

1 **Lead exposure at homes as modifying factors of blood lead levels among young children in**
2 **Bihar, India**

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30 **Abstract**

31 Background: Over 275 million children in India have elevated blood lead levels (BLLs). With
32 few exceptions, previous studies focused on children living in highly polluted areas. Potential
33 sources of exposure include lead-based paints, lead-contaminated spices, and other consumer
34 products. This study aims to identify sources of lead exposure among children living in Bihar
35 by assessing the lead concentrations in environmental samples collected in and around the
36 children's homes and their association with children's BLLs.

37 Methods: The study used a subset of a state-wide study in Bihar. The blood lead study was
38 performed after obtaining ethical clearances. From the larger representative sample, 153
39 children were selected, including all children with $BLL \geq 20 \mu\text{g/dL}$ and a random sample of
40 those below this level. Blood samples from children aged 12 to 60 months were analyzed using
41 LeadCare II[®] between December 2022 and March 2023. All children with blood lead levels
42 (BLLs) $\geq 20 \mu\text{g/dL}$ and a subset of children with BLL below this level received a home-based
43 assessment (HBA) to evaluate the lead concentrations in soil, drinking water, paint, metal and
44 ceramic cookware, spices, cosmetics, and toys. Lead concentrations were determined using a
45 portable X-ray fluorescence analyzer and laboratory-based analyses. The HBA results were
46 compared to local regulatory limits where available and international thresholds.

47 Results: Environmental sampling showed that metal cookware, spices and painted walls were
48 the main sources of lead in households. The odds of elevated BLL are only significantly
49 associated with lead in spices (aOR=1.35, 95%CI: 1.16, 1.59) after adjustment for age, sex and
50 demographic factors of the child.

51 Conclusion: Lead in metal cookware, spices and painted surfaces are common in households
52 in Bihar/India. To protect children, measures are needed to protect them from lead exposure,
53 including health, legal and political measures.

54

55 **Keywords:** lead, child, home-based assessment, blood lead level, India, home-environment

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57

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62 addresses gaps in knowledge concerning lead poisoning and its underlying causes.

63

64 **1. Introduction**

65 Exposure to lead can pose severe health risks, particularly for children. The impacts of lead on
66 children's brain development include a reduction in intelligence quotient (IQ) and behavioral
67 impacts such as diminished attention span and increased antisocial behavior, as well as lower
68 educational and lifetime earnings achievement. Additionally, lead exposure can lead to
69 anemia, hypertension, renal impairment, seizures, immunotoxicity, and toxicity to
70 reproductive organs. It is widely believed that the neurological and behavioral effects of lead
71 are irreversible (Amitai et al., 2010; Bose-O'Reilly and Landrigan, 2021).

72 Young children are especially vulnerable to lead poisoning for various reasons. Firstly,
73 behaviors like hand-to-mouth actions, ingestion of non-food items, and crawling increase the
74 likelihood of contact with and ingestion of environmental lead (Bellinger, 2004). Secondly, the
75 proportion of ingested lead that is absorbed is significantly higher in children compared to
76 adults (Bellinger, 2004). Household dust, contaminated soil, and polluted drinking water,
77 especially relevant due to hand-to-mouth behavior and crawling, are significant sources of
78 exposure for young children (World Health Organization, 2021), but the sources of relevance
79 vary between, and within countries (Bose-O'Reilly and Landrigan, 2021). Therefore, identifying
80 potential sources of lead exposure, particularly within the home environment where children
81 spend the majority of their time, is crucial.

82 In India, an estimated nearly 7 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) were lost in 2019
83 due to lead exposure, resulting in over 232,500 deaths (Murray et al., 2020). Lead exposure in
84 India accounts for an annual loss of US\$236 billion, equivalent to 5% of the country's gross
85 domestic product (GDP) (Attina Teresa and Trasande, 2013). It is also estimated that over 275
86 million children in India have blood lead levels (BLLs) exceeding 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (Rees and Fuller,
87 2020), a globally recognized threshold requiring intervention (World Health Organization,
88 2021). The associated disease burden is substantial, particularly concerning intellectual
89 disability outcomes in children (Ericson et al., 2018). A recent report on BLLs of school children
90 in India reported that the children in Patna, Bihar had high median BLLs of 9.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (Kumar
91 et al., 2023).

92 A pilot study of BLLs in children close to an informal lead battery recycling workshop in Patna
93 showed a median BLL of 19.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ for children (Ansari et al., 2020). A larger follow-up of 135

94 children in Patna, revealed a high prevalence of elevated BLLs both near battery recycling
95 operations and in control areas, with a combined median 13 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (Brown et al., 2022).

96 Various sources contribute to lead exposure for children in India, including toxic hotspots such
97 as elevated lead levels in soil and dust from industrial sites (e.g., lead-acid battery
98 manufacturing and recycling), lead-based paint, and lead-contaminated spices, consumer
99 products, food, or water (Ansari et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2022; Ferraro et al., 2023; Keosaian
100 et al., 2019; Kharkwal et al., 2023; Kumar et al., 2022; Mahdi et al., 2020; Mawari et al., 2022;
101 Rashid et al., 2019).

