

Assessment of Chronic Mercury Exposure and Neurodegenerative Disease

Dan R Laks, Environmental Health Science
M.S. Thesis, U.C. Berkeley

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Page</u>
1. “Executive Summary”	2
Outline	
Keywords and Abbreviations	
List of Tables and Figures	
2. “Background”	9
Introduction	
Source and Exposure	
Toxicology	
Measurement and Error	
3. “Health Risks”	16
Alzheimer’s Disease	17
Mercury, Vaccines, and the Development of Autism	23
4. “Method for Assessment of Chronic Mercury Exposure”	31
Chronic Mercury Exposure Groups	
5. “Mercury and the Biochemical Profile”	38
Original Research: NHANES Data Analysis	
Supplemental Figures: NHANES Study	59
6. “Policy Review”	125
7. “Conclusion”	128
8. “References”	131

U.C. Berkeley School of Public Health

Thesis Advisors: Katharine Hammond, PhD, Michael Bates, PhD, Alan Hubbard, PhD

Thanks to David Lien for SAS / STATA conversion.

Contact: Dan R Laks, 323 347 8334, drlaks@berkeley.edu

1. Executive Summary

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine suitable methods for assessment of chronic mercury exposure and associated neurodegenerative diseases.

Methods

This study combines an analytical review of the scientific literature with statistical analysis of cross sectional survey data (1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES combined population, Women ages 16-49 years). From a review of toxicological evidence and chronic mercury exposure trials, blood I-Hg detection and blood CH₃Hg concentration are determined as the appropriate bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure. In the NHANES survey population, statistical analysis was employed to evaluate associations between both bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure (blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg) and the biochemical profile markers associated with the three main targets of mercury effect and deposition in the human body: the pituitary, immune system, and liver.

Background

Since the industrial revolution, global atmospheric levels of the neurotoxin mercury have risen beyond 300% of natural levels due primarily to emissions from the burning of coal. Mercury is released into the atmosphere from natural sources, degassing from the earth's crust, and from industrial sources, primarily from the burning of coal. Due to atmospheric transport, mercury is deposited locally and globally, in soil and water. There, microbial agents biotransform atmospheric mercury into more toxic, organic forms. Mercury returns from the environment bound for human absorption in our food chain, primarily in the consumption of fish. Other major sources of human exposure include dental amalgams and vaccines containing the preservative, Thimerosal (Thiomersal).

At this time, scientific consensus agrees that the global rate of mercury deposition may be increasing over time¹. In addition, the latest studies suggest that as global mercury deposition increases, the incidence of the most closely associated neurodegenerative diseases such as Autism and Alzheimer's Disease are rising as well^{2,3}. Recent studies suggest that the incidence of Autism and Alzheimer's Disease may be rising in heavily industrialized countries around the world, in regions where unprecedented mercury levels have recently been found in women and children, fish and animals, rice and soil⁴. These trends support the theory that both chronic mercury exposure and associated risks of neurodegenerative disease may rise within the general U.S. population.

Toxicology

Acute exposure to mercury triggers a toxic response upon reaching a critical concentration, or threshold. This toxic threshold varies within populations as baseline mercury concentrations and rates of excretion vary within populations. Liver, microflora, immune system, and diet may become less effective means of mercury elimination as a result of previous exposure and rising mercury deposition themselves. If the rate of mercury deposition increases, risks of associated neurodegenerative disease, such as Alzheimer's Disease and Autism may increase rapidly, especially in the most susceptible populations.

There are three forms of mercury: elemental mercury (Hg), inorganic mercuric ions (I-Hg), and the organic compounds, methyl mercury (CH₃Hg) and dimethyl mercury. Elemental mercury vapor and the organic mercury compounds are lipophilic, readily absorbed by the human body, and cross the blood brain barrier and placental barriers. Elimination of organic mercury from the human body is dependent upon gastrointestinal microflora.

In tissue of the human body, organic mercury (CH₃Hg) is demethylated into inorganic mercury (I-Hg) and forms lasting deposits. Measurement of inorganic mercury (I-Hg) is subject to large variation due to loss of sample during storage and vaporization. Improvements in the measurement of inorganic mercury may enable accurate measurement of mercury deposition within the human body. Organic mercury levels reflect recent chronic mercury exposure. Taken together, the speciation of two blood mercury forms, Inorganic (I-Hg) and Organic (CH₃Hg), may best estimate chronic exposure and deposition. Assessment of chronic mercury exposure is necessary to ascertain individual baseline levels of mercury and susceptibility to exposure within populations.

Health Risks

Toxicological studies present strong evidence that chronic organic mercury exposure results in persistent, inorganic mercury deposits in target systems of the human body. The pituitary is a primary target for mercury deposition in the brain. The liver and immune system are main targets for mercury deposition in the body. A review of the scientific literature presents compelling evidence that mercury exposure and deposition are linked to neurodegenerative disease, particularly Alzheimer's Disease and Autism. The latest studies suggest the incidence of these most closely associated neurodegenerative diseases are rising as well ^{2,3}. This rising incidence of neurodegenerative diseases that are most closely associated with mercury exposure may be occurring in heavily industrialized countries around the world, in regions where unprecedented mercury levels have recently been found in women and children, fish and animals, rice and soil ⁴.

Recently, the first clinical trial on autistic children showed an improvement of symptoms after treatment with mercury chelation⁵. This treatment was linked to low blood androgen levels in autistic children. Luteinizing Hormone is an androgen-regulating hormone that is produced in the pituitary, a main target of mercury deposition. As global mercury deposition increases, it is logical to assume increased deposition in the human pituitary and immune system may elevate risks of associated neurodegenerative disease.

Method For Assessment of Chronic Mercury Exposure

Previously published data from a study of chronic methyl mercury exposure on adult monkeys were analyzed to determine bioindicators for assessment of chronic exposure. Evidence for the demethylation of methyl mercury into inorganic mercury deposits in the brain, suggests that both inorganic mercury and methyl mercury should be used for assessment of chronic mercury exposure. The regression of I-Hg to CH₃Hg was a successful method for distinguishing between exposure groups. I-Hg determined long-term exposure levels and CH₃Hg determined time since last exposure. This study concluded that links between chronic organic mercury exposure and associated diseases should be investigated using the method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure presented in this study; one that utilizes both blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg concentrations as bioindicators of chronic mercury exposure.

Mercury and the Biochemical Profile

The National Health and Nutrition Survey (NHANES, 1999-2002) was used to investigate associations between bioindicators of chronic, organic mercury exposure and selected biochemical markers that profile the main target sites for inorganic mercury deposition. The reported association between organic and inorganic mercury levels in the blood are consistent with previous evidence that demethylation of organic mercury is a contributing source of I-Hg deposition⁶. This association provides evidence that organic mercury demethylates into inorganic mercury deposits within the human body. Cross-sectional analysis revealed that in the older population, the NHANES population-averaged means for pituitary, liver, and immune system biomarkers were all associated with bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure. For the first time in the general U.S. population, these results provide significant proof of a direct interaction between chronic, organic mercury exposure, inorganic mercury deposition, and effect on target systems within the human brain and body. For the first time in the general human population, this study provides strong evidence of a biological mechanism to link between chronic mercury exposure and Alzheimer's Disease. The interaction between mercury deposition and LH should be further investigated as a causative mechanism in the development of Alzheimer's Disease.

Policy Review

Government policy regarding the risks posed by mercury exposure is influenced by the many industries that profit from its sale, application, and emissions. In Spring, 2004, attorney generals from ten states and 45 senators asked the Environmental Protection Agency (E.P.A.) to scrap the new "clear skies" proposal, saying it was not strict enough. But instead, the Bush administration went ahead and set forth a new proposal to delay all mercury emission restrictions until 2018.

In 2004, the IOM concluded there was no evidence to link vaccines and Autism. Policy regarding chronic mercury exposure suffers from political and scientific uncertainty. In order to create effective public health policy regarding chronic mercury exposure, and to assess links with associated disease, a suitable method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure is needed. Links with associated disease are impossible to assess without a method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure to determine baseline exposure and deposition levels.

Conclusion

Due to the bioaccumulation of organic mercury in food sources, atmospheric deposition of mercury vapor ultimately deposits mercury in the human pituitary, liver, immune system, adrenals, and kidney. The accumulation of targeted mercury deposition may disrupt the endocrine and immune systems, damage the delicate balance between inflammation and suppression, and elevate risks of neurodegenerative disease. As global deposition of atmospheric mercury increases, it is logical to assume that the rate of chronic mercury exposure and deposition in target areas of the human body will increase as well.

Our analysis of chronic mercury exposure trials tested a hypothesis that a suitable method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure would observe the change in I-Hg that results from CH₃Hg exposure, demethylation, and deposition. The regression of I-Hg to CH₃Hg was effective at distinguishing different exposure groups in a trial of chronic mercury exposure. This is significant as it provides a method for assessment of chronic organic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition.

