

1 **The impacts of emission trends of POPs on human concentration dynamics:**
2 **Lessons learned from a longitudinal study in Norway (1979-2007)**

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4 Therese Haugdahl Nøst,^{†1,2} Torkjel Manning Sandanger,^{†1,2} Evert Nieboer,³ Jon Øyvind
5 Odland,² Knut Breivik^{4,5}

6

7 ¹NILU - Norwegian Institute for Air Research, the FRAM Centre, P.O. Box 6606 Langnes,
8 NO-9296 Tromsø, Norway;

9 ²Department of Community Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences, UiT - the Arctic

10 University of Norway, P.O. Box 6050 Langnes, NO-9037 Tromsø, Norway;

11 ³Department of Biochemistry and Biomedical Sciences, McMaster University, 1280 Main
12 Street West, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada;

13 ⁴NILU - Norwegian Institute for Air Research, P.O. Box 100, NO-2027 Kjeller, Norway;

14 ⁵Department of Chemistry, University of Oslo, P.O. Box 1033, NO-0315 Oslo, Norway.

15 [†]The authors agree that the first two authors are to be regarded as joint first authors.

16 **Corresponding author:** Therese Haugdahl Nøst, Department of Community Medicine,

17 Faculty of Health Sciences, UiT - the Arctic University of Norway, P.O. Box 6050 Langnes,

18 NO-9037 Tromsø, Norway; E-mail: therese.h.nost@uit.no.

19 **Keywords:** Blood serum; Persistent organic pollutants; Repeated measurements;

20 Organochlorine pesticides; Polychlorinated biphenyls; Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances.

21 **Abbreviations:** DDE - 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)ethylene; DDT - 1,1'-(2,2,2-

22 Trichloroethane-1,1-diyl)bis(4-chlorobenzene); HCB - Hexachlorobenzene; HCHs -

23 Hexachlorocyclohexanes; OCPs - organochlorine pesticides; PCBs - Polychlorinated

24 biphenyls; PFASs - per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances; PFOA - Perfluorooctanoic acid;

25 PFOS - Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid; POPs - Persistent organic pollutants.

26 **Abstract**

27 **Background.** In this short communication, our focus is on the relationship between human
28 concentrations of select persistent organic pollutants (POPs) and environmental emissions. It
29 is based on a longitudinal study (1979-2007) conducted in Norway.

30 **Objectives.** Our aim was to extract general insights from observed and predicted temporal
31 trends in human concentrations of 49 POPs to assist in the design and interpretation of future
32 monitoring studies.

33 **Discussion.** Despite considerable decline for polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and
34 organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) since 1986, the sum of the targeted POPs increased from
35 1979 until 2001, with per- and polyfluorinated alkyl substances (PFASs) dominating recent
36 blood burden measurements. Specifically, the time trends in serum concentrations of POPs,
37 exemplified by PCB-153, 1,1'-(2,2,2-Trichloroethane-1,1-diyl)bis(4-chlorobenzene) (DDT)
38 and perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS), resembled the trends in available data on their
39 emissions, production or use. These observations suggest that interpretations of human
40 biomonitoring data on persistent compounds must consider historic emissions, which likely
41 vary spatially across the globe. Based on the different temporal trends observed across POP
42 groups, it is evident that generalizations regarding temporal aspects have limitations.

43 **Conclusion.** The discussion herein underscores the importance of understanding temporal
44 variations in environmental emissions when designing and interpreting human biomonitoring
45 studies.