102 Despite localized studies on small populations at risk from specific sources, there is limited
103 data, aside from modeled estimates, on the extent of exposure, the demographics affected,
104 predictive risk factors, and the current trend in lead poisoning (Ericson et al., 2018; Parween
105 et al., 2018; Rees and Fuller, 2020).

106 Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by addressing lead exposure sources in and around
107 homes and assessing the potential contribution of these exposure sources to blood lead levels
108 among young children in Bihar, India.

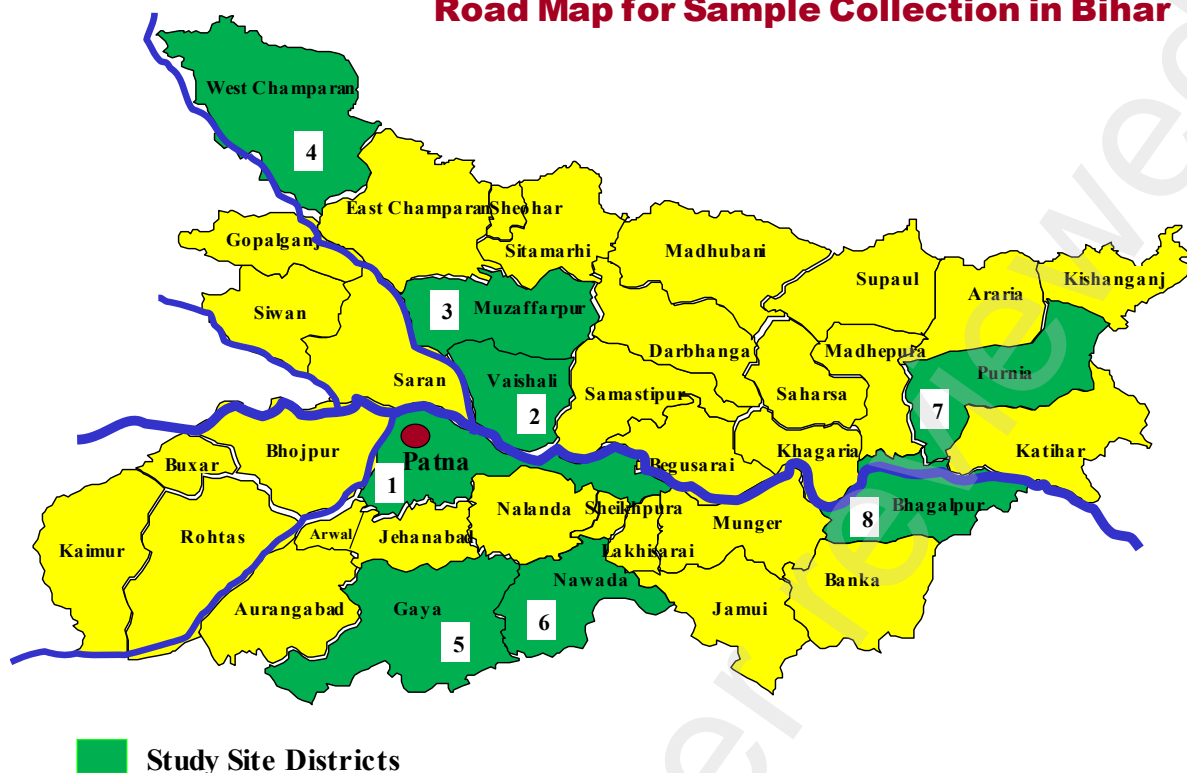
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110 **2. Methods**

111 *2.1. Study area and population*

112 Between December 2022 and March 2023, Vital Strategies and Pure Earth assessed BLLs
113 among children under the age of five and their pregnant mothers in eight districts in Bihar,
114 India (Lu et al., 2024). The primary investigation was carried out as a cross-sectional study in
115 Bihar (see Figure 1) to understand the distribution of BLL among the children population in
116 Bihar using a state-representative sample. A subset of participating households was referred
117 for home visits to gather information on potential environmental sources contributing to
118 elevated BLLs.

Road Map for Sample Collection in Bihar



119

120 Figure 1: Eight selected districts in Bihar region for the current study

121

122 All households with a child with blood lead levels (BLLs) equal to or greater than 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ or
123 with both a child and pregnant mother participants underwent a comprehensive home-based
124 assessment (HBA) to identify potential lead sources within their homes, with informed written
125 consent from the caregiver. Additionally, a 30% random sample of children with BLLs below
126 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ was selected to create a comparison group. In total, assessments were conducted at
127 153 households, and 1,218 items were analyzed.

128

129 2.2. Health related data

130 Capillary blood was collected from the participating child and analyzed by LeadCare II, a
131 portable analyzer during a home visit. Information on household characteristics was collected
132 through computer-assisted personal interviews with primary caregivers. More details on the
133 method and results are reported elsewhere (Lu et al., 2024).