This study concludes that blood I-Hg and methyl mercury levels should both be accurately measured in order to serve as bioindicators for the assessment of chronic mercury exposure. Our analysis of the NHANES population reports an association between organic and inorganic mercury levels in the blood. This is consistent with other studies that demonstrate demethylation of organic mercury as a contributing source of I-Hg deposition within the body. Data are sufficient to conclude there is an association between chronic, organic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition in target systems of the human body. Our study reports evidence that chronic mercury exposure and resultant deposition are associated with changes in biochemical markers for the liver, immune system, and pituitary. Luteinizing hormone, white blood cell count, and bilirubin levels are biomarkers associated with chronic, organic mercury exposure. This is significant as it demonstrates for the first time within the U.S. population, that chronic, organic mercury exposure is associated with targets of inorganic mercury deposition. The reported associations between chronic mercury exposure and luteinizing hormone suggest a biological mechanism to link chronic mercury exposure and the development of neurodegenerative disease.

Keywords and Abbreviations

Chronic mercury exposure, neurodegenerative disease, National Health and Nutrition Survey (NHANES), inorganic mercury (I-Hg), methyl mercury (CH_3Hg), total mercury (T-Hg), mercuric ions (Hg^{++}), elemental mercury (Hg), Luteinizing hormone (LH), White Blood Cell Count (W.B.C.), Alzheimer's Disease (AD), Autism.

Tables and Figures

Figure 2.0: Mercury Forms.

Figure 2.1: Demethylation in Bacteria.

Figure 2.2: Human Biotransformation of Mercury.

Figure 2.3: Methylation in Human Tissue.

Figure 2.4: Mercury and Thiol Bonding.

Figure 4.0: Relationship between Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg) and methylmercury (CH_3Hg) in monkey Pituitary samples following chronic mercury exposure.

Figure 4.01: Relationship between Mean Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg) and Methylmercury (CH_3Hg) levels in macaque monkey whole brain samples (raw data taken from reference⁶).

Figure 4.1: Boxplots of Pituitary Mercury Forms and Exposure Group.

Figure 5.0: Scatterplots of Age (Years) versus Biochemical Profile Markers, in Women ages 16-49 years, combined 199-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Figure 5.03: I-Hg Detection Rates for each of two Survey Groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and NHANES 2001-2002.

Figure 5.01: Age distribution by decade for each of the two survey groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and NHANES 2001-2002.

Figure 5.02: Race Distribution for each of the two survey groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and NHANES 2001-2002.

Figure 5.03: Graphs of Probabilities for I-Hg Detection (Blood Inorganic Mercury) vs. Concentration of Biochemical Profile Markers in NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.1 Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood Bilirubin (NHANES code= lbdstbsi) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.11: Association Between Blood I-Hg and Blood Methyl Mercury in Women Ages 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.2: Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood Luteinizing hormone (LH) (NHANES* code= lbxlh) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.3: Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood White Blood Cell Count (NHANES code= lbxwbc) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.31: Logistic Regression of I-Hg using Categorical Variables.

Figure 5.33: Subpopulation Restricted by I-Hg Detection (>0.4 ug/L, LOD), NHANES 1999-2003.

Figure 5.4: Observed Points and Fitted Lines for Linear Regressions of Blood Methyl Mercury (ug/L) versus biochemical profile markers, in Women ages 16-49 years, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Figure 5.5: Test of Rigor: Outliers Removed for Linear Regressions of Blood Methyl

Mercury(ug/L) Versus Biochemical Profile Markers, in Women Ages 16-49 Years, Combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Figure 5.8: Subpopulation restricted by Race: African American. Associations Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and biochemical profile markers in African American Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Figure 5.9: Subpopulation restricted by Race: African American. Associations Between Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) and biochemical profile markers in African American Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

Table 5.0: Summary Description of Mercury Forms and Biochemical Profile Markers, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.01: Descriptive statistics of Age (years) for women 16-49 years of age, by race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.02: Descriptive Statistics of I-Hg Detection (proportion of detection) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.03: Descriptive statistics of blood CH₃Hg (ug/L) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.04: Descriptive statistics of Blood Bilirubin levels (umol/L) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.05: Descriptive statistics of Blood Luteinizing Hormone (LH) levels (mIU/ml) for women 30-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.06: Descriptive statistics of White Blood Cell Count (SI) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

Table 5.07: Descriptive statistics of Urinary Mercury (ng/ml) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.:

Table 5.1: Rate of Detection for Inorganic Mercury in NHANES by Year.

Table 5.21: Comparison of I-Hg Detection between the two Survey Groups, NHANES 1999 2000 and NHANES 2001-2002.

Table 5.22: Risk of I-Hg Detection for Survey Group 2001-2002 as compared to the baseline 1999-2000 survey group, in the NHANES Combined Survey Population (1999 2002).

Table 5.23: Risk of I-Hg Detection for Survey Group 2001-2002 (year2) versus 1999-2000 (year1) Using Categorical variables for Age.

Table 5.3: Mean Values for Mercury Forms and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES Combined Population, 1999-2002.

Table 5.4: Marginal Model Associations with Mercury by Form.

Table 5.5: Associations Between I-Hg Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002).

Table 5.51: Associations Between I-Hg Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002) as Categorical Variables.

Table 5.52: Subpopulation Restricted by race (African American). Associations Between I-Hg

Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in African American women in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002).

- Table 5.53: Subpopulation Restricted by race (African American). Associations Between CH_3Hg and Biochemical Profile Markers in African American women in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002).
- Table 5.6: Associations Between CH_3Hg and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002).
- Table 5.62: I-Hg detection and Urinary Mercury.
- Table 5.63: I-Hg Detection and CH_3Hg .
- Table 5.7: Organic Mercury and Luteinizing Hormone (LH).
- Table 5.71: Organic Mercury and Bilirubin.
- Table 5.712: Blood Organic Mercury (CH_3Hg) and White Blood Cell Count.
- Table 5.72: Linear Regressions of Blood Organic Mercury (CH_3Hg) to Biochemical Profile Markers, Women Age 16-49 Years, NHANES 1999-2000 & 2001-2002 Combined Population.
- Table 5.73: Linear Regressions of Blood Organic Mercury (CH_3Hg) to Biochemical Profile Markers, in subpopulations of Women grouped by Age in Years, NHANES 1999-2000 & 2001-2002 Combined Population.
- Table 5.9: Urinary Mercury and White Blood Cell Count.
- Table 5.91: Urinary Mercury and Bilirubin.
- Table 5.92: Race Effects and Mercury Forms.
- Table 5.93: Age Effect and I-Hg Forms.
- Table 5.94: Age Effect and CH_3Hg .

2. Background

Introduction

In 1968, both Sweden and Japan restricted mercury containing pesticides and Nature published this scientific opinion; “We feel that the example set by these two countries should be followed elsewhere before concentrations of mercury reach a point where methyl mercury is being titrated in humans as well as fish”⁷. Now, forty years after the warning in Nature, mercury in the blood of the U.S. population is being titrated. Elevated blood mercury levels, beyond what was considered “without increased risk of adverse neurodevelopmental effects associated with methyl mercury exposure”, were found in eight percent of the NHANES American survey population (1999-2000)⁸. This study estimated that due to mercury exposure, 300,000 to 600,000 American children would be born with elevated risks of neurodevelopmental disorders during those years.

At this time, scientific consensus agrees that the global rate of atmospheric mercury deposition may be increasing over time¹. The latest studies suggest that as the rate of global mercury deposition increases, the incidence of the most closely associated neurodegenerative diseases such as Autism and Alzheimer’s Disease are rising as well^{2,3}. Recent studies suggest that the incidence of Autism and Alzheimer’s Disease may be rising in heavily industrialized countries around the world, in regions where unprecedented mercury levels have recently been found in women and children, fish and animals, rice and soil⁴. These global trends support the theory that both chronic mercury exposure and risks of associated, neurodegenerative disease may rise within the general U.S. population.

The purpose of this study was to determine suitable methods for assessment of chronic mercury exposure and risks of associated neurodegenerative diseases. Currently, there is no method to measure long term, chronic mercury exposure. This inability to quantify chronic exposure makes it difficult to assess links with disease, and to develop effective policy and regulation concerning mercury exposure.

Source and Exposure

Since the industrial revolution, global atmospheric levels of the neurotoxin mercury have risen beyond 300% natural levels due primarily to emissions from the burning of coal. Mercury is released into the atmosphere from natural sources, one third from degassing of the earth’s crust, and from industrial sources, two thirds primarily from the burning of coal. Due to atmospheric transport, mercury is deposited locally and globally, in soil and water. Oxidized forms of mercury that are released from point source plumes may deposit locally¹. Upon deposition, microbial agents biotransform elemental mercury into more toxic, organic forms. Mercury returns from the environment bound for human absorption in the food chain, primarily from the consumption of fish. In the U.S., geographic variability in the mercury concentrations of fish affects the variability of mercury exposure between populations⁹. In a recent study on mercury concentrations in the fish from lakes around Western America, mercury concentration in fish was directly associated with the atmospheric transport and deposition of mercury vapor¹⁰. Other major sources of human exposure include dental amalgams and vaccines containing the preservative, Thimerosal (Thiomersal).