46 **Introduction**

47 Humans worldwide are exposed to an array of anthropogenic substances in their everyday
48 lives. The overall increase in the manufacture of man-made chemicals and industrial by-
49 products in the 20th century is deemed responsible (Egeghy et al., 2012). In addition to
50 persistence POPs bioaccumulate, have the potential for long-range transport, and are toxic.
51 Several international legislative agreements place restrictions or bans on the manufacture and
52 use of several POPs. These and other initiatives aim to protect the environment and human
53 health. Regulatory actions have indeed decreased the global manufacture and emissions of
54 POPs (Breivik et al., 2007; Paul et al., 2009; Schenker et al., 2008). Each legacy POP or POP
55 group has a unique emission history that is dictated by its past production and control
56 strategies. For example, the estimated global emissions of PCB-153 in 2016 were ~3% of that
57 in 1970 (Breivik et al., 2016). Since the terminology for estimated ‘emissions’ in the available
58 literature varies, we define it as including the sum of environmental releases across the
59 chemical life-cycle (manufacturing, use and disposal stages).

60 Various human biomonitoring studies have demonstrated that blood concentrations of PCBs,
61 OCPs and certain PFASs have decreased in many countries in recent years (Haug et al., 2009;
62 Kato et al., 2011; Schröter-Kermani et al., 2012; Thomsen et al., 2007; Toms et al., 2014; Vo
63 et al., 2008). Clearly, the knowledge of human concentrations and their predictor variables
64 remains fragmented because studies vary in design, targeted study period, geographical
65 location , as well as gender and age of the study subjects (Porta et al., 2008). For example,
66 biomonitoring initiatives have been strongly biased towards industrialised countries as
67 opposed to developing countries. Furthermore, the majority of human biomonitoring studies
68 are of cross-sectional design and do not consider time-dependent changes in emissions when
69 interpreting contaminant concentrations. More complete assessments of contaminant burdens

70 are lacking because most studies represent snapshots that include only a limited fraction of all
71 detectable contaminants.

72 In this commentary, we recapitulate intra-individual changes in concentrations of 24 PCBs, 16
73 OCPs and 9 PFASs measured in a longitudinal study (1979-2007) involving a male
74 Norwegian cohort (Nøst et al., 2013; 2014). Furthermore, we aim to extract features relevant
75 for the design and interpretation of future biomonitoring studies, specifically: (i) temporal
76 trends in relation to current emissions and potential geographical trends; and (ii), the relative
77 and aggregate POP compositions across time.

78

79 **Materials and Methods**

80 The Tromsø Study is a population-based study in Tromsø (~70,000 inhabitants), which is the
81 largest municipality in Northern Norway. Surveys in 1979, 1986-1987 (hereafter referred to
82 as 1986), 1994-1995 (1994), 2001, and 2007-2008 (2007) allowed for a longitudinal design of
83 repeated measurements. Based on gender, age group and geographic region (Alexander et al.,
84 2006; Bergsten 2004), the study subjects are assumed to have relatively frequent intakes of
85 fish and dietary patterns, characteristic of Northern Norway and be representative for this age
86 group in the region. The concentrations in these men are likely higher compared to the general
87 Norwegian population due to their relatively advanced age and frequent consumption of fish.
88 From 53 men for whom blood samples were available for at least three surveys in the Tromsø
89 study, 254 serum samples were collected. The median ages at the five sampling points were
90 43, 50, 58, 65, and 71. Details of the analytical methodology and quality assurance for the
91 target compounds are provided in Nøst et al. (2013; 2014); all samples were analyzed in 2012
92 at the laboratories of Norwegian Institute for Air Research. The results were compiled for 24
93 PCBs (congeners 18, 28, 33, 47/49, 52, 99, 101, 105, 118, 123, 128, 138, 141, 149, 153, 156,

94 157, 167, 170, 180, 183, 187, 189, 194), 16 OCPs (α -, β -, μ -HCH, HCB, *trans*-, *cis*-, *oxy*-
95 chlordane, *trans*-, *cis*-nonachlor, Mirex, Toxaphene Parlar 26 and 50, *p,p'*-DDD, *o,p'*-, *p,p'*-
96 DDT, *p,p'*-, *o,p'*-DDE) and 9 PFASs (FOSA, PFDA, PFHpA, PFHpS, PFHxA, PFHxS,
97 PFNA, PFOA, PFOS; for abbreviations see Nøst et al. 2014). Mixed models were used to
98 assess the time trends of POPs in serum, and details of the data treatment and statistical
99 approaches employed were as described in the references mentioned.