134

135 2.3. Environment related data

136 Within the selected households, a standardized approach was applied by a Pure Earth field
137 team to select among and measure lead levels in environmental samples (for more details,
138 see (Brown et al., 2022)). The field crew comprised of two teams of six investigators each with
139 backgrounds in environmental health and social work; it included one leader who would
140 administer the survey, 1 investigator each for handling the XRF, for environmental sample
141 collection, for data recording, spice sample collection and XRF data recording. These HBAs
142 aimed to identify the primary routes of lead exposure among children and included data
143 collection on lead in:

- 144 • soil(sol)
- 145 • paint on walls (lpt)
- 146 • metal cookware (mcw)
- 147 • spices (spc)
- 148 • toys (toy)
- 149 • ceramic cookware
- 150 • cosmetics
- 151 • snacks
- 152 • drinking water

153 Generally, one or more samples were collected for each sample type from a household. Except
154 for drinking water, all elements of the assessments were carried out using a portable X-Ray
155 Fluorescence analyzer (XRF) (Thermofisher Niton XL3t 700s), providing real-time readings in
156 the field. When using XRF, three readings were taken for each sample and the average
157 readings were used. The limit of detection of the XRF varies depending on the sample medium
158 being analyzed and selected mode for each sample type. In total, 1,762 XRF tests were
159 conducted. Drinking water was analyzed in a commercial laboratory, using ICP-MS technology
160 (Envirochem Research & Test Labs, Lucknow, India).

161

162 2.4. Reference levels

163 To provide context to the concentrations of lead found in the various environmental samples,
164 a “reference level” for each sample type was selected (see Table 1). Existing Indian standards

165 were used where possible. Where such national standards do not exist, standards from the
 166 United States were applied. In general, standards are set at levels below which significant
 167 health effects are unlikely to occur in populations. While standards for leachable lead from
 168 ceramic and metal foodware do exist in some countries, field testing of leachable lead in
 169 foodware was not possible. Based on ongoing work of Pure Earth on leaching of lead from
 170 cookware, for this assessment a reference level of 100 ppm for all types of foodware was
 171 applied. The following reference levels are used in this study (Food Safety and Standards
 172 Authority of India, 2011):

173

Product	Reference level [ppm]	Comment
Ceramic foodware	100	*
Cosmetics	20	(Government of India, 1940)
Metal cookware	100	*
Paint (wall)	90	Indian Central Pollution Control Board
Soil	400	(U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2014)
Spices	10	(Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, 2011)
Toys	100	(United States Consumer Product Safety Commission, 2023)

174 Table 1: Reference Levels (in ppm);

175 * A reference level of 100 ppm was applied for ceramic and metal cookware based on
 176 on-going leachability research, performed by Pure Earth.

177

178 2.5. Ethical clearance, data management and data protection

179 The blood lead tests were conducted after obtaining approval by the BRANY (Biomedical
 180 Research Alliance of New York) Institutional review board (Protocol Number: 22-176-522) and
 181 the ethics committee of the Indian Council of Medical Research- Rajendra Memorial Research
 182 Institute of Medical Sciences situated in Patna, Bihar (Approval letter no. RMRI/EC/54/2022,
 183 dated 21/09/2022).

184 For testing BLL of the child, parents or legal guardians of the eligible child provided informed
185 consent to complete the interview and carry out blood sampling and consent to be contacted
186 for a home-based assessment. A separate consent form was used for seeking consent for the
187 HBA and an assigned team member explained the purpose of the study to the head of
188 household/guardian including the risks and benefits of the study before seeking consent.

189 Any data collected on paper was stored in a locked file cabinet in a locked office. The
190 questionnaire data entered and saved in the tablet were exported to the computer and linked
191 with the blood lead level data using a unique ID and saved in a password-protected database
192 and kept safeguarded. Participants and households in this linked database were identified and
193 referred to by the unique ID only to protect confidentiality. A master list that contains unique
194 ID and name/address/contact information was kept separate from the linked database. The
195 name, address, and contact information collected during blood testing were provided to Pure
196 Earth to refer the participant for a home inspection if selected for HBA. All data sets and
197 reports were stripped of personal identifying information. All field personnel, including local
198 staff, were trained on proper interviewing techniques and obtained human subjects' ethical
199 clearance.

200 *2.6. Variables*

201 The dependent variable in our model is elevated BLL (Yes/No) using the cut point of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$.
202 Independent variables included in the model are lead concentrations measured in different
203 environmental samples collected from the home. Among the nine types of environmental
204 samples tested, we selected four types with considerable sample size (number of measured
205 households ≥ 80), more uniform materials (excluded furniture), and without large percentage
206 of samples below detection limits including metal cookware, paint on wall, spices, and soil. An
207 average value is calculated for a subject across all readings if it was tested more than once. If
208 multiple subjects of the same type (e.g., two metal cookwares) were tested in one household,
209 the maximum value is used for this household. Lead in environmental samples were log
210 transformed using a base of 2 before use in the model due to its skewed distribution and for
211 the ease of interpretation.