Mercury, commonly known as quicksilver, is the only metal that is liquid at room temperature. The element is volatile and vaporizes into a monatomic, mercury gas. Mercury volatility results in a global dispersion of mercury vapor. The natural source of mercury originates in the degassing of the elemental form from the earth’s crust¹¹. The gas condenses in clouds that travel through atmospheric transport for up to a year before it settles, deposits and revolatizes. Upon deposition, terrestrial and

aquatic microbes biotransform elemental and inorganic mercury into a methylated, organic form that is highly absorbable through digestion. The organic form, methyl mercury (CH_3Hg), is 100 times more toxic than inorganic mercury¹¹. Mercury emissions return from the environment in the food chain as a biotransformed organic compound bound for human consumption. Global anthropogenic emissions of mercury are estimated to range between 2000 and 6000 metric tons per year. China alone is believed to emit about 1000 tons of mercury annually. In comparison, U.S. anthropogenic mercury emissions are estimated to be about 158 tons per year. A major source of atmospheric mercury that deposits in California originates from Chinese coal burning plants. Other industrial sources include natural gas, crude oils, the refining of petroleum products, sewage treatment facilities, batteries, light bulbs, thermometers, pesticides and fungicides^{11 12 13 14}.

For the human population, chronic mercury exposure originates primarily from fish consumption, dental amalgams, and vaccinations^{11 15 16}. It is estimated that the average American receives chronic mercury exposure from food (20-75 ug/day), water (2 ug/day), and air (1 ug/day)¹⁵. Elemental mercury exposure is primarily from dental amalgams containing elemental mercury. The mercury vapor released from dental amalgams is presumed to account for the majority of mercury detected in human urine¹¹. Consumption of fish is considered to be the major source of human exposure to organic mercury in the U.S. population¹⁷. In a population dependent on fish intake, studies found that mercury levels rose three-fold¹¹. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has lowered their advisory on “acceptable” levels of mercury exposure and advises pregnant mothers against eating more than three fish a month for fear of neurological effects on the unborn child. The infant and developing fetus are particularly susceptible to the effects of mercury and face chronic mercury exposure from the mother, mother’s diet, and mother’s dental amalgams¹⁶. After birth, the infant is further stressed due to the entire program of vaccines. Thimerosal, a vaccine preservative containing organic mercury accounts for an estimated 100% increase in additional infant mercury exposure. Mercury from vaccine preservative is injected directly into the blood stream and not subject to excretion by the gut. Before removal of thimerosal from vaccines, the usual program of vaccinations resulted in more infant mercury exposure than is recommended by the EPA¹⁸.

A dose response relationship analysis of methyl mercury and cases of poisoning reveals a toxic threshold in blood mercury levels that triggers disease response in acute exposure¹⁹. With rising baseline levels of chronic mercury exposure, the toxic threshold for poisoning may decrease. The Swedish Expert Group (1971) calculated the average long-term daily intake of methyl mercury associated with adverse health affects at 4.3 ug/kg/day or a steady state blood level of 200ug/L. The EPA’s RfD for ingested CH_3Hg is 0.1 ug/kg/day which was reduced from 0.5 ug/kg/day due to increased concerns over adverse health risks²⁰.

According to a panel of scientific experts, the rate of atmospheric mercury deposition may be increasing due to industrial emissions and climactic changes¹. This likely rise in the rate of mercury deposition may signal a significant increase in the origins of global mercury exposure.

Toxicology

On the basis of toxicological characteristics, there are three forms of mercury, elemental (Hg, metal and vapor), inorganic mercury (I-Hg, mercuric ions) and organic compounds (CH_3Hg , dimethyl mercury, and ethylmercury found in thimerosal vaccine preservative) (see figure 1.0). In 1968, the renowned scientific journal, *Nature*, published results from the biochemistry division of the University of Illinois. In this study, dimethyl mercury was shown to be the final product in the bacterial methylation of mercury. Dimethyl mercury is the most toxic form of mercury, “dimethyl mercury is the ultimate

product of this methyl transfer reaction...It therefore seems that dimethyl mercury could be the product of biological significance in mercury poisoning”⁷. In one research institute, a small dose of dimethyl mercury was spilled, absorbed through latex gloves and resulted in the death of at least one researcher ¹¹.

Figure 2.0: Mercury Forms (Speciation)

$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_3\text{Hg}$	\longleftrightarrow	CH_3Hg	\longleftrightarrow	Hg^{++}	\longleftrightarrow	Hg
Dimethyl Mercury		Methyl Mercury		Mercuric Ions		Elemental (atomic) Mercury
Lipid soluble		Lipid Soluble		Water Soluble		Liquid Metal/ Lipid Soluble Gas

Absorption

Metallic mercury (elemental mercury) volatilizes to mercury vapor at room temperature and most human exposure is through inhalation. Elemental mercury in vapor form is lipophilic and 80% of inhaled elemental mercury is readily absorbed in the respiratory tract. Inhaled mercury vapor readily diffuses across the alveolar membranes and has an affinity for red blood cells. The vapor has high mobility and diffuses rapidly throughout the body and brain as a monatomic gas. Mercuric ions are water soluble and only 7-15% of the ingested dose is absorbed from the human GI tract ²⁰. In contrast, 95% of ingested organic mercury is absorbed by the human gastrointestinal tract (GI) ^{20 15}. Organic mercury forms are lipophilic and readily absorbed by cells and tissues.

Distribution

Elemental mercury vapor (Hg) crosses the blood brain barrier and placental barriers. The half-life of elemental mercury in the human body is 45 days. Deposition occurs primarily in the kidney following inhalation ¹⁵. Inorganic mercuric ions (I-Hg) are water soluble (69 g/l) and accumulate in the kidney. The half-life of I-Hg is 15-30 days. Organic mercury (CH_3Hg) has a half-life of 50-90 days in the human body. Ninety percent is found in red blood cells where it binds to water soluble molecules such as cysteine and glutathione ¹¹. Methylmercury accumulates in red blood cells and is slowly distributed to the organs of the body. Fifty percent is distributed to the liver and 10% to the brain. Organic mercury readily crosses the blood brain barrier and placental barriers. The cysteine complex of methyl mercury enters the endothelial cells of the blood brain barrier on the large neutral amino acid transporter (21). Ethyl mercury readily passes through the blood brain barrier as well ²¹. Additionally, CH_3Hg exposure may compromise the blood brain barrier and other membrane structures resulting in increased brain uptake of CH_3Hg ²². The half-life of mercury is longer in the brain than in the blood. CH_3Hg is demethylated into inorganic mercury deposits which have a half life on the order of years ⁶.

Excretion

Elimination of organic mercury from the human body is dependent upon gastrointestinal microflora. Elimination rates of organic mercury are dependent upon species, dose, sex, and animal strain. The excretion of mercury is almost exclusively through the gastrointestinal (GI) tract and is dependent on GI microbial flora populations⁶. Blood mercury passes through the liver to the bile and returns into the GI tract. Under healthy conditions, flora (microbes) in the GI tract demethylate organic mercury to the poorly absorbed, water soluble, inorganic mercury, which is excreted in feces. Approximately 1% of the human body burden of CH_3Hg is excreted daily in feces ¹¹. Much of the

organic mercury in bile is bound to glutathione and cysteine and is reabsorbed by the gut in a process of enterohepatic circulation²³. Organic mercury is also excreted through breast milk and passes from mothers to infants in that manner. Inorganic mercury is primarily excreted through urine and feces. It is also excreted in saliva, bile, sweat, exhaled air and breast milk^{11,20}. Elemental mercury is excreted in exhaled air, sweat, saliva and as mercuric ions in feces and urine^{11,20}.

Biotransformation

In tissue of the human body, organic mercury (CH_3Hg) is demethylated into inorganic mercury (I-Hg), which forms lasting deposits. Scientific studies provide evidence that organic forms of mercury and even dimethylmercury may be produced in the human GI tract by sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) and methanogenic bacteria. The sulfate reducing bacteria, *Desulfovibrio*, which actively methylates mercury, has been found both in the human colon and in the periodontal pocket of the human mouth in 58% of study subjects^{24,25}. *Desulfovibrio* are ecologically the most significant group of sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) in the human colon²⁵. These flora exist as 66% of SRB in the healthy gut and 92% in persons with ulcerative colitis. These SRB may methylate mercurous ions into the more readily absorbed organic form, CH_3Hg . Scientists estimate that 9 micrograms of organic mercury may be formed per day in the gut of humans¹¹.

GI flora populations are variable and change with diet and the environment. SRB are in a competitive relationship with methanogenic flora populations²⁶. The availability of dietary sulfates selects for an increase in SRB flora populations²⁷. Sulfates are generally released into the environment through industrial pollution or as chemical byproducts. Methyltransferases involved in methionine synthesis may be involved in Hg methylation by the sulfate reducing bacteria, *Desulfovibrio*. The enzyme responsible for methylating Hg in microbes, was found to transfer methyl groups from methyltetrahydrofolate to thiols such as homocysteine. This finding supports the hypothesis that mercury methylation may be a mistaken methylation of homocysteine²⁸.

GI flora don't regularly develop in infants until the ages of 2-3 years. During this time, chronic exposure to mercury or sulfates may select certain types of flora populations to develop. Microbial selection may predispose an infant to increased mercury absorption, impaired excretion, or increased biotransformation of mercury. Increased susceptibility to mercury exposure may occur after the administration of antibiotics as subsequent exposure to mercury or sulfates may select for certain flora populations.