100

101 **Results**

102 The observed longitudinal trends from 1979 to 2007 of PCBs, OCPs, and PFASs in sera of
103 Northern Norwegian males are summarized in Figure 1 and Table 1 (Nøst et al., 2013; 2014).

104 The temporal trends differed among compounds during the 28-year period, and the aggregated
105 POP concentrations increased until 2001. In general, the concentrations of PCBs decreased
106 from 1979 or 1986 on, whereas the OCPs did so from 1979. Summed PFASs increased five-
107 fold from 1979 to 2001 and then decreased; the longer chained perfluoroalkyl carboxylic
108 acids also increased throughout this period.

109 PFASs, DDTs and PCBs contributed almost equal proportions to the summed concentrations
110 in 1979, while PFASs have dominated subsequently (Table 1 and Figure 1).

111 The Spearman's ρ correlations for PCB-153 with other POPs spanning the sampling years
112 were robust ($\rho \geq 0.95$) for many compounds, such as the higher chlorinated PCBs, and
113 moderate ($\rho > 0.6$) for others (e.g., *trans*-Nonachlor, *p,p'*-DDE, toxaphene Parlar 26 and
114 HCB). Correlations were weaker for HCHs ($\rho < 0.6$) and most PFASs (e.g. $\rho < 0.3$ for PFOA
115 and $\rho < 0.4$ for PFOS).

116 **Discussion**

117 **Interpretation of temporal trends of POPs in Northern Norway in relation to emissions** 118 **inventories**

119 Figure 1 reveals that the summed concentrations of the measured POPs increased considerably
120 from 1979 to 2001 and was driven primarily by the increase in PFASs, decreasing thereafter
121 (2001-2007). Compound-specific changes in human concentrations during this observation
122 period appear convincingly coherent with those depicted for past emissions for individual or
123 groups of contaminants. This is illustrated in Figure 2 for the divergent time trends shown for
124 PCBs, OCPs and PFASs. As there has been no production of any of these compounds in
125 Norway, exposure is likely linked to a combination of historic imports and uses, long-range
126 transport (Armitage et al., 2009; Mantseva et al., 2004), and their presence in food items (Haug
127 et al., 2010). Our biomonitoring and modelling results highlight that human temporal trends are
128 also influenced by compound-specific delays between chemical imports, environmental
129 emissions, and degradation/elimination rates (Alcock et al., 2000; Quinn and Wania 2012;
130 Ritter et al., 2009). Using PCB-153 as an example (see Figure 3), we conclude that these delays
131 may be significant and reflect: (i) time-lags between production/import and emissions due to
132 the long lifetime of PCB-containing products; and (ii), delays between peaks in emissions,
133 environmental/food-chain exposures and human concentrations. Further, the timing of peaks in
134 environmental exposures for each compound is modulated by media-specific degradation rates
135 as well as the modes of environmental transport. Estimations of these processes by mechanistic
136 modeling are presented for PCB-153 in Figure 3 and are discussed by Breivik et al. (2010) and
137 Quinn and Wania (2012).

138 Clearly, accurate knowledge of emissions for various compounds over time is critical for the
139 interpretation of time trends. Dynamic multimedia mechanistic models may provide

140 quantitative links between emissions and human exposures (MacLeod et al., 2010). For certain
141 PCBs, estimates of the median concentrations in the present study group were obtained from
142 one such model, the CoZMoMAN model, which convincingly reconstructed the measured
143 concentrations and their time trends (Nøst et al., 2013). This strengthened our hypothesis that
144 empirical time trends are largely dictated by changes in emissions. While significant efforts
145 have been invested in the development of emission inventories for some POPs that are emitted
146 as by-products of combustion (e.g., Pacyna and Graedel, 1995), obtaining accurate information
147 on rates of production, use and/or emissions of intentionally produced organic contaminants
148 has proven challenging. Confidentiality issues appear to be partly responsible (Breivik et al.,
149 2012). Further, fate properties are divergent for different POPs in various environmental media
150 and humans, including degradation and metabolism/elimination half-lives, respectively (Figure
151 3). This also highlights a chemical-specific approach to POPs, even within groups of related
152 compounds. From the clear links between trends in emissions and human concentrations of
153 POPs observed in the Tromsø study, it seems pertinent to assess whether similar or divergent
154 temporal trends in human body burdens might be anticipated globally.