212

213 *2.7. Statistical methods*

214 Data were analyzed using Excel[®], SPSS 27[®], and R. Both geometric and arithmetic means were
215 reported due to the skewed distribution of lead in blood and environment and the common
216 use of arithmetic means in producing pooled estimates in systematic reviews. Samples
217 reported lead levels below the limit of detection (LOD) were assigned the value of DL/√2.
218 Generalized logistic regression analyses were used to calculate odds ratios (ORs) and 95%
219 confidence intervals (CIs) for associations between lead in each environmental sample and
220 elevated blood lead levels (BLL≥10 µg/dL). The final model for each environmental sample
221 adjusted for important confounders identified from literature including children's age in
222 months (continuous), sex (male/female), primary caregivers' education (illiterate (1), school
223 education (2-7), higher education (8-10)), socioeconomic status (having BPL card Y/N), and
224 urbanicity (urban/rural).

225

226 **3. Results and Discussion**

227 In total, 153 children were assessed for both BLLs and Pb in their home environment.
228 Characteristics of sampled children and households are presented in Table 2, grouping the
229 children with BLLs below and above 10 ug/dL.

231

232

Characteristics	BLL < 10 ug/dL (n=99)	BLL ≥ 10 ug/dL (n=54)
Average age in months (range)	38 (25-52)	53 (31-59)
Gender		
Male	48 (48%)	32 (59%)
Female	51 (52%)	22 (41%)
Caregiver's education		
Illiterate	15 (15%)	7 (13%)
School education	70 (71%)	42 (78%)
Higher education	13 (13%)	5 (9.3%)
Unknown	1	0
Has BPL card	60 (61%)	22 (41%)
Area type		
Rural	84 (85%)	28 (52%)
Urban	15 (15%)	26 (48%)

233 Table 2 Characteristics of participants by BLL

234

236 3.1. Results of the *environmental samples*

237

238 For each sample type, we calculated how many households had an item of this type above
239 reference level (see Table 3) using household level data. When helpful, we also presented the
240 percentage of samples with lead levels above reference level among all subjects tested in all
241 households under a specific sample type (see supplement Figure S2).

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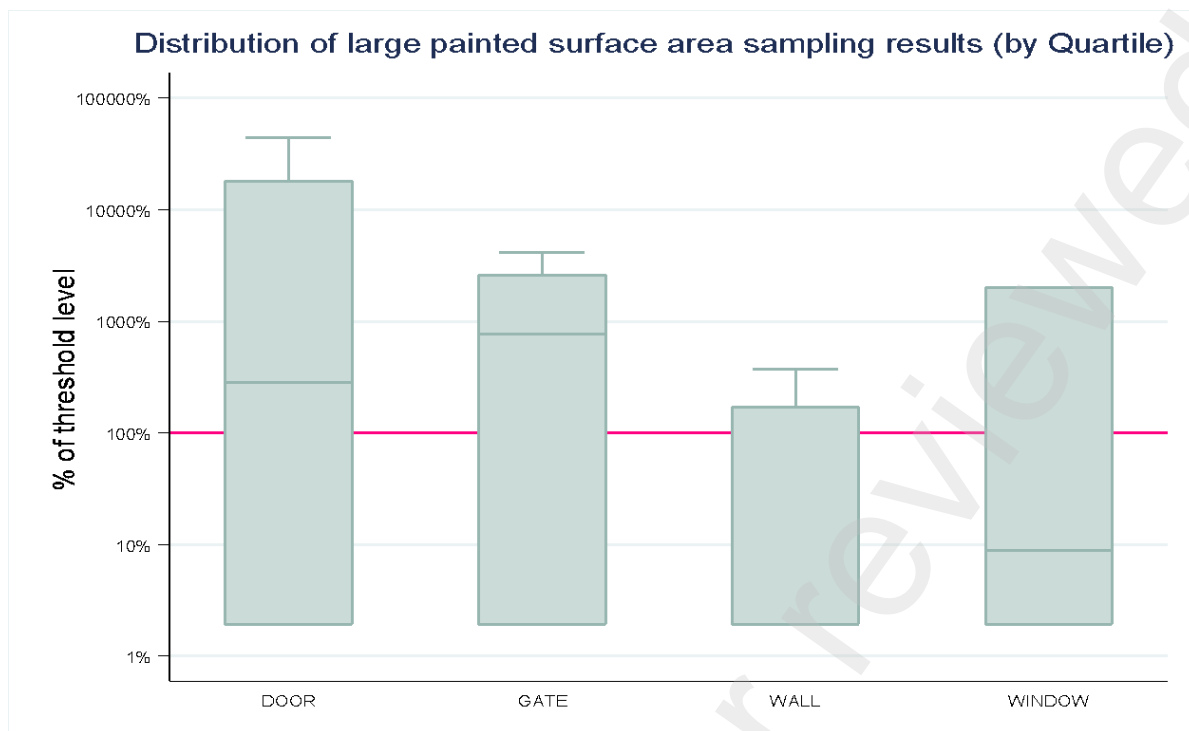
Environmental sample	# Above reference level (%)
Metal cookware	135 (95%)
Paint (wall)	97 (71%)
Spice	99 (75%)
Soil	1 (1%)

