 $\mu g/dL$ in late pregnancy, and 0.55 $\mu g/dL$ in cord blood) compared to those in a study in China of 209 pregnant women (third-trimester maternal blood lead GM = 3.95 $\mu g/dL$ and cord blood GM = 3.16 $\mu g/dL$) in 2014¹⁰, another study in China of 252 mother-infant pairs (maternal blood lead GM = 3.53 $\mu g/dL$ and cord blood lead level GM = 2.92 $\mu g/dL$)⁴, and a study in Saudi Arabia (late pregnancy maternal blood lead concentration mean = 2.89 $\mu g/dL$ and cord blood mean = 2.55 $\mu g/dL$) in 2014⁷. However, some studies have found similar levels, including a study in Norway (second-trimester maternal blood lead GM = 0.75 $\mu g/dL$) in 2011²⁸ and a study in the United States (midterm pregnancy blood lead GM = 0.7 $\mu g/dL$) in 2018³¹. Some studies showed lower concentrations than ours, including an Australian study (late pregnancy maternal blood mean = 0.5 $\mu g/L$) in 2013²⁷ and a Puerto Rican study (maternal blood GM = 0.33 $\mu g/dL$)⁹.

Maternal blood mercury concentrations in our study (early pregnancy maternal blood 2.37 μ g/L and late pregnancy maternal blood 1.95 μ g/L) were greater than those in studies conducted in Norway (mean = 1.2 μ g/L)²⁸, China (GM = 0.84 μ g/L)³², Australia (mean = 0.83 μ g/L)²⁷, and the United States (GM = 0.6 μ g/L)³¹, but lower than in those in studies conducted in Greenland (mean = 16.8 μ g/L)³³ and Saudi Arabia (mean = 3.00 μ g/dL)⁷. Mercury concentrations in our study were also lower than those in a Korean study (early pregnancy maternal blood GM = 3.67 μ g/L, late pregnancy maternal blood GM = 3.30 μ g/L and cord blood GM = 5.53 μ g/L) that was a part of the Mothers and Children's Environmental Health Study performed between 2006 and 2008 on 417 Korean women and newborns³⁴. Despite having lower mercury levels than the above Korean study, our study had a large sample size and showed a significant association between mercury and LGA status. We also accounted for lead and cadmium concentrations, whereas the above Korean study only focused on mercury concentrations.

Lead concentrations (early pregnancy maternal blood 0.74 vs. late pregnancy maternal blood 0.70 vs. cord blood 0.55 μ g/dL) and mercury concentrations (early pregnancy maternal blood 2.37 vs. late pregnancy maternal blood 1.95 vs. cord blood 3.63 μ g/L) in this study were consistent with those of the MOCEH study (lead: early pregnancy maternal blood GM = 1.30 vs. late pregnancy maternal blood GM = 1.20 vs. cord blood 0.92 μ g/dL; mercury: early pregnancy maternal blood GM = 3.29 vs. late pregnancy maternal blood GM = 3.05 vs. cord blood GM = 5.10 μ g/L)²⁹. In our study, blood lead concentrations during late pregnancy were lower than those in early pregnancy. As lead can move from blood into bones during pregnancy, physiological factors such as increases in plasma estrogen concentrations might have contributed to this decrease ^{35,36}. Total blood mercury levels (GM) in late pregnancy were lower than those in early pregnancy. Previous studies have shown the same trend ^{37,38}. This decrease of blood mercury level during late pregnancy is due to the diluting effect of increased plasma volume³⁹.