Enterohepatic Circulation

Much of the methylmercury excreted from the liver in bile is reabsorbed in the gut, producing entero-hepatic circulation of methyl mercury. Mercury exposure disturbs GI function²³. If demethylation rates in the GI tract are reduced, excretion of organic mercury may be impaired and methylmercury may be effectively trapped in enterohepatic circulation and retained by the body in a GI absorption/retention loop. CH_3Hg circulating through the body may create an elevated risk of biotransformation to dimethyl mercury, absorption by the brain, and resultant neurodegeneration. In addition, any increase in the half-life of mercury would result in a greater probability of mercury deposition in the brain. Thus the toxic dose of mercury (LD50) may vary within the human population due to variable microflora involved in biotransformation, and excretion of organic mercury. Available levels of cysteine and the rate of glutathione conjugation of mercury in the bile, may directly affect the rates of enterohepatic circulation. Changes in infant cysteine levels may thereby influence the absorption

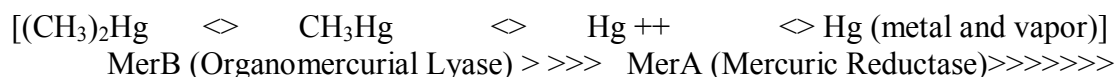
rates of mercury due to enterohepatic circulation. Treatment for overexposure to organic mercury involves interrupting enterohepatic circulation with surgical drainage of the gallbladder or oral administration of a non absorbable thiol resin which binds mercury and enhances intestinal excretion ²³.

Cellular Metabolism

CH₃Hg is slowly demethylated to mercuric ions in the tissues of the human body. The cellular demethylation of organic mercury results in the deposition of inorganic mercury in target tissues of the body. Autopsy studies on humans and primates both indicate that inorganic mercury deposits persist in the brain for years after exposure while organic mercury has a half life on the order of months ²⁹. There is reason to believe that inorganic mercury deposits (I-Hg) formed in the brain play an important role in CH₃Hg neurotoxicity ⁶. A free radical mechanism is known to demethylate CH₃Hg in vitro ¹¹.

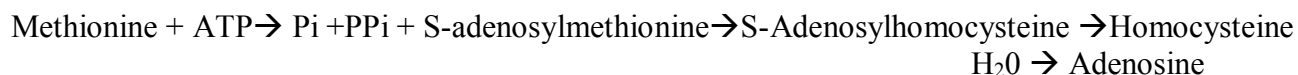
The process of methylation and demethylation is well understood in bacteria ^{30 31 32 28 33}. In contrast, enzymes responsible for mercury biotransformation in mammalian cells are unknown. Thus, cellular metabolism of mercury within human tissue warrants further investigation.

Figure 2.1: Demethylation in Bacteria



The microbial process of mercury demethylation is ancient, well preserved and governed by three genes. Genetically, one promoter gene MerR activates both the enzyme coding genes MerB and MerA. Mercuric ion concentrations accumulate from the free radical demethylation of ingested methylmercury. Once a chemotactic threshold is passed, the MerB coding region is activated and transcribes organomercurial lyase, enzymes that demethylate organic mercury into mercuric ions. This process is meant to reduce the amount of organic mercury by rendering it water soluble. If mercuric ions continue to increase, the MerA coding region is activated and transcribes mercuric reductase, an enzyme that reduces mercuric ions into mercury vapor. This process is meant to further eliminate mercury by rendering it into a lipid soluble gas. It is possible that a similar or even identical, well conserved genetic model for the demethylation of mercury is at work in the tissue of the human body. Microbial demethylation occurs in a biphasic degradation with two distinct slopes, each one representing the expression of two enzymes, one for demethylation and one for reduction. In human tissue, the activated methyl donor, S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) provides a possible mechanism for intracellular methylation of mercuric ions into methylmercury (CH₃Hg).

Figure 2.3: Methylation in Human Tissue

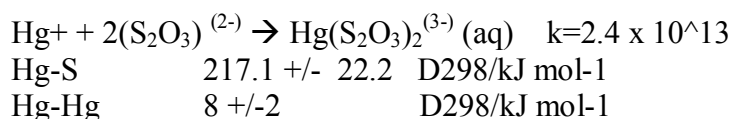


The activated methyl donor, S adenosylmethionine (SAM) provides a possible mechanism for intracellular methylation of mercury into organic mercury forms. The overall rate of cellular methylation, estimated by the ratio of SAM/SAH(S-adenosylhomocysteine), may be associated with the rate of mercury biotransformation. Methionine Synthase may play a role in the methylation of mercury.

Cellular Toxicity

Acute exposure to mercury triggers a toxic response upon reaching a critical concentration, or threshold. This toxic threshold may vary within populations as baseline mercury concentrations and rates of excretion vary within populations. The toxicological effects of mercury on cellular function are widespread and numerous. Mercury has particular affinity to sulfhydryl groups and thiol bonding. As a result, soluble complexes with cysteine, glutathione, and a variety of enzyme systems produce nonspecific cell injury or death. Every protein and amino acid chain in the body is a potential target of mercury.

Figure 2.4: Mercury and Thiol Bonding



Methyl mercury (CH₃Hg) affects many areas of the cell. On the cell surface, mercury binds irreversibly and inhibits voltage sensitive calcium channels^{34,35}. Brain cells exposed to organic mercury respond with neurotransmission disruption, disruption of high affinity dopamine uptake, and cell-surface recognition disruption^{20 15 36}. Chronic methylmercury exposure results in decreased ion currents in membrane channels of cultured cells^{20 37}. Glutamate and acetylcholine receptors are impaired by chronic mercury exposure^{15, 20, 36}. Inside the cell, mercury disrupts nuclear DNA and RNA synthesis, producing chromosome aberrations, and mitotic arrest. Similarly, mercury affects mitochondrial DNA synthesis. Studies have found a 50% decrease in protein synthesis in methyl mercury exposed rat brain^{23, 38}. Both inorganic and organic mercury “progressively depressed oxygen uptake and carbon dioxide production with increasing concentration” in a study on guinea-pig brain slices³⁹. Decreased mitochondrial respiration was also demonstrated in methylmercury exposed rats with neurological symptoms³⁸. In this study, decreased protein synthesis was shown to precede the onset of neurological symptoms and it was concluded that the “inhibition of protein synthesis may have a direct bearing on the poisoning”³⁸. Another study on rat brain cells found that impaired oxygen metabolism may be due to inhibition of cytochrome c oxidase by methylmercury and disruption of the mitochondrial membrane⁴⁰. Mercury produces changes in cell and lipid bilayer permeability by affecting protein induction of lipid peroxidation. As mercury binds to tubulin, it prompts disassembly of microtubules and results in the disruption of the neuronal cytoskeleton. On a study of rat brain cells, mercury was shown to inhibit neurite outgrowth in PC 12 cells by disrupting nerve growth factor stimulated tyrosine kinase receptor (TrkA) activity^{41 42}. In addition, chronic mercury exposure has been shown to inhibit neurite extension by perturbation of calcium regulation and impairment of microtubule assembly³⁷. In summary, there is ample and consistent toxicological evidence that chronic methylmercury exposure may produce neurodevelopmental impairment.

Measurement and Error

In studies of hair mercury concentrations, no significant relationship was found between hair, tissue, and organ levels⁴³. Blood mercury concentration is widely considered the appropriate indicator of absorbed dose that corresponds to target deposition^{43 44}. Yet, as methylmercury has a half life in the

blood of a few months, any measurement of methylmercury can only be considered a measure of recent exposure and not of previous or long term, chronic mercury exposure.

The NHANES employed flow-injection cold vapour atomic absorption spectrometry in order to detect I-Hg (inorganic mercury in blood) and T-Hg (total mercury in blood)⁴⁵. Inorganic mercury concentration is determined in the untreated sample by the reduction of inorganic mercury into elemental Hg. Total mercury is detected after the digestion and reduction of sample carried as atomic Hg. By subtraction, methyl mercury is estimated ($T\text{-Hg} - I\text{-Hg} = \text{CH}_3\text{Hg}$)⁴⁴. Other organomercurials “may or may not be measured”, including cysteine bound forms^{44 45 46}. In addition, by this method, any elemental mercury in the sample is either lost or included in the inorganic mercury estimation.

Many sources of variation exist in the measurement of inorganic mercury including temperature, storage time, and experimental error^{23, 43, 47, 48}. As storage time increases before measurement, so does sample variation around the mean⁴⁷. Previous studies clearly and consistently demonstrate that proper methods for mercury detection limit storage time to two or three days before sampling^{46 23, 47, 49}. Long periods of storage time before sampling is a common routine that increases the variance between measurements and underestimates the original mercury sample concentrations⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹. Inorganic mercury detection is particularly susceptible to sample loss over time^{23 46-49}.

Water soluble, I-Hg selective, spectroscopic sensors are a recent advance in the development of a practical assay for inorganic mercury detection⁵⁰. Sequestration of inorganic mercury by the metal binding domain (MBD) of bacteria is a recent and novel method for measurement, chelation, and elimination of mercury from samples⁵¹. With advances in Hg detection, the different speciations of mercury in blood may serve with increasing accuracy as bioindicators to assess chronic, organic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition.