243 Table 3: Percentage of households with environmental samples above reference level

244 **Cookware** made of metal, especially low-cost, locally manufactured items, has been identified
245 as containing lead that may seep into the food during cooking (Brown et al., 2022; Fellows et
246 al., 2022; Weidenhamer et al., 2023; Weidenhamer et al., 2017). Predicting the amount of lead
247 leaching from a specific pot is challenging without dedicated testing (Ali Sultan et al., 2023).
248 There are currently no established international standards for the total lead content in metal
249 cookware. In 95% of the examined households, metal cookware was found to contain lead
250 above the reference level of 100 ppm, indicating the potential for a hazardous leaching of
251 lead.

252 The levels of lead in extensive **painted surfaces** exhibited notable variations (see Figure 2).
253 This variability was particularly evident in doors, gates, and windows. When paint is applied
254 to a metal surface, the XRF may not discern whether lead is present in the paint (or in which
255 layer) or in the underlying material. Concerning the potential for exposure, our primary focus
256 is on lead paint rather than lead in the underlying metal material. Lead paint has the potential
257 to chip off or generate lead dust, which a child may ingest through hand-to-mouth behaviors.
258 Consequently, these findings require careful interpretation. In 71% of the homes tested, paint
259 on the walls was found to be above the reference level of 90 ppm.

260



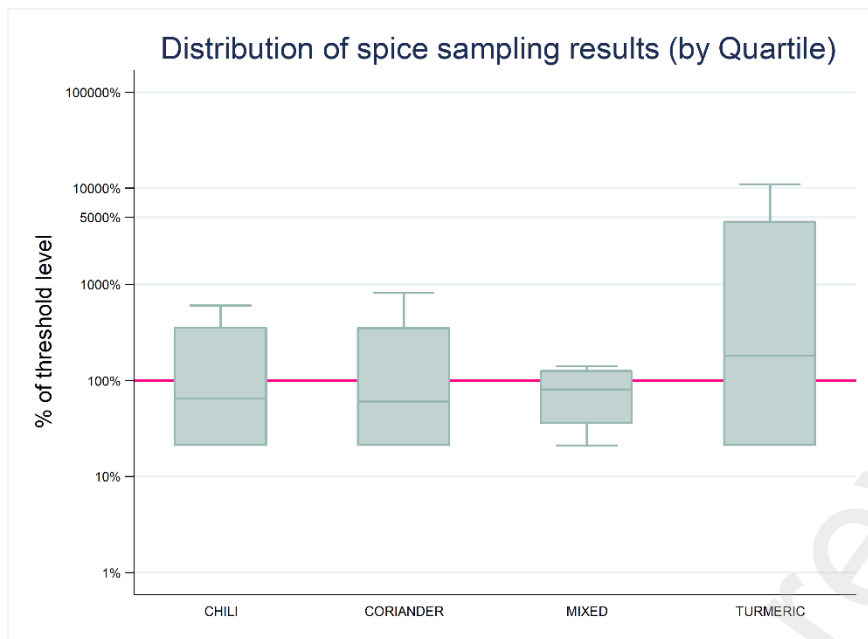
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262 Figure 2: Distribution of lead by different type of painted surface among all tested paint
 263 samples (N=406), compared to threshold level (red line). Y-axis log-scale.

264

265 **Spices** in South Asia have been discovered to be tainted with lead chromate to enhance their
 266 color (Baig et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2022; Forsyth et al., 2023; Gleason et al., 2014; Nordin
 267 and Selamat, 2013; Senanayake et al., 2013). This issue was previously identified in Patna,
 268 Bihar (Brown et al., 2022). In the current study, elevated lead levels were detected in all four
 269 spice types assessed—chili, coriander, turmeric, or mixed spices (see Figure 3). The India Food
 270 Safety Authority has established a lead content limit in spices of 10 ppm (Food Safety and
 271 Standards Authority of India, 2011). Turmeric exhibited the highest lead levels, with a median
 272 of 30 ppm and a maximum of 4,139 ppm, surpassing the regulatory standard of 10 ppm by
 273 more than 400 times (Food Safety and Standards Authority of India, 2011). In 75% of the
 274 households surveyed, at least one spice was found to exceed the reference level of 10 ppm
 275 (see supplement Figure S3). This means that household members were exposed to
 276 adulterated spices.

277



278

279 Figure 3: Distribution of lead by different spice sample among all tested spice samples
 280 (n=306)), compared to threshold level (red line). Y-axis log-scale.