Several studies have examined effects of heavy metal exposure on newborn anthropometrics^{7,10,11}. Among these, cadmium was found to have the most profound impact on several birth outcomes, although birth outcomes showed no correlation with lead or mercury concentrations in the same population⁷. Since heavy metals cause physiological immaturity during pregnancy and early life, they can pose a serious threat to fetal and infant health⁴⁰. The effects of cadmium on apoptosis, oxidative stress, reactive oxygen species, and deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) repair can be attributed to its toxicity⁴⁰. Cadmium may also affect growth in fetuses by affecting 11betahydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2 activity⁴¹. During pregnancy, exposure to cadmium has been linked to decreased birth weights and premature births, and elevated levels of placental cadmium resulting from maternal exposure to industrial waste or tobacco smoke have been associated with decreased progesterone biosynthesis by the placental trophoblast⁴². Also, A number of potential mechanisms can contribute to cadmium-induced fetal growth restriction (FGR), including hypoxia in the fetus, disturbed fetoplacental zinc homeostasis, and reduced blood flow to the uterus and placenta 42,43. Previous studies have shown a link between prenatal cadmium exposure and low birth weight^{5,10}. A total of 408 mother-infant pairs in Hubei Province, China provided evidence of a positive association between maternal cadmium exposure and the risk of infant preterm low birth weight (PLBW)⁴⁴. An earlier cross-sectional study of 209 pregnant women in Eastern China observed that maternal blood cadmium levels were inversely related to birth weight $(r = -0.22; P = 0.03)^{10}$. Another study of 1027 pregnant women in the United States reported that high maternal blood cadmium levels ($\geq 0.50 \,\mu g/L$) were negatively associated with birth weight percentile for gestational age and positively associated with SGA (OR = 1.71; 95% CI 1.10, 2.64)⁵. Consistent with these results, our findings also indicated that high maternal blood cadmium levels (early pregnancy 0.62 μg/L and late pregnancy 0.70 μg/L) were inversely associated with birth weight, whereas they showed no association with SGA.

Our analysis demonstrated that cord blood lead level was positively associated with birth weight. Although we observed a statistically significant positive association, it could be due to the impact of other factors, such as maternal nutrition that may influence birth weight. As such, nutritional intake was not considered in this study, although it could have an impact on low birth weight⁴⁵. Therefore, we could not completely exclude the influence of dietary intake on metal exposure measurements⁴⁶. One previous study has also detected a positive association between birth weight and nickel⁹. Likewise, another study reported a non-significant positive association between cadmium level and birth weight (maternal blood, β = 87.0, 95% CI – 63.1–237.0; cord blood, β = 55.0, 95% CI – 108.2–218.3)⁴⁷. However, previous studies showed a significant inverse association between lead and birth weight^{4,48} or no association^{11,12}.

This study had several strengths. First, this study had a prospective Korean birth cohort design with extensive information on potential confounders. The main strength of this study was its large sample size. Moreover, heavy metals were estimated at two time points, early pregnancy and late pregnancy, to provide accurate associations between heavy metal levels and outcomes. However, this study also had some limitations. First, this study only focused on three major heavy metals. The presence of other toxic heavy metals might have affected the main result. For example, one study showed that selenium level was associated with newborn birth weight and that increased selenium intake might decrease cord blood cadmium concentrations¹⁰. However, the majority of previous studies, including ours, demonstrated that cadmium was linked to lower birth weight^{2,7}. Second, genetic information that could be correlated with birth outcomes was not included in the present study⁴⁹.

Conclusion

Our results suggest that low levels of prenatal exposure to cadmium, lead, and mercury might affect birth outcomes. This study provides further support for the need to reduce cadmium exposure among pregnant women as much as possible. Although the effect of heavy metal exposure on birth outcomes might be small, their consequences might not be negligible. Further studies on effects of prenatal exposure to a variety of metals present in the environment on birth outcomes are needed.

Data availability

Data were deposited in the National Institute of Environment Research. For access, please contact the NIER and corresponding author.

Received: 25 April 2023; Accepted: 30 October 2023 Published online: 03 November 2023

References

- 1. Gundacker, C. & Hengstschlager, M. The role of the placenta in fetal exposure to heavy metals. Wien. Med. Wochenschr. 162, 201–206. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10354-012-0074-3 (2012).
- 2. Wai, K. M., Mar, O., Kosaka, S., Umemura, M. & Watanabe, C. Prenatal heavy metal exposure and adverse birth outcomes in Myanmar: A birth-cohort study. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* 14, 1339. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14111339 (2017).