155 Reduced emissions of PCBs and OCPs has had an impact on human blood concentrations, but
156 these compounds constitute only a small fraction of the total exposure to contaminants in the
157 Norwegian cohort by 2007 (Nøst et al., 2013; 2014). Similar declines across recent decades
158 are reported in many industrialized countries (e.g., Hagmar et al., 2006; Thomsen et al., 2007;
159 Vo et al., 2008). Phasing out and placing restrictions on use of PFOS and PFOA have led to
160 decreasing concentrations after 2001, but their contributions to total body burden nevertheless
161 remain high in 2007. The declines of PFOS and PFOA in recent years are also described for
162 other industrialized countries (Gebbink et al., 2015; Haug et al., 2009; Kato et al., 2011;
163 Schröter-Kermani et al., 2012). As observed for PCBs, OCPs and PFASs, the lowering of
164 emissions has clearly been effective in reducing human concentrations in Tromsø, and this

165 pattern is likely to occur in many other industrialized countries where these chemicals were
166 extensively produced and/or used.

167 One factor that may cause divergent trends globally is attributed to the long lifetime of
168 various use categories of products containing organic contaminants; they represent potential
169 emission sources long after initial regulatory actions (Diamond et al., 2015). An example is
170 the elevated emissions from informal waste or recycling processes in developing regions, such
171 as of PCBs and other organic contaminants (e.g., PBDEs) released from waste electrical and
172 electronic equipment (Breivik et al., 2011; Robinson 2009; Zhang et al., 2012). Thus the
173 effectiveness of reducing human exposure to POPs in many countries can be improved by
174 adopting environmentally sound practices to remove and process products and materials
175 containing these compounds. Furthermore, export of e-wastes to developing regions offer a
176 disturbing example of how temporal emissions trends of POPs may be spatially and
177 temporally separated from those in areas where these chemicals were produced and used
178 (Breivik et al., 2011). Indeed, elevated concentrations in humans in areas influenced by such
179 activities have been reported (Grant et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Wittsiepe et al., 2015). In
180 Ghana, known to import of electronic waste (Schluep et al., 2011), concentrations of PCBs
181 and PBDEs in breast milk samples increased from 2004 to 2009 (Asante et al., 2011).

182 Furthermore, recent plasma concentrations of PCBs in Ghanaian immigrants to the Canary
183 Islands (Luzardo et al., 2014) were higher compared to those in the Norwegian cohort even in
184 1979 (respectively, medians of 503 and 360 ng/g lipid weight for PCB-153). Although
185 temporal trends of the legacy POPs clearly indicate reduced human exposure to these
186 compounds in industrialized countries, the trends in developing countries do not necessarily
187 conform. This illustrates that emission trends and human exposures may be spatially variable
188 across the globe, due to transboundary exports of hazardous waste for example. Other factors
189 may also create differences in temporal trends even in a post-ban situation, with population

190 dietary transitions an example (Quinn et al., 2012). Consequently, results from regional
191 biomonitoring studies are not necessarily universally applicable. Temporal trends in emissions
192 and influences of population-specific confounding factors must be considered.