281

282 Readings of **soil** were obtained from an area directly outside the residence. Out of 79
 283 households tested, all but one were above the 400 ppm US-EPA threshold value, and its
 284 proposed revision of 200 ppm (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2024). This sample had
 285 an exceptionally high value of 1,990 ppm. The median soil lead levels of household with
 286 children with elevated BLL is 21 ppm while the median levels of households with children
 287 lower BLLs is 17 ppm, both indicative of background levels (Table 4).

288 A total of 149 **toys** underwent XRF analysis. Some readings were exceptionally high, with a
 289 maximum of 124,510 ppm. In 68% of the households the maximum toy lead levels were below
 290 the limit of detection. For this reason toys were excluded from further statistical analysis.

291 Thirty-five local **snack items** were screened with the XRF, and all results were below the XRF's
 292 limit of detection of 3 ppm.

293 Nine out of all 16 tested **ceramic** samples exceeded 100 ppm. Similar to metal cookware, there
 294 are no recommended limits for total lead in ceramics, so the 100-ppm threshold is based on
 295 our current research applying leaching tests. However, it should be noted that the sample size
 296 was only 16 for this category, potentially limiting the representativeness of the results.

297 Out of the 10 **cosmetic** samples identified, all were below 20 ppm, which aligns with the
298 Bureau of Indian Standard's limit for lead in cosmetics (Government of India, 1940).
299 Nevertheless, caution is warranted in interpreting these results due to the small sample size.

300 Lead content in **drinking water** was sampled from a representative subset of homes,
301 encompassing various sources such as hand pumps, government supply, and borewells. Out
302 of 25 samples, only one exceeded India's drinking water standard for lead of 10 ppb
303 (Government of India, 2011), with half of all samples falling below 3.4 ppb (see supplement
304 Table S1).

305

306 The analysis of the environmental samples showed that metal cookware, spices and painted
307 walls were the main sources of lead in sampled houses. The next step in the statistical analysis
308 was to divide the children into two groups, using a BLL of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ as the cut-off. The
309 characteristics of the lead levels in the household environmental samples according to the BLL
310 of the children are presented in Table 4.

311

312

Environmental sample	% Below LOD	BLL <10 µg/dL					BLL ≥10 µg/dL				
		N	Median (min-max)	GM (SD)	AM (SD)	% above reference level	N	Median (min-max)	GM (SD)	AM (SD)	% above reference level
Metal cookware	4 %	91	1670 (1.7-12100)	1409.3 (4.6)	2410.6 (2242.8)	96%	51	1790 (1.7-17400)	1237.4 (6.9)	2755.4 (3159.5)	94%
Paint (wall)	24%	85	1180 (1.7-344410)	396.5 (55.8)	21956.7 (57330.5)	67%	51	1396 (1.7-183422)	1056.7 (48.5)	29007.1 (49879.3)	78%
Spice	25%	87	8 (1.7-2378)	13.9 (7.8)	134,0 (367.2)	67%	45	472 (1.7-4139)	194.4 (10.8)	842.4 (1008)	91%
Soil	1%	62	17 (1.7-52)	16.7 (1.6)	18.2 (7.5)	0%	17	21 (14-1990)	29.5 (3.2)	140.2 (476.8)	6%

313 Table 4: Lead levels in household environmental samples by BLL among children (N=number, LOD=limit of detection, GM=geometric mean,
314 AM=arithmetic mean, SD=standard deviation)

315

316

317 3.2. Association between environmental sources and elevated BLL

318 Table 5 presents the association between lead in different environmental samples and the
319 odds of a child having BLL ≥ 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$. In the crude analysis, odds of elevated BLL are
320 significantly associated with lead concentration in spice (crude OR=1.4, 95%CI: 1.24 - 1.60) and
321 in soil (crude OR=4.15, 95%CI: 1.53 - 14.01). After adjusting for the child's age, sex, and
322 demographic factors, the odds of elevated BLL are only significantly associated with lead in
323 spice (aOR=1.35, 95%CI: 1.16 - 1.59). This means when the lead concentration in spice
324 doubles, the odds of a child having elevated BLL will be 1.4 times higher. Our finding is similar
325 to findings from an earlier study in Bihar by Brown et al (Brown et al., 2022) which also
326 observed significant associations between high levels of lead in turmeric and soil collected
327 from the household and higher BLL among children living in communities distant from a
328 contaminated site.