3. Health Risks

The health risks posed by chronic mercury exposure are of particular concern because there are subtle neurobehavioral changes associated with low dose exposures. A prospective epidemiological study on a cohort of fish dependent Faroe island children followed from birth to age fourteen, found that chronic prenatal mercury exposure, as measured in cord blood, was associated with permanent deficits in motor, attention, and verbal tests⁵². In addition, maternal hair mercury levels at the time of birth were inversely associated with the eventual IQ of offspring⁵³. Health risks associated with the neurotoxic effects of methylmercury were studied in several large human populations subject to acute and severe, chronic exposure. In 1953, inorganic mercury in the effluent of a vinyl chloride factory was discharged into Minamata Bay, Japan. Contaminated fish and shellfish caused an epidemic of medical disorders, termed “Minamata Disease”, caused by the ingestion of methylmercury⁵⁴. The clinical features of chronic mercury exposure were numbness, speech impairment, deafness, impaired vision, tremor, mental confusion, involuntary movement disorders, rise in gamma globulin levels in cerebrospinal fluid, and incontinence of urine and feces⁵⁴. Upon autopsy, the pathology of chronic methylmercury exposure cases revealed conspicuous signs of neurodegeneration⁵⁴. The main targets for mercury deposition in acute and subacute cases were the liver, kidney and brain⁵⁴. The same neurological symptoms were observed in local bird and fish populations as well as in experimental studies on rats⁵⁴. Another methylmercury poisoning outbreak occurred in rural Iraq in 1971-2 due to the consumption of bread made with seeds that had been treated with organic mercury fungicides¹⁹. Scientific studies of this disaster confirmed there was a latent period between exposure and disease symptoms, wide variation in disease response between individuals, and symptoms including paresthesia, dysarthria, ataxia, visual impairments, and fatalities resulting from central nervous system failure¹⁹. In addition, these outbreaks demonstrated that prenatal methylmercury exposure, transferred from the mother’s body burden, produces subtle neurodevelopmental disability and effects later neurobehavioural performance^{20 19 52}.

Studies across many species provide conclusive evidence of chronic organic mercury exposure’s neurotoxic effects on developing organisms; to disrupt proliferation, migration, and differentiation of brain cells^{41, 55}. Chronic mercury exposure has been linked with several neurodegenerative diseases. A convincing hypothesis has been made that Autism is caused by mercury poisoning⁵⁶. In addition a hypothesis has been made that Alzheimer’s Disease, Parkinson’s Disease, and motoneurone disease are caused by environmental damage to specific regions of the central nervous system⁵⁷. The main pathologic features of acute, organic mercury exposure include degeneration and necrosis of neurons in focal areas of the cerebral cortex¹⁵. In severe mercury poisoning, as seen during the Minamata and Iraqi episodes, infants exposed in utero were born with severe mental retardation, seizure disorders, cerebral palsy, blindness, and deafness¹¹. Mercury vapor inhalation results in tremors, spasm, erethrism (excitability), loss of memory, depression, delirium and hallucination¹⁵. Hair mercury levels are associated with detectable alterations in performance tests of fine motor speed and dexterity, verbal learning, and memory in a dose dependent manner¹⁴. Chronic exposure to mercury vapor can also produce fatigue, anorexia, GI disturbances, muscle tremors and shaking²³. Chronic organic mercury exposure may produce glomerulonephritis in the anti-basement of the kidneys progressing to interstitial immune complex nephritis^{58, 59}.

Along with temporary symptoms that characterize “mad hatter’s” disease, permanent effects on the brain from mercury exposure are well documented. Yet, the risks of developing neurodegenerative disease in response to chronic mercury exposure are unknown. Associations between chronic mercury exposure and risks of neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer’s, Parkinson’s, Autism, and

Multiple Sclerosis are difficult to assess due to the fact that there is no standard method that quantifies chronic mercury exposure.

Alzheimer's Disease (AD)

"Disturbances at any level of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis or glucocorticoid action lead to an imbalance of this system and enhanced susceptibility to infection and inflammatory or autoimmune disease."

-The National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH), review article (Webster JI et al., 2002) ⁶⁰.

Etiology of Neurodegenerative Disease

Neurodegeneration is characterized by abnormal protein dynamics, oxidative stress, mitochondrial dysfunction, and a process of neuroinflammation ⁴². As this review will illustrate, chronic mercury exposure results in the targeted deposition of inorganic mercury that produces focal impairments in the brain, liver, kidney, adrenal, endocrine and immune systems. Chronic mercury exposure is associated with both the neurotoxic and immune response that classify neurodegenerative disease, particularly Alzheimer's Disease ^{11, 60-68}. Additionally, brain mercury concentration has been associated with all of the defining pathological and many genetic features of Alzheimer's Disease ^{42, 69}.

Epidemiology

Studies in multiple species, as required by rigorous toxicological standards, corroborate associations between mercury and neurodegeneration ^{20, 23, 70-73}. Repeated studies have ascertained that mercury is associated with physiological features of AD ^{49, 69, 73-76}. Studies have shown that metallothioneins specific for removing mercury from the brain are depleted in the AD brain ^{73, 75}. Mercury deposits are associated with increased amyloid aggregation ⁷⁵. In a clinical observational study, Alzheimer's Disease patients had twice the total blood mercury concentrations compared to controls, Hock C et al., 1998 ⁴⁹. This significant association increased to 3 times the total mercury in early onset AD patients versus controls. The mercury levels associated with disease were below levels known to cause acute neurotoxicity. These results suggest a role for chronic mercury exposure and long term, mercury body burden in disease occurrence.

Deposition

"The elevation of mercury in AD (Alzheimer's Disease patients') nbM (nucleus basalis of Meynert) as compared to age matched controls is the largest trace element imbalance observed to date in the Alzheimer's Disease brain."

- Thompson CM et al, 1988 ⁷⁶.

There is strong evidence that focal inorganic mercury deposits play a crucial role in organic mercury neurotoxicity and AD pathology ^{6, 66, 76}. Certain target organs act as a sink for mercury deposition and associated neurodegeneration. The liver, adrenal, and pituitary, trap and accumulate inorganic mercury despite the body's reaction to expel the foreign agent. As a result of mercury deposition and accumulation in the adrenal gland and pituitary gland, chronic exposure to mercury may lead directly to endocrine and immune system impairment.

“Pathological changes in the perforant pathway, by precluding normal hippocampal operation, account for some aspects of the memory impairment in Alzheimer’s disease,” Hyman BT, 1986 ⁷⁷.

The transport of mercury from blood into brain occurs along hormonal-immune complexes that involve the flow of cytokines, hormones, and neuropeptides. Mercury binds selectively to cell surface receptors of the endocrine-immune complex, the acetylcholine neurotransmission pathway that regulates the brain’s immune response to general infection. Circulating cytokines enter the brain by carrier-mediated transport mechanisms, and through areas with poorly developed blood brain barrier ⁷⁸. The circumventricular organs (CVO) include the pineal gland, the subfornical organ, the median eminence, the neural lobe of the pituitary, the area postrema, the subcommisural organ, and the organum vasculosum of the lamina terminalis. In CVO, the blood brain barrier is scarce and a probable route for entry of both cytokines and toxins ⁷⁸. Cytokines help recruit lymphocytes into the brain. They induce changes in endothelial cells via adhesion-signaling molecules, modulated to reduce adhesion and induce microglia to release more IL-1 cytokines in a positive feedback loop required for recruitment of lymphocytes into the central nervous system ⁷⁸. Specific binding to acetylcholine receptors may enable inorganic mercury to travel into the brain along this neuro-immunological pathway and result in targeted, focal deposition of mercury into AD associated brain regions ⁶⁸. Chronic deposition may accumulate and trigger an inflammation response leading to brain cell death ¹¹.

Synaptic Failure

Synaptic failure, associated neurofibrillary tangles (NT) and amyloid Beta deposition, in the cholinergic pathways of the diencephalon region of the brain are defining characteristics of Alzheimer’s Disease (AD) ^{65, 79}. A strong association between AD and synaptic failure may precede amyloid beta deposition in AD brain ^{42, 65}. Mercury is associated with accelerating amyloid fibril assembly ⁷¹. Amyloid beta increases the rate of synaptic failure ⁶⁵. Inorganic mercury hyperphosphorylation of tau protein and involvement in the production of beta amyloid has been substantiated ⁴⁹.

The molecular mechanism in neurodegenerative diseases characterized by neurofilament dysfunction is consistent with associated mercury deposition ^{69, 71, 76}. Alzheimer’s Disease specific neurodegeneration is characterized by neurofibrillary tangles ⁶³. Mercury has been shown to disrupt microtubule assembly ^{11, 17, 23}. As mercury binds to tubulin, it prompts disassembly of microtubules and results in the disruption of the neuronal cytoskeleton. Brain cells exposed to organic mercury respond with neurotransmission disruption, disruption of high affinity dopamine uptake, and cell-surface recognition disruption ¹⁵.

Mercury has been shown in mice to cause alterations in the structure and processing of the nucleolar protein fibrillarin giving rise to fibrillarin fragments. Fibrillarin acts as an autoantigen and modification by mercury precedes a T-cell dependent immune response driven by modified fibrillarin in mice. A mercury induced autoimmune response was induced both by an acute dose of mercury and by chronic exposure to a lower dose. Chronic administration of subtoxic doses of mercury induce systemic autoimmune disease in mice, rat and rabbits ⁸⁰⁻⁸². Metals are involved in the aggregation of alpha-synuclein plaques which are associated with the etiologies of both Alzheimer’s and Parkinson’s disease ⁷¹.