193

194 **Dynamic POP compositions**

195 The 49 compounds included in this longitudinal study enabled a detailed assessment of how
196 the sum of all compounds and their relative contributions have varied across the 30-year study
197 period. Compound-specific and time-variant emissions of POPs have resulted in complex and
198 dynamic burdens of POPs in human blood as depicted in Figure 1. Although age and birth
199 year are confounded in cross-sectional studies, the time trends in this longitudinal study were
200 confounded only by age. Clearly, the interpretation of differences in POP concentrations due
201 to age (both within and between persons) in biomonitoring studies are conditional on the time
202 of sampling and the age distribution of a study population in relation to historic emissions
203 (Alcock et al., 2000; Quinn and Wania, 2012).

204 The changes in relative proportions of POPs are also reflected in the inter-compound
205 correlations. Overall, moderate or strong correlations over time suggest similar emission
206 histories, exposure pathways and persistence in the environment and humans. PCB-153 has
207 been suggested as a suitable marker for PCBs and other POPs (Covaci et al., 2002; Glynn et
208 al., 2000). As reported above, inter-correlations between PCB-153 and other PCBs (e.g.,
209 PCB-180) were very robust in the Norwegian study, and this was also evident for OCPs like
210 HCB. By contrast, the newer POPs like PFOA and PFOS did not associate with PCB-153 at
211 any time point. Thus, the latter is less representative of the total exposure to halogenated
212 compounds in the Norwegian cohort in 2007 compared to 1979, and thereby its potential as a
213 single marker has been reduced in the years beyond the peak exposure to legacy POPs.

214 Subsequently, the potential use of PCB-153 as a marker for summed POP exposure that
215 include emerging contaminants with dissimilar physicochemical properties and historic
216 emissions has been diminished.

217 The number of organic and inorganic chemicals introduced on the global market has increased
218 substantially in the past few decades, and more than 100,000 substances are used
219 commercially today (Egeghy et al., 2012). It is thus likely that the human body burden of
220 contaminants include chemicals currently in use that have not received the attention of
221 researchers, and thus could indeed be contaminants of concern (i.e., based on persistence,
222 bioaccumulation potential, and toxicity; Arnot et al., 2012).

223 Based on the above considerations, it appears fair to hypothesize that the summed
224 concentrations of POPs described in Figure 1 cover merely a fraction of the chemicals present
225 in humans today. Indeed, a number of other contaminants have been detected in human blood
226 in Norwegian studies, including pentachlorophenol and hydroxylated PCBs (Rylander et al.,
227 2012) and emerging brominated flame retardants (Thomsen et al., 2002). Furthermore, the
228 screening of contaminants in the US NHANES monitoring studies has targeted 267
229 chemicals, and many of them were detected in serum/blood (CDC 2015; Crinnion 2010).
230 Non-POP compounds with short half-lives have recently been quantified in humans such as
231 parabens in Norwegians (Sandanger et al., 2011), although continuous use appears to lead to
232 elevated exposures. Overall, both summed concentrations as well as the complexity of the
233 total human burden of contaminants can be expected to increase in the coming years. Thus
234 ongoing monitoring of human contaminant concentrations should ideally include both legacy
235 pollutants as well as chemicals still produced and used.

236

237 **Concluding remarks**

238 As exemplified by PCB-153, DDT and PFOS, the time trends in human concentrations of
239 POPs in this longitudinal sample dataset resemble those of their production, use and emission.
240 Our findings highlight the importance of available and accurate data on trends of emissions of
241 individual substances to interpret human biomonitoring studies. A complicating factor is that
242 the trends described may vary spatially across the globe. To address this dimension, informal
243 e-waste recycling and increasing concentrations reported in certain countries where this
244 occurs serves as an example that could guide the selection of geographical areas relevant for
245 conducting related human biomonitoring studies. Clearly, the blood compartment burden of
246 POPs is dynamic, and thus is likely to increase in complexity related to ongoing exposures to
247 compounds currently in use. Future biomonitoring efforts are encouraged to target a broad
248 range of compounds with different physicochemical properties and populations experiencing
249 unique and divergent emission histories.

250

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394

395 **Tables**

396

397 Table 1: Percent contribution for the different POP groups to the summed measured burden in
 398 five sampling years for 53 Norwegian men in the Tromsø Study based on the data reported in
 399 Nøst et al. (2013; 2014).