329

330

Variable	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	p-value	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	p-value
Pb in metal cookware	0.97 (0.84 - 1.12)	0.66	1.08 (0.92 - 1.23)	0.35
Pb in large surface paint	1.05 (0.98 - 1.11)	0.17	1.03 (0.95 - 1.10)	0.56
Pb in spice	1.40 (1.24 – 1.60)	<0.01	1.35 (1.16 – 1.59)	<0.01
Pb in soil	4.15 (1.53 - 14.01)	0.01	2.15 (1.09 – 9.14)	0.13

331 Table 5: Associations between environmental sources and elevated BLL (OR=odds ratio,
332 Pb=lead)

333

334 3.3. Lead concentration in rural versus urban homes

335 In Table 6 we compared lead concentrations in environmental samples collected from homes
336 located in urban and rural areas. Applying a Wilcoxon rank sum test shows that lead levels in
337 metal cookware used in rural households were significantly higher than those used in urban
338 households (67% higher median level), potentially reflecting a greater dependence on
339 informally produced cookware. In contrast, urban households reported significantly higher

340 lead levels in paint (43 times higher), spices (33 times higher), and soil (50% higher) than rural
 341 households (see Figure 4). These urban disadvantages may reflect greater availability of
 342 commercial paints, bulk-sale spice markets and the historic deposition of lead particles in soil
 343 from decades of spatially dense combustion of gasoline containing tetra-ethyl lead.

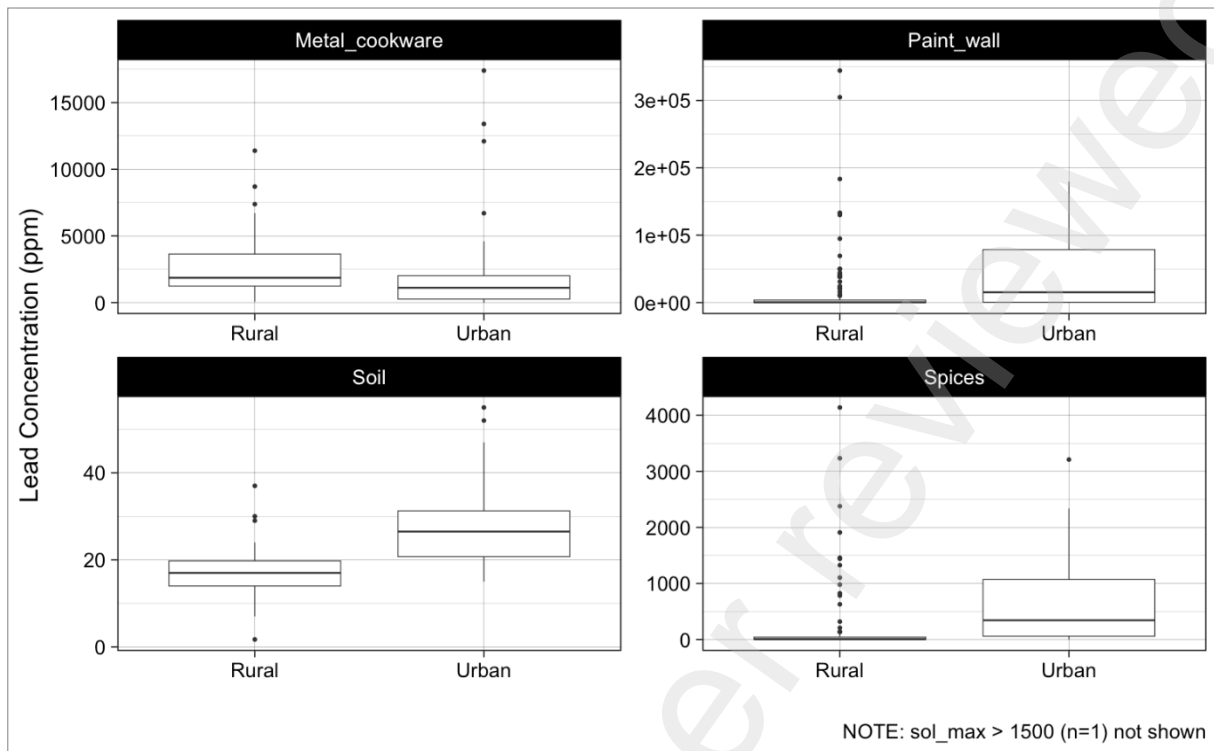
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Characteristic	Rural Median (IQR)	Urban Median (IQR)	p-value*
Metal cookware	1,860 (1,235-3,640)	1,110 (260-2,015)	<0.001
Paint (wall)	456 (2-3,638)	15,247 (484-78,555)	0.001
Spice	8 (2-43)	344 (60-1,072)	<0.001
Soil	17 (14-20)	26 (2- 31)	<0.001