- 3. Taylor, C. M., Golding, J. & Emond, A. M. Moderate prenatal cadmium exposure and adverse birth outcomes: A role for sex-specific differences? *Paediatr. Perinat. Epidemiol.* 30, 603–611. https://doi.org/10.1111/ppe.12318 (2016).
- 4. Xie, X. et al. The effects of low-level prenatal lead exposure on birth outcomes. Environ. Pollut. 175, 30–34. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.envpol.2012.12.013 (2013).
- Johnston, J. E., Valentiner, E., Maxson, P., Miranda, M. L. & Fry, R. C. Maternal cadmium levels during pregnancy associated with lower birth weight in infants in a North Carolina cohort. PLoS One 9, e109661. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0109661 (2014).
- 6. Rollin, H. B., Kootbodien, T., Channa, K. & Odland, J. O. Prenatal exposure to cadmium, placental permeability and birth outcomes in coastal populations of South Africa. *PLoS One* 10, e0142455. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0142455 (2015).
- 7. Al-Saleh, Î., Shinwari, N., Mashhour, A. & Rabah, A. Birth outcome measures and maternal exposure to heavy metals (lead, cadmium and mercury) in Saudi Arabian population. *Int. J. Hyg. Environ. Health* 217, 205–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2013.04.009 (2014).
- 8. Thomas, S. *et al.* Metals exposure and risk of small-for-gestational age birth in a Canadian birth cohort: The MIREC study. *Environ. Res.* **140**, 430–439. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2015.04.018 (2015).
- 9. Ashrap, P. et al. Maternal blood metal and metalloid concentrations in association with birth outcomes in Northern Puerto Rico. Environ. Int. 138, 105606. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.105606 (2020).
- Sun, H. et al. The effects of prenatal exposure to low-level cadmium, lead and selenium on birth outcomes. Chemosphere 108, 33–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.02.080 (2014).
- Zheng, G. et al. Levels of heavy metals and trace elements in umbilical cord blood and the risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes: A population-based study. Biol. Trace Elem. Res. 160, 437–444. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12011-014-0057-x (2014).
- 12. Rahman, A., Al-Rashidi, H. A. & Khan, A. R. Association of maternal blood lead level during pregnancy with child blood lead level and pregnancy outcome in Kuwait. *Ecol. Food Nutr.* 51, 40–57. https://doi.org/10.1080/03670244.2012.635571 (2012).
- 13. Potula, V. & Kaye, W. Report from the CDC. Is lead exposure a risk factor for bone loss?. J. Women's Health 14, 461–464. https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2005.14.461 (2005).
- Stasenko, S. *et al.* Metals in human placenta: Focus on the effects of cadmium on steroid hormones and leptin. *J. Appl. Toxicol.* 30, 242–253. https://doi.org/10.1002/jat.1490 (2010).
- Ramon, R. et al. Fish consumption during pregnancy, prenatal mercury exposure, and anthropometric measures at birth in a prospective mother-infant cohort study in Spain. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 90, 1047–1055. https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.2009.27944 (2009).
- Lawn, J. E., Cousens, S. & Zupan, J. 4 million neonatal deaths: When? Where? Why?. Lancet 365, 891–900. https://doi.org/10.1016/ S0140-6736(05)71048-5 (2005).
- 17. Johnson, R. C. & Schoeni, R. F. Early-life origins of adult disease: National longitudinal population-based study of the United States. *Am. J. Public Health* 101, 2317–2324. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2011.300252 (2011).
- Alexander, B. T., Dasinger, J. H. & Intapad, S. Effect of low birth weight on women's health. Clin. Ther. 36, 1913–1923. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.clinthera.2014.06.026 (2014).
- 19. Jeong, K. S. *et al.* Cohort profile: Beyond birth cohort study—The Korean CHildren's ENvironmental health Study (Ko-CHENS). *Environ. Res.* 172, 358–366. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2018.12.009 (2019).
- Kim, H. J. et al. Determination of trace metal levels in the general population of Korea. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health 14, 702. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph1407072.2018.12.009 (2017).
- Boss, J. et al. Estimating outcome-exposure associations when exposure biomarker detection limits vary across batches. Epidemiology 30, 746–755. https://doi.org/10.1097/ede.000000000001052 (2019).
- Fenton, T. R. & Kim, J. H. A systematic review and meta-analysis to revise the Fenton growth chart for preterm infants. BMC Pediatr. 13, 59. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2431-13-59 (2013).
- Suzuki, K. et al. Is maternal smoking during early pregnancy a risk factor for all low birth weight infants?. J. Epidemiol. 18, 89–96. https://doi.org/10.2188/jea.JE2007415 (2008).
- Chiolero, A., Bovet, P. & Paccaud, F. Association between maternal smoking and low birth weight in Switzerland: the EDEN study. Swiss Med. Wkly. 135, 525–530. https://doi.org/10.4414/smw.2005.11122 (2005).
- Reichman, N. E. & Pagnini, D. L. Maternal age and birth outcomes: Data from New Jersey. Fam. Plan. Perspect. 29, 268–295. https://doi.org/10.2307/2953415 (1997).
- Williams, C. E. et al. Mechanisms of risk in preterm low-birthweight infants. Periodontol. 2000 23, 142–150. https://doi.org/10. 1034/i.1600-0757.2000.2230115.x (2000).
- 27. Hinwood, A. L. et al. Cadmium, lead and mercury exposure in non smoking pregnant women. Environ. Res. 126, 118–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2013.07.005 (2013).
- Hansen, S. et al. Changes in maternal blood concentrations of selected essential and toxic elements during and after pregnancy. J. Environ. Monit. 13, 2143–2152. https://doi.org/10.1039/c1em10051c (2011).
- 29. Jeong, K. S. *et al.* Blood heavy metal concentrations in pregnant Korean women and their children up to age 5 years: Mothers' and Children's Environmental Health (MOCEH) birth cohort study. *Sci. Total Environ.* **605**, 784–791. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scito tenv.2017.06.007 (2017).
- 30. Espart, A., Artime, S., Tort-Nasarre, G. & Yara-Varon, E. Cadmium exposure during pregnancy and lactation: Materno-fetal and newborn repercussions of Cd(ii), and Cd-metallothionein complexes. *Metallomics* 10, 1359–1367. https://doi.org/10.1039/c8mt0
- 31. Kalloo, G. et al. Profiles and predictors of environmental chemical mixture exposure among pregnant women: The HOME study. Environ. Sci. Technol. 52, 10104–10113. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b02946 (2018).
- 32. Ding, G. D. et al. Prenatal low-level mercury exposure and neonatal anthropometry in rural northern China. Chemosphere 92, 1085–1089. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2013.01.045 (2013).
- 33. Bjerregaard, P. & Hansen, J. C. Organochlorines and heavy metals in pregnant women from the Disko Bay area in Greenland. Sci. Total Environ. 245, 195–202. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0048-9697(99)00444-1 (2000).
- Lee, B. E. et al. Interaction between GSTM1/GSTT1 polymorphism and blood mercury on birth weight. Environ. Health Persp. 118, 437–442. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.0900731 (2010).
- 35. Lee, B. K. & Kim, Y. Association between bone mineral density and blood lead level in menopausal women: Analysis of 2008–2009 Korean national health and nutrition examination survey data. *Environ. Res.* 115, 59–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2012.03. 010 (2012).
- 36. Silbergeld, E. K., Schwartz, J. & Mahaffey, K. Lead and osteoporosis: Mobilization of lead from bone in postmenopausal women. *Environ. Res.* 47, 79–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0013-9351(88)80023-9 (1988).
- 37. Vahter, M. et al. Longitudinal study of methylmercury and inorganic mercury in blood and urine of pregnant and lactating women, as well as in umbilical cord blood. Environ. Res. 84, 186–194. https://doi.org/10.1006/enrs.2000.4098 (2000).
- 38. Arbuckle, T. E. et al. Maternal and fetal exposure to cadmium, lead, manganese and mercury: The MIREC study. Chemosphere 163, 270–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.08.023 (2016).
- 39. Hytten, F. Blood volume changes in normal pregnancy. *Clin. Haematol.* **14**, 601–612. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-2261(21) 00496-3 (1985).
- Chandravanshi, L., Shiv, K. & Kumar, S. Developmental toxicity of cadmium in infants and children: A review. *Environ. Anal. Health Toxicol.* 36, e2021003–e2021000. https://doi.org/10.5620/eaht.2021003 (2021).