Compounds^a	1979	1986	1994	2001	2007⁴⁰⁰
ΣHCHs_3	2	1	0	0	0
ΣDDTs_5	26	12	5	3	3 401
HCB	4	2	1	1	1 402
$\Sigma\text{chlordanes}_5$	2	2	1	1	1
$\Sigma\text{toxaphenes}_2$	1	1	0	0	0 403
ΣPCBs_{24}	30	19	12	9	9
PFOS	20	36	45	51	5 404
$\Sigma\text{other PFASs}_8$	16	27	35	34	33
					405

406 ^a Σ signifies the summed concentrations in each group and the subscript the number of compounds in
 407 each group.

408

409 **Figure legends**

410

411 Figure 1.

412 Wet-weight concentrations of PCBs, OCPs, and PFASs from 1979 to 2007 for 53 men based on the
413 data reported in Nøst et al. (2013; 2014; reproduced with permission from *Environmental Health*
414 *Perspectives* and *Environment International*) for repeated measurements of men in the Tromsø Study.
415 PFOS represents the sum of linear and branched forms. See Table 1 for the number of compounds in
416 each sum.

417

418 Figure 2.

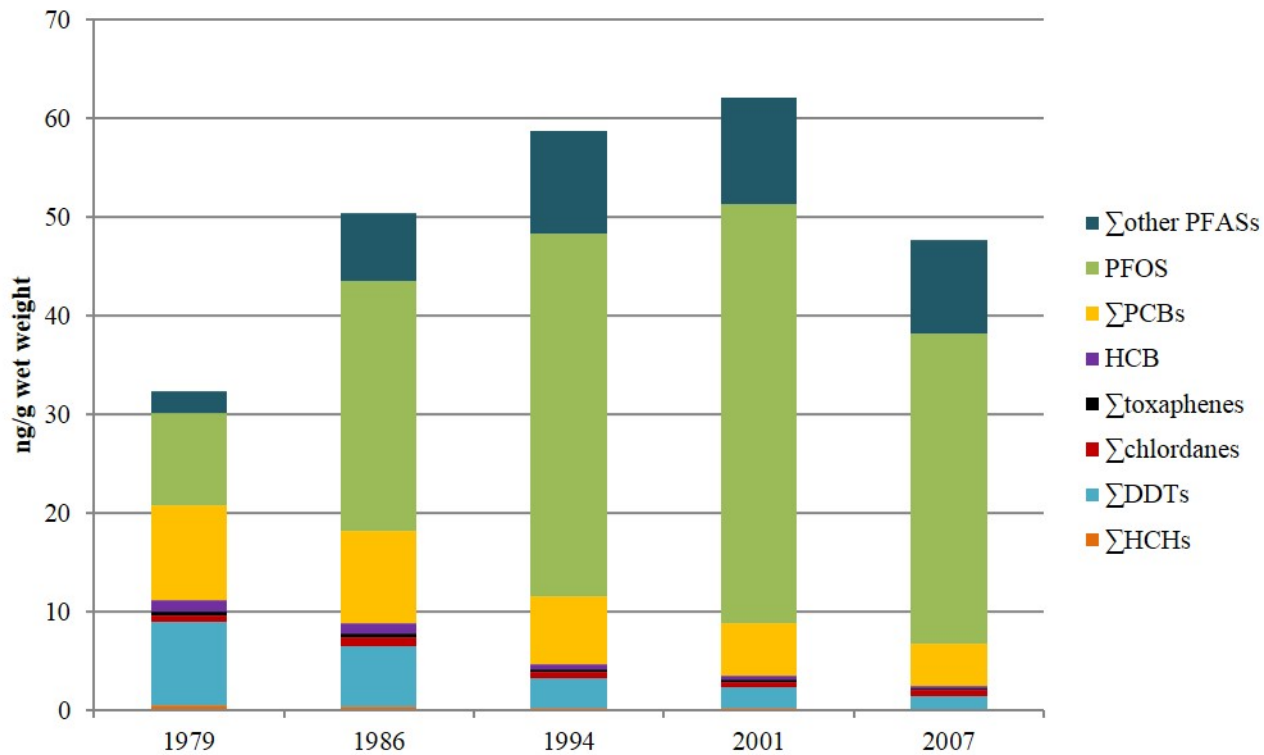
419 The horizontal axes represent calendar years, left vertical axes the emissions/production volumes in
420 thousands tons (colored areas), and right vertical axes the wet-weight serum concentrations in the five
421 repeated measurements from Norwegian men (bars; n=53). A: Estimated regional emissions for PCB-
422 153 from 1930 to 2020 (adapted from Breivik et al., 2007) are displayed along with the measured
423 serum concentrations of PCB-153. B: Estimated global emissions of DDT from 1941 to 2005 adapted
424 with permission from Schenker et al., (2008; Copyright American Chemical Society) conjointly with
425 the serum concentrations of *p,p'*-DDT. C: Estimated global production volumes of the PFOS-related
426 perfluorooctanesulfonyl fluorides from 1970 to 2005 (adapted with permission from Paul et al., 2009;
427 Copyright American Chemical Society) are shown along with the serum concentrations of PFOS (sum
428 of linear and branched).