345 *Wilcoxon rank sum test

346 Table 6: Lead concentrations in environmental samples by household urbanicity

347



350

351 Figure 4. Box plot of lead in environmental samples by urbanicity

352

353

3.4. Impact

354 In summary, our assessments conducted in households identified high prevalence of elevated
 355 lead levels in metal cookware, spices, and painted walls among tested Bihar households. We
 356 also found a positive association between lead levels in spices collected in homes and elevated
 357 BLL among Bihar children. The concern regarding lead in spices has been previously
 358 highlighted in this region of India (Brown et al., 2022). While a minimal amount of lead can
 359 naturally occur in spices due to varying lead concentrations in soil, the levels observed in this
 360 study suggest intentional adulteration. Research from Bangladesh suggests that this practice
 361 aims to enhance color for greater appeal in the market (Forsyth et al., 2019) and to add weight
 362 for pricing advantages. The issue of lead in metal cookware, though not widely recognized
 363 today (Brown et al., 2022), emerges as a significant concern from our data. Lead may be found
 364 in cookware that is manufactured from recycled and waste metals. Metal cookware that
 365 contains lead presents risks as studies indicate that lead can leach into cooked food. Predicting
 366 the extent of lead transfer from a specific pot to food is challenging, and there are currently
 367 no international standards for total lead content in metal cookware. Lead in paint is a well-

368 known source of exposure in India (Kumar et al., 2022; Vishwanath et al., 2012), with lead in
369 house dust posing a serious risk, especially for young children who frequently touch their
370 hands to their mouths or teethe painted surfaces. Our results indicate elevated lead levels in
371 doors, windows, gates, and certain painted walls in many houses in Bihar. While less
372 widespread, high lead levels were also identified in specific toys, posing a risk to individual
373 children.

374

375 3.5. *Strengths and limitations*

376 **Strengths.** This study assessed lead levels in a wide range of environmental samples collected
377 from households in Bihar, India. This study was able to pair biologic samples with home
378 environmental testing. Both households of children with high BLL and a random subset of
379 households with low to moderate BLL were evaluated. The random selection of households
380 for the original blood lead testing studies provided a good representation of the population
381 and not only of the high-risk communities with known environmental lead contamination. Site
382 selection focused on non-contaminated areas, and results may not be representative of
383 hotspot areas with expected higher lead levels in soil, house dust, and locally sourced food or
384 water (Brown et al., 2022).

385 **Limitations** should be acknowledged, including the XRF's suitability for screening lead content,
386 with some items like toys having multiple components with varying lead concentrations that
387 may be overlooked. The XRF's limit of detection, around 3 ppm, may not be ideal for food
388 items. Additionally, the limited sample size in certain categories, such as cosmetics and
389 ceramics, precludes definitive conclusions.

390 Several factors may play a role in limiting our power to detect associations between several
391 environmental lead sources and elevated BLL. Although high BLLs and lead levels exceeding
392 standards were observed in several products, the sample size is fairly small and may have
393 limited the study's power to detect effects with small or moderate effect sizes. For some
394 environmental samples such as lead in paint on large surfaces, the percentage of samples with
395 levels under detection limits was also high and limited the variation in exposure level among
396 sampled children. Moreover, contribution of lead exposure from home environment to blood
397 lead levels is likely modified by the child's behavior (e.g., handwashing, frequency of spice
398 intake, time spent indoor), home condition (e.g., chipping paint, frequency of mopping the

399 floor), and children's exposure outside of home (e.g., playing outside or in kindergarten). BLLs
400 in children are indicative of relatively recent exposures, while actual exposure to household
401 lead sources may not be temporally correlated. The lead levels in the various environmental
402 samples might not be independent, as the weak correlation observed between lead in soil and
403 spice and moderate correlation observed between lead in soil and toy indicates (see
404 supplement Figure S1).

405

406 **4. Conclusions**

407 The home-based assessment in Bihar underscores the prevalence of high lead levels in various
408 common household items, particularly cookware, spices, and painted surfaces, necessitating
409 interventions to protect residents, especially children, from avoidable lead exposure. Health
410 education to raise awareness about lead hazards and promote protective measures, along
411 with regulatory and policy interventions, is imperative to address lead in cookware, spices,
412 and paint.

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416

417 **Availability of data and materials**

418 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available on specific request
419 only.

420

421

422 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

423 Emily Nash, conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, methodology, validation,
424 visualization, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing final draft

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450 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

451

452 **Declaration of competing interest**

453 The authors declare no conflict of interest. The authors declare that they have no known
454 competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence
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463 During the preparation of this work the authors used DeepL-Pro and Chat GPT, only in order
464 to improve the language and spelling. After using this tool, the authors reviewed and edited
465 the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

466

467

468 **List of abbreviations**

469 BLL Blood lead level

470 BPL below-poverty-line (BPL) certificate

471 BRANY Biomedical Research Alliance of New York

472 HBA Home based assessment

473 ICP-MS inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

474 LMIC low- and middle-income country

475 LOD limit of detection

476 lpt lead in paint on walls

477 mcw lead in metal cookware

478 ND “non-detect”

479 OR odds ratio

480 PB lead

481 PE Pure Earth

482 ppb parts per billion

483 ppm parts per million

484 SD standard deviation

485 sol lead in soil

486 spc lead in spices

487 toy lead in toys

488 UN United Nations

489 US US Consumer Product Safety Commission

490 VS Vital Strategies

491 WHO World Health Organization

492 XRF X-ray fluorescence

493

Preprint not peer reviewed

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497 **References (Endnote)**

498

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