Acetylcholine

“The cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway is a neural pathway that utilizes A7 receptors to control cytokine synthesis.”

Gallowitsch-Puerta M et al., 2005⁶⁸.

The “cholinergic anti inflammatory pathway” includes alpha 7 (ACh7) acetylcholine receptors. Activation of ACh7 receptors prevents cytokine release and inflammation⁶⁸. Acetylcholine is the principal neurotransmitter of the vagus nerve (10th accessory nerve). Acetylcholine transmission is associated with a T-2, anti-inflammatory, immune response that inhibits cytokine release⁸³. Acetylcholine receptors expressed on lymphocytes and ACh secreting neurons of the parasympathetic nervous system suppress the acute inflammatory response, a function of the Vagus Nerve (10th accessory nerve)⁷⁸. Resuscitating the anti-inflammatory T-2 response and the acetylcholine pathway is currently a prescribed treatment for AD⁸⁴.

The structure of the A7 acetylcholine receptor is similar to the MerR (mercury chelating) receptors of certain bacteria. A highly conserved disulfide bridge in the N-terminal domain region consisting of 2 cysteine residues is available for mercury binding⁶⁸. In the brain, inorganic mercury inhibits ligand binding to acetylcholine receptors that are associated with impaired memory⁶⁷. Synaptic dysfunction of the cholinergic system is correlated with dementia⁶⁵. The greatest heavy metal imbalance in Alzheimer’s Disease patients is Mercury deposition located in the Nucleus Basalis of Meynert, a cholinergic pathway associated with memory and AD pathology⁷⁶.

Liver

The Vagus nerve connects the hypothalamus with the liver to suppresses cytokine release and inflammation response in the liver and kidney^{68, 83}. Impaired cholinergic pathways affect bile secretion, portal blood flow and liver regeneration⁸³. In addition, endocrine disruption may decrease biliary flow via the vagal nerve or hormonal interactions. Hormones released by the hypothalamus, pituitary, and adrenal glands modulate hepatic function⁸³. Mercury deposits in the liver and kidney are associated with necrosis. Cumulative liver damage and a reduced rate of bile excretion may lead to an increased rate of mercury absorption through enterohepatic circulation¹⁵. Thus, in an autocatalytic process, mercury exposure may lead to a rising rate of absorption, organ deposition, and disease risk.

Endocrine

“Endocrine abnormalities of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) system in patients with Alzheimer’s and Parkinson’s Disease have been described repeatedly,” Hartman, 1997⁸⁵.

Adrenal

Glucocorticoids are associated with the neurodegenerative disease multiple sclerosis, and are essential for normal immune function. Adrenal secretion produces a shift from a T-1 immune response (inflammatory) to a T-2 immune response (anti-inflammatory)⁷⁸. A balance between the T-1 immune response (inflammation) and the T-2 immune response (anti-inflammatory) characterizes a functioning immune system. An imbalance in the immune response may lead to a cycle of exposure, inflammation and disease⁵⁹.

The pituitary produces ACTH (adrenocorticotrophic hormone) that stimulates the adrenal gland to produce corticosteroid hormones, involved in inflammation and immune responses. Glucocorticoids released by the adrenal gland play a role in transcription activation of ACh7 receptors. Glucocorticoids released from the adrenal cortex have multiple effects on metabolism and also anti-inflammatory and

immunosuppressive effects⁷⁸. Lymphocytes and other cells of the immune system also express adrenoceptors.

In a study of the adrenal glands and chronic mercury exposure stress (100-200ug/7-180 days), Hg deposits were found primarily in the zona glomerulosa and elsewhere dependent on dose and method of injection or digestion⁸⁶. Necrotic cells were localized in cortical areas in both epinephric and norepinephric cells, in cortical lysosomes and in both the lysosomes and secretory granules of chromaffin cells. Thus, chronic mercury exposure may impair the adrenal, T-2, anti-inflammatory response, and promote an immune response shifting balance towards inflammation.

Pituitary

Associations between neurodegenerative disease and pituitary impairment may be explained by the targeted deposition of inorganic mercury in the pituitary^{6,74}. The effects of mercury accumulation in the pituitary and resultant endocrine disruption also provide a mechanism to explain the progression from chronic mercury exposure to neurodegenerative disease.

A study of infant monkeys exposed to ethyl and methyl mercury, by Burbacher et al., found that ethyl mercury left a higher proportion of inorganic mercury in the brain than methyl mercury (34% vs. 7%)⁸⁷. This is significant because inorganic mercury remained in the brain for longer than a year (540 days in this study) while the organic form had a half life of 34 days. An increase of microglia and decrease in astrocytes was associated with the persistent inorganic mercury in the brain, 6 months after exposure had ended.

In another clinical study on *Macaca Fascicularis* monkeys, mercury concentration in different brain sites was measured following subclinical, chronic organic mercury exposure⁶. The one test monkey that died from mercury exposure, presumably from liver disease (another target organ), recorded an unusually high percentage of inorganic mercury in its pituitary, 81% as compared to the mean of 17% for other brain areas. In fact, after clinical administration of chronic methyl mercury exposure, the brain site with the highest population mean concentration of inorganic mercury was the pituitary, 200 - 300% higher than other brain sites. The inorganic form of mercury was found to deposit in the brain for almost two years, whereas the organic form had a half life in the brain of only one month⁶. These results show that the pituitary acts as a sink for inorganic mercury deposits and accumulation. This is explained physiologically as the pituitary is the one area in the brain that has no blood brain barrier and is therefore prone to absorbing molecules from the adjacent, main arterial supply to the head. The tissue of the pituitary is heavily vascularized and contains a lot of fatty tissue. The other paraventricular organs around the 3rd ventricle are at similar risk of mercury deposition (amygdala, hippocampus, nucleus basalis of meynert).

The pituitary hormone prolactin induces the expression of IL-2 receptors (inflammatory cytokines) on the surface of lymphocytes and is associated with autoimmune disease⁸⁸. The pituitary produces TSH (thyroid stimulating hormone) to stimulate the thyroid gland. In the parafollicular cells of the thyroid gland, this triggers a release of calcitonin which in turn regulates Calcium (Ca⁺⁺) concentrations in the body. Impaired calcium homeostasis has been implicated in studies as a proximal pathological role in the neurodegeneration associated with Alzheimer's Disease⁸⁹. From repeated studies, it seems likely that chronic mercury exposure may lead to neurodegenerative disease through the selective disruption of the endocrine system.

Luteinizing Hormone (LH) is a gonadotropin secreted by the anterior pituitary that is involved in gonadotroph stimulation, mitogenesis, and immune regulation (for a review see,⁹⁰). Studies have demonstrated that Alzheimer's Disease patients have elevated serum and neuronal levels of LH as

compared to controls, and brain regions affected by AD show elevated expression of LH receptors (for a review see,⁹⁰). In cell cultures, LH stimulates amyloid beta production, a key element in oxidative stress leading to AD pathology. LH receptors are also found on immune cells where they are associated with neuroprotection and a role in the pro-inflammatory signaling process in the brain (for a review see,⁹¹). A disruption of the pituitary, such as one incurred by focal I-Hg deposition, may result in a cascade of events leading from oxidative stress to impaired neuroprotection, unbalanced neuro-immune response, inflammation, and neurodegenerative disease.

Immune Response

The brain can have widespread effects on the immune system⁶⁰. Interactions between endocrine outflow (CRH, ACTH) and the production of lymphocytes work in concert with direct hormonal binding to lymphocyte receptors. In addition, the CNS can affect the immune system through sympathetic innervation of lymphoid organs⁷⁸.

Inflammation, in the forms of reactive astrocytes and microglia, may play an important role in Alzheimer's Disease (AD) where it correlates with brain atrophy and severity⁹². In AD neurodegeneration, there is impaired calcium homeostasis and chronic inflammation⁴². The accumulation of Amyloid Beta is metal dependent and triggers microglia to produce activated cytokines and the inflammatory cascade^{72, 75}. Mercury exposure may create an immune imbalance by a twofold effect; initiation of a T-1 immune response (inflammatory reaction via amyloid beta) and suppression of a T-1 immune response (anti inflammatory response, acetylcholinergic receptors, adrenal gland). Thus focal, neurotoxic effects may trigger an autocatalytic cycle of exposure and inflammation proceeding to disease. Anti-inflammatory and anti cholinesterase drugs have been used to varying degrees in the treatment of AD and confirm the association of immune response, inflammation and AD neurodegeneration^{84, 93}.

The immune system is a main target for mercury deposition and toxic effect. Inorganic mercury (I-Hg) deposits are associated with neurotoxic and immune pathways implicated in neurodegeneration²⁰. There is ample evidence for immunogenetic susceptibility to mercury exposure^{20, 23, 82, 87}. A direct interaction between the immune system and mercury exposure leads to the suppression of white blood cell activation⁶⁶. Even at sub acute, chronic mercury exposure levels, in vitro experiments demonstrate the immunomodulatory effects of mercury exposure⁹⁴. An autoimmune reaction to mercury exposure and targeted deposition may underlie the mechanism from mercury exposure to disease.