429

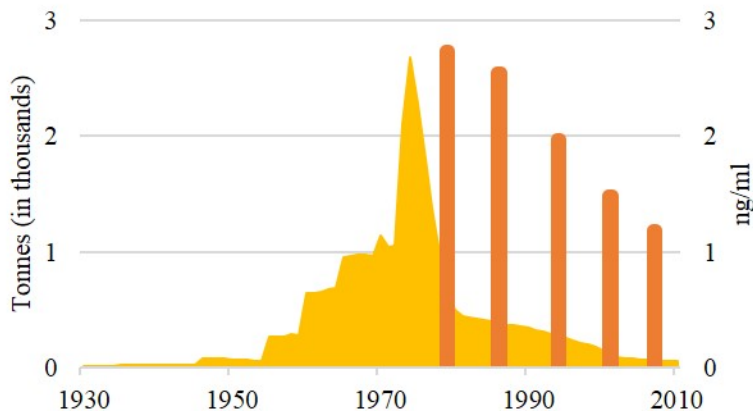
430 Figure 3.

431 Estimated trends in emissions and concentrations from 1930 to 2050 for PCB 153 scaled to the
432 maximum value for each medium. Note that the trends for air and dairy products overlap and are
433 presented as one line. The plotted curve for the 29-year old woman refers to blood concentrations after

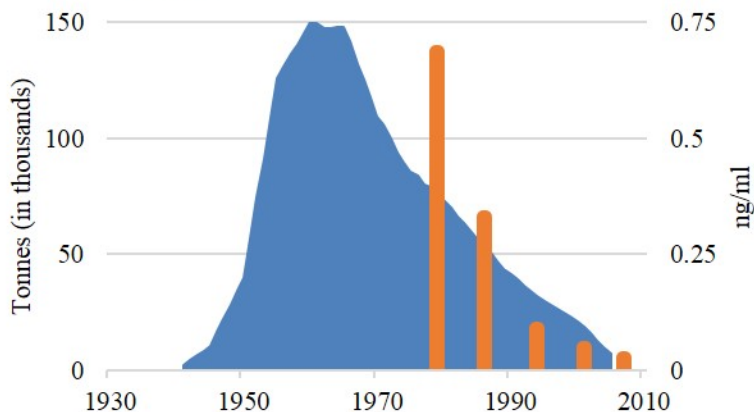
434 nursing her first child for 6 months. Further details of the model parameterization are presented in
435 Breivik et al. (2010) and references therein, and as later explored by Nøst et al (2013).



A PCB-153



B DDT



C PFOS/PFOS-related