- 41. Yang, K. P., Julan, L., Rubio, F., Sharma, A. & Guan, H. Y. Cadmium reduces 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2 activity and expression in human placental trophoblast cells. *Am. J. Physiol.-Endoc. Metabol.* **290**, E135–E142. https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpendo.00356.2005 (2006).
- 42. Henson, M. C. & Chedrese, P. J. Endocrine disruption by cadmium, a common environmental toxicant with paradoxical effects on reproduction. *Exp. Biol. Med. (Maywood)* 229, 383–392. https://doi.org/10.1177/153537020422900506 (2004).
- 43. McAleer, M. F. & Tuan, R. S. Cytotoxicant-induced trophoblast dysfunction and abnormal pregnancy outcomes: Role of zinc and metallothionein. *Birth Defects Res. C Embryo Today* 72, 361–370. https://doi.org/10.1002/bdrc.20024 (2004).
- 44. Huang, K. et al. Prenatal cadmium exposure and preterm low birth weight in China. J. Expo. Sci. Environ. Epidemiol. 27, 491–496. https://doi.org/10.1038/jes.2016.41 (2017).
- 45. Yang, W. X. et al. Maternal diet quality during pregnancy and its influence on low birth weight and small for gestational age: a birth cohort in Beijing, China. Brit. J. Nutr. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114522000708 (2022).
- 46. Marini, M., Angouria-Tsorochidou, E., Caro, D. & Thomsen, M. Daily intake of heavy metals and minerals in food—A case study of four Danish dietary profiles. *J. Clean Prod.* 280, 124279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.124279 (2021).
- 47. Hu, X. B. et al. Distributions of heavy metals in maternal and cord blood and the association with infant birth weight in China. J. Reprod. Med. 60, 21–29 (2015).
- 48. McMichael, A. J., Vimpani, G. V., Robertson, E. F., Baghurst, P. A. & Clark, P. D. The Port Pirie cohort study: Maternal blood lead and pregnancy outcome. *J. Epidemiol. Community Health* 40, 18–25. https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.40.1.18 (1986).
- 49. Rossner, P. Jr. *et al.* Genetic, biochemical, and environmental factors associated with pregnancy outcomes in newborns from the Czech Republic. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **119**, 265–271. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1002470 (2011).