Autocatalytic Origin of Disease

Alzheimer's and other neurodegenerative disease may be caused by an autocatalytic cycle wherein each exposure to mercury increases the rate and effect of future exposure. A functional endocrine reaction should induce the excretion of mercury from the body but an impaired endocrine-immune response may be ineffective to expel the body's mercury load. Chronic mercury exposure may further impair future mercury excretion through necrosis of the liver, disrupted biliary secretion, GI and GI flora disturbances, and necrosis of the kidney. Thus, mercury exposure may be a process involving increasing rates of absorption.

With both mercury neurotoxicity and AD, early life events impact future disease response. Early mercury exposure may determine the future rate and risk of disease. Indeed, in human life, early mercury exposure increases the risks of cognitive dysfunction and neurodegeneration associated with chronic exposure³⁶. Similarly, with AD, early life events impact the future risk of disease. Early life

verbal cognition is associated with the risk of later developing Alzheimer's disease⁹⁵. In the NUNN study, low linguistic ability in early life was a strong predictor of poor cognitive function, the risk of Alzheimer's Disease in later life (75-87 yrs), and more pathological neurofibrillary tangles in the hippocampus and neocortex⁹⁵. These results imply an early origin for AD disease risk. Similarly, early mercury exposure can affect neurodevelopment and impart permanent changes in brain function^{20, 52, 55}. Crucial early, developmental exposure may increase the risk of disease by increasing the rate of absorption and deposition. The risks of chronic mercury exposure may be determined by exposure history. Early exposure may determine an individual's toxic threshold and account for the wide population variance in mercury tolerance.

Conclusion

This literature review supports the hypothesis that chronic mercury exposure is closely associated with both the pathology, and clinical symptoms of AD. Evidence from this analysis confirms that mercury concentrations are associated with all of the defining characteristics of AD; Apo-E levels, the formation of neurofibrillary tangles, plaques in the brain, inflammation, and neurodegeneration. A causative mechanism for mercury exposure and deposition in the development of AD is proposed in this report and should be further investigated.

Mercury Exposure from Vaccines and the Development of Autism

Recently, the first clinical trial on autistic children showed an improvement of symptoms after treatment with mercury chelation⁵. This treatment was linked to low blood androgen levels in autistic children. Luteinizing Hormone is an androgen regulating hormone that is produced in the pituitary, a main target of mercury deposition.

Epidemiology

Although the global prevalence rate of autism appears to rise over time, the precise rate of change is difficult to characterize due to broadening diagnostic criteria^{96, 97}. It is now generally agreed that despite changing diagnostic criteria, the prevalence rate of Autism has undergone approximately a ten fold increase over the last 30 years^{98, 99}. A recent report by the CDC on the U.S. population estimates an annual rate of 3-6 Autism cases/ 1,000 children¹⁰⁰.

With a comprehensive review of symptoms, traits, biological signs, and population characteristics of Autism in comparison to those of mercury exposure, Bernard et al. propose a hypothesis that Autism is a “novel form of mercury poisoning”⁵⁶. The similarities between the two syndromes are too striking to ignore and too numerous to list here for the purpose of this study; but this excellent paper deserves attention. Based on a thorough correspondence of defining characteristics, this paper hypothesizes that the regressive form of autism is caused by mercury exposure. Are rising rates of global atmospheric mercury deposition, and chronic, organic mercury exposure, responsible for the global, rising rates of Autism?

To date, epidemiological studies of autism and ethyl mercury containing vaccines are inconsistent¹⁰¹. This review of published, scientific evidence suggests a complicated relationship between mercury exposure and the development of disease. The relationship between mercury exposure and autism may involve a subpopulation that possesses immunogenetic, metabolic, and environmental (biotransformation) susceptibility. If this is the case, epidemiological studies that find no link between autism and mercury exposure, may be explained by the existence of undefined, susceptible subpopulations. In addition, epidemiological studies that find a relationship between disease and exposure in the general population are in fact underestimating the true relationship between exposure and disease within the susceptible subpopulation.

Certainly there is known to be wide population variability in disease response to long term, chronic, and low dose mercury exposure^{11, 19}. Acrodynia, or Pink disease, was an idiosyncratic response from infant exposures to mercurous chloride in calomel, a teething powder. Indeed, a variable response to mercury exposure within populations is a defining characteristic of mercury exposure. If mercury exposure causes autism in seemingly random individuals with no clear dose exposure relationship, this idiosyncratic reaction may not be detected by epidemiological studies. If there is immunogenetic susceptibility for disease in subpopulations, then epidemiological studies would have to be designed with that in mind to investigate the specific cohort that is susceptible. There is evidence for immunogenetic susceptibility to mercury exposure^{80-82, 102} and autism^{103, 104} which will be discussed later in this review. Other sources of variation in disease response to mercury exposure include variable baseline levels of body burden and variable rates of excretion.

There is a limited ability for epidemiological studies to detect relative risk associations below 1.2. Because of the cumulative effect of many sources of mercury, only the sum of the exposures will measure the true relationship between exposure and disease and may have a detectable relative risk association above 1.2. Each individual exposures (thimerosal, dental amalgams, nutrition, air emissions,

human GI biotransformation) may only have a 1.2 or lower relative risk in the general population and therefore remain undetected in most epidemiological studies that investigate single exposures.

Ecological studies are effective at demonstrating a link between exposure and disease because they are able to look at large populations, thereby increasing the power of the study to investigate patterns of susceptible subpopulations. In a population assessment, Geir and Geir compared the incidence of autism in different birth cohorts with increasing vaccination rates¹⁰⁵. This ecological study found a statistically significant increase in the incidence of autism (odds ratio = 6.0) associated with thimerosal containing childhood vaccines versus thimerosal free vaccines. The linear relationship began at 1981, with 135 ug as the average dose of mercury per child and 38 cases/ 100,000 children with autism, and ended in 1996, with 246 ug as the average dose of mercury per child and 278 cases/100,000 children with autism. An ecological study of Texas found a similar, significant increase in autism rates associated with increases in environmentally released mercury (from emissions in to the air)¹⁰⁶. This study estimated that for every 1000lb of local mercury emissions, there was a 61% increase in the rate of autism. Oxidized forms of mercury released from point source plumes may deposit locally by the source and thereby influence geographic variability in risks of associated disease¹.

Bias

There is a problematic bias for scientists in researching the health effects of mercury exposure. Indeed, mercury is accepted by the health establishment (ADA, AMA) and widely used in medical practices (vaccine and dental amalgams). In 1999, concern was expressed concerning the safety of thimerosal containing vaccines by the American Academy of Pediatrics and the U.S. Public Health Service⁵⁹. Within 18 months, all the mercury preservative was removed from all vaccines destined for use in the U.S.. Yet, the World Health Organization (WHO) “continues to recommend the use of vaccines containing thiomersal for global immunization programs since the benefits of using such products far outweigh any theoretical risk of toxicity”¹⁰⁷.

Researchers studying mercury are frequently funded by pharmaceutical companies that profit from its sale and are liable if their product is linked to disease. The Lancet published a breach of their financial disclosure agreement by one scientist who failed to disclose a conflict of interest (“Mercury Vaccines and Potential Conflict of Interest” Lancet. Vol. 364. Oct2, 2004) with 12 unmentioned industry sponsorships and financial agreements. His study published in Lancet (2002) was the only published experimental design to measure mercury levels after vaccination in a clinical trial of infants¹⁰⁸. Bias exists throughout the experimental design of this study. Cases and controls were from different states, ensuring different background rates of mercury. The blood samples were taken 3-28 days after vaccination (a wide range) and stored frozen “until assessment”. Due to leeching of mercury into the plastic over time, final blood mercury levels would be lower than original values. This study was designed to find the lowest possible levels of blood mercury as previously published guidelines regarding the measurement of mercury insist on immediate sample measurement due to loss of mercury into the container (see “Measurement and Error”, p. 15). Despite these design flaws, the change in mercury concentration in infants blood was still dramatic, with a wide range of variability. In this study, controls were not given thimerosal and had no detectable levels of blood mercury. In infants receiving thimerosal at age 2 months, the levels rose to 4.5-20.55 nmol/L. And in infants 6 months of age, the levels rose to 2.85-6.90 nmol/L.

Toxic Dose of Ethyl Mercury

Thimerosal contains 49.6% mercury by weight and is metabolized to ethyl mercury (EtHg) and thiosalicylate²⁰. The vaccination dose of ethyl mercury ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{-Hg-S-C}_6\text{H}_4\text{-COOH}$) is 12.5-25 ug of mercury, intravenous, per dose. There is an additive effect in mercury blood levels with previous vaccinations¹⁰⁸. It was estimated that an infant undergoing the usual U.S. program of vaccines from birth to six months of age would receive more than the recommended dose of organic mercury (0.1 ug/kg/day)¹⁸.

Most children are subjected to a variable, chronic mercury exposure from other, background sources. Mother's mercury from dental amalgams and diet all pass to the developing fetus. Throughout infancy, the mother's mercury body burden is passed to the infant through breast feeding. Due to the entire program of vaccination, thimerosal in vaccines accounts for an average of 50% of the mercury exposure during infancy. In one study of thimerosal and mercury levels, prevaccination blood levels were 0.04-.5 ug Hg/L. Preterm infant levels rose to an average value of 7.4 ug Hg/L whereas the levels in term infants rose to 2.2 ug Hg/L¹⁸. Thus, vaccinations contribute to an immense and sharp rise in mercury exposure.