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by a grant (NIER-2021-04-02-156) from the National Institute of Environment Research (NIER), funded by the Ministry of Environment (MOE), Republic of Korea. This research was also supported by "Regional Innovation Strategy (RIS)" (2023RIS-005) through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (MOE), Republic of Korea.

Author contributions

S.S.Z., and W.K.: Conception, Design. S.S.Z., K.Y., E.L., M.L., J.K., W.K., and Ko-CHENS study group.: Data acquisition. S.S.Z., K.Y., E.L., M.L., J.K., and W.K.: Data analysis, interpretation. W.K.: Project supervision. S.S.Z., J.K., and W.K.: Preparation of manuscript draft. All authors provided critical feedback and helped shape the research, analysis, and manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to W.J.K.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2023

Ko-CHENS Study group

Choonghee Park², Hyun Jeong Kim², Soon-Won Jung², Sooyeon Hong², A-Ra Jung², Jueun Lee², Seung Do Yu², Namkyoung Hwang³, Dong Jin Jeong³, Heung Won Seo³, Hae Soon Kim⁴, Myeongjee Lee⁵, Eun Kyo Park⁵, Seulbi Lee⁶, Hoon Kookⁿ, Hee Jo Baekⁿ, Jai Dong Moonⁿ, Won Ju Parkⁿ, Myung-Geun Shinゥ, Ki-Chung Paik¹o,¹¹³, Ho-Jang Kwon¹¹¹,¹³, Myung-Ho Lim¹²,¹³, Seung Jin Yoo¹³, Sanghyuk Bae¹⁴, Young-Seoub Hong¹⁵, Yu-Mi Kim¹⁵, Jeong-Wook Seo¹⁵, Myo Jing Kim¹⁶, Hee Won Chueh¹⁶, Dae Hyun Lim¹¹,¹¹ⁿ, Jeong Hee Kim¹¹,¹¹ⁿ, Joohye Park¹³, Donghyun Kim¹¹,¹¹³, Hye Ju So¹³, Sung-Chul Hong¹9,²⁰, Keun Hwa Lee¹9,²¹, Su-Young Kim¹9,²⁰, Woo Jin Kim¹≅ & Sunghun Na²², Ji Tae Choung²³,²⁴, Young Yoo²³,²⁴, Sung Chul Seo²⁴, Hyeonju Kang²⁴, Ji Yeon Jang²⁴, Minyoung Jung²⁵, Se-Jin Chun²⊓, Young-Min Kim²⊓, Jihyun Kim²⁶,²⊓, Youn-Hee Lim²³,², Joong Shin Park³⁰, Chan-Wook Park³⁰, Choong Ho Shin³¹, Kuck Hyeun Woo³², SungYong Choi³³, Jin Kyung Kim³⁴, Wonho Yang³⁵, Jongil Hur³⁶, Myung-Sook Park³⁶, Kyung-Hwa Choi³⁶,³⊓, Seung-Hwa Lee³⁶, Inbo Oh³³,

Jiho Lee³⁹ & Chang Sun Sim³⁹

²Department of Environmental Health Research, Environmental Health Research Division, National Institute of Environmental Research, Ministry of Environment, Incheon, Republic of Korea, ³Environmental Health Policy Division, Office of Environmental Health, Ministry of Environment, Sejong, Republic of Korea. ⁴Department of Pediatrics, Ewha Womans University Medical Center, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ⁵Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, School of Medicine, Ewha Womans University, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ⁶Department of Medical Science, School of Medicine, Ewha Womans University, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ⁷Environmental Health Center for Childhood Leukemia and Cancer, and Department of Pediatrics, Chonnam National University Hwasun Hospital, Hwasun, Republic of Korea, 8Environmental Health Center for Childhood Leukemia and Cancer, and Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Chonnam National University Hwasun Hospital, Hwasun, Republic of Korea. ⁹Environmental Health Center for Childhood Leukemia and Cancer, and Department of Laboratory Medicine, Chonnam National University Hwasun Hospital, Hwasun, Republic of Korea. ¹⁰Department of Psychiatry, Dankook University College of Medicine, Cheonan, Republic of Korea. ¹¹Department of Preventive Medicine, Dankook University College of Medicine, Cheonan, Republic of Korea. ¹²Department of Psychology, College of Public Services, Dankook University, Cheonan, Republic of Korea. ¹³Environmental Health Center, Dankook University Medical Center, Cheonan, Republic of Korea. ¹⁴Department of Preventive Medicine, College of Medicine, The Catholic University of Korea, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ¹⁵Department of Preventive Medicine and Heavy Metal, Exposure Environmental Health Center, Dong-A University College of Medicine, Busan, Republic of Korea. ¹⁶Department of Pediatrics, Dong-A University College of Medicine, Busan, Republic of Korea. ¹⁷Department of Pediatrics, Inha University School of Medicine, Incheon, Republic of Korea. ¹⁸Environmental Health Center for Allergic Diseases, Inha University Hospital, Incheon, Republic of Korea. ¹⁹The Environmental Health Center, Jeju National University College of Medicine, Jeju, Republic of Korea. ²⁰Department of Preventive Medicine, Jeju National University College of Medicine, Jeju, Republic of Korea. ²¹Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Jeju National University College of Medicine, Jeju, Republic of Korea. ²²Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Kangwon National University Hospital, Kangwon National University School of Medicine, Chuncheon, Republic of Korea. ²³Department of Pediatrics, Korea University Anam Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea, ²⁴Environmental Health Center, Korea University Anam Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea, ²⁵Department of Pediatrics, Kosin University Gospel Hospital, Kosin University School of Medicine, Busan, Republic of Korea. ²⁶Department of Pediatrics, Samsung Medical Center, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ²⁷Environmental Health Center for Atopic Diseases, Samsung Medical Center, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea. 28 Environmental Health Center, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea. ²⁹Institute of Environmental Medicine, Seoul National University Medical Research Center, Seoul, Republic of Korea. 30 Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Seoul National University Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea. 31Department of Pediatrics, Seoul National University Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea. 32Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Soonchunhyang University Gumi Hospital, Gumi, Republic of Korea. 33 Environmental Health Center, Soonchunhyang University Gumi Hospital, Gumi, Republic of Korea. ³⁴Department of Pediatrics, Daegu Catholic University School of Medicine, Daegu, Republic of Korea. 35Department of Occupational Health, Daegu Catholic University, Kyongsan, Republic of Korea. ³⁶Taean Environmental Health Center, Taean, Republic of Korea. ³⁷Department of Preventive Medicine, Dankook University College of Medicine, Cheonan, Republic of Korea. 38 Environmental Health Center, University of Ulsan College of Medicine, Ulsan, Republic of Korea. ³⁹Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Ulsan University Hospital, University of Ulsan College of Medicine, Ulsan, Republic of Korea.