Ethyl mercury (the organic form of mercury found in vaccines, also called Thimerosal) is considered to be as toxic as methyl mercury (the organic form of mercury found in fish) but the exact mechanisms of toxicity may differ. The estimated half life of ethyl mercury is 7 days whereas the half life for methyl mercury is on the order of one to several months.^{11, 108} Ethyl mercury demethylates to inorganic mercury more readily than methylmercury^{21, 102, 108}. Ethylmercury causes more severe renal damage in rats than methylmercury and accumulate less in the brain²¹. The precise differences in human toxicology have not been properly studied and may differ from animal models considerably. Yet, the unproven assumption that Ethyl- and Methyl mercury are equivalent is the basis for Ethylmercury dosage, standards and regulation²¹. This assumption of equivalence between ethyl and methyl mercury has been challenged by a recent scientific study. In a study of infant monkeys exposed to ethyl and methyl mercury, Burbacher et al. found that ethyl mercury left a higher proportion of inorganic mercury in the brain than methyl mercury (34% vs. 7%)⁸⁷. This is significant as inorganic mercury remained in the brain for longer than a year (540 days in this study) while the organic form had a half life of 34 days. An increase of microglia and decrease in astrocytes was associated with the persistent inorganic mercury in the brain, 6 months after exposure had ended. This study concludes that " CH_3Hg is not a suitable reference for risk assessment from exposure to thimerosal derived Hg."

Autoimmune Response

There are three properties that are believed to be involved in an autoimmune response. 1. The antigen is an immunogenic peptide of the ACh receptor. 2. An antigen specific T-cell receptor is involved. 3. Class 2 molecules of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC 2) (¹⁰⁹, p.241) are involved. It is possible that mercury may act as the antigen that triggers an autoimmune response.

As discussed earlier, mercury has been shown in mice to cause alterations in the structure and processing of the nucleolar protein fibrillarin giving rise to fibrillarin fragments⁸². Fibrillarin acts as an autoantigen and modification by mercury precedes a T-cell dependent immune response driven by modified fibrillarin in mice⁸¹. This autoimmune response is characterized by a T cell dependent polyclonal B cell activation with increased serum levels of IgG1 and IgE antibodies (serum immunoglobulins), production of autoantibodies and the formation of IgG deposits in the kidney⁶⁶. The response is H-2 restricted, T cell dependent and differs for males and females. This mercury induced autoimmune response is induced both by an acute dose of mercury and by chronic exposure to a

lower dose. Chronic administration of subtoxic doses of mercury induce systemic autoimmune disease in mice, rat and rabbits ⁸⁰. In mice, chronic mercury exposure induced a delayed autoimmune response ⁸¹. A susceptible haplotype (of H-2 domains and other genetic regions) was a prerequisite for autoimmune induction by mercury.

MHC 1,2 genes regulate risk of mercury induced autoimmunity in mice ^{82, 102}. Mercury may bind to sulfur residues on aminoterminal domains of the alpha chain of MHC complex glycoproteins. Certain genetic variations of MHC 2 molecules may contain crucial sulfide residues, which undergo conformational change when bound to mercury, or double bound to Dimethyl mercury. It is possible that dimethyl mercury creates disulfide bonds between T-cell receptors and MHC 2 molecules to trigger an autoimmune response. An autoimmune response may lead to inflammation, cell death, and a process of neurodegeneration that progresses to the development of Autism.

Antithesis

In 2004, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) reviewed recent epidemiological studies and concluded that “the body of epidemiological evidence favors rejection of a causal relationship between thimerosal containing vaccines and thimerosal”¹¹⁰. After the IOM’s 1999 request for more evidence, several epidemiological studies were published with conclusions to suggest vaccines were not related to the childhood risk of autism.

Synthesis

In the same publication in which the FDA summarized the 2004 IOM report as finding “no link between vaccines and autism”, it also encouraged companies to comply with the systematic removal of thimerosal from U.S. vaccines¹⁰¹. In fact, as recently as 2007, the FDA announces that it “continues to work with...vaccine manufacturers to reduce or eliminate thimerosal from vaccines”¹¹¹. If thimerosal is not a health risk, they why remove it from vaccines?

In reaching the conclusion that there was no causal association between thimerosal containing vaccines and autism, the committee did not review studies by Geier et al. ¹⁰⁵ that did find associations between vaccines and disease, citing “serious methodological flaws” and “nontransparent” methods”. Yet, studies that the IOM did cite, review, and support, presented results with the same deficiencies and methodological flaws. A retrospective study of Danish children published in The New England Journal of Medicine concluded that there was “strong evidence against the hypothesis that MMR vaccination causes autism”¹¹². This study only analyzed associations of autism with one, thimerosal free vaccine (MMR) while neglecting to take into account or mention the possible effects of other thimerosal containing vaccinations and variability in background rates of mercury exposure. This study analyzed data from 1991-1998. In 1992, Denmark discontinued the use of thimerosal in its vaccines. The effect of this dramatic change in infant mercury exposure during the middle of the study period was not discussed or mentioned. This study design was unbalanced, with 5000 missing children due to death or emigration, and a population allegedly skewed to find fewer older, thimerosal exposed children than younger exposed children.

To prevent conflict of interest and bias, the 2004, IOM committee was made up of scientists with no financial ties to the vaccine manufacturers. Yet, the epidemiological studies they cite in reaching their conclusion were primarily funded by vaccine manufacturers and associated scientists. By their own logic, this implies that the studies may have suffered from bias and conflict of interest. The article in the New England Journal of Medicine was funded by the National Vaccine Program Office and National Immunization Program. The second author Dr. Hvid and colleagues had affiliations with the Statens

Serum Institute in Denmark, responsible for manufacturing vaccines for Denmark and countries around the globe, with annual revenues of \$120 million. This epidemiological study was designed to find no association by studying only one, thimerosal free vaccine, with no regard to ethyl-mercury containing vaccines, and other sources of mercury exposure.

Another interesting epidemiological study on the Danish registry compared Autism rates before and after 1992, the year thimerosal was phased out of vaccinations¹¹³. This ecological study found that Autism rates continued to increase after thimerosal was removed and implied non-causation. This study had flawed methodology as the population changed in the middle of the study period. In 1995, outpatients were included whereas only inpatients were contained in the study before 1995. By their own admission, this mid-study population change would “exaggerate the incidence rates” of Autism and thereby explain the observed rising trend. Of course there is another simple explanation to the observed trend. As the rate of atmospheric deposition increases, the rate of chronic mercury exposure and the background rates of mercury deposition within the human body may increase as well. Therefore, even if one source of exposure is decreased (thimerosal), the other increasing sources of a child’s exposure (diet, transference of mother’s exposure, air, water, dental amalgams) may result in overall rising incidence rates of associated diseases. In fact, the incidence rates of Autism only continued to rise until 1999. In 2000, rates began to decrease again. This suggests that removal of thimerosal from vaccines may have had a delayed effect in lowering Autism rates, perhaps obfuscated by confounding factors such as study design, broadening diagnostic criteria and disease awareness, and changing rates in other sources of mercury exposure. This study was performed by scientists affiliated with the Statens Serum Institute. Bias and conflict of interest may have exerted a strong influence on their interpretation of results and study design.

None of the epidemiological studies cited by the IOM attempted full mercury exposure assessment or even acknowledged the possible confounding effects of multiple sources of mercury exposure. Indeed, while companies are purportedly taking thimerosal out of some vaccines, some of the new influenza vaccines have 25 ug ethylmercury/dose. If each possible source of mercury exposure provides a partial risk, with an OR of 1.2 or less, then links with disease may not be detected when studied in isolation from other sources of exposure. In fact, epidemiological studies that did find associations between vaccination and Autism and were not included in the IOM review were the only studies to quantify multiple sources of exposure (vaccination regimen)¹⁰⁵. Thus, it could be argued that studies that did find an association between exposure and disease were the only ones that did not suffer from methodological flaws; studies by Geier et al. quantified multiple sources of exposure.

In another epidemiological study authored by an expert witness for the vaccine manufacturers, similar and admitted methodological flaws are again employed. One study that did look at multiple sources of ethyl-mercury exposure from thimerosal concluded there was no association between vaccines and Autism rates¹¹⁴. Yet, in this study, Dr. Fombonne employed flawed methods, flawed study design, and then misinterpreted his results. In another paper that he authored, Dr. Fombonne describes the very flaws he later employs. In his review of epidemiological studies, Fombonne concludes that Autism prevalence rates are hard to compare over time due to variance and error in estimation of rates, and due to changes in the definition of disease, and diagnostic criteria¹¹⁵. Yet, in a subsequent study Dr. Fombonne then studies the time trends in Autism prevalence within a population whose diagnostic criteria and exposures drastically change during the course of the study¹¹⁴. Further, acknowledged methodological problems include errors due to ecological estimations of prevalence and lack of individual data. In addition, the exposures of thimerosal and MMR vaccines were analyzed separately and not as a cumulative risk. He asserts that risk of autism from thimerosal and MMR are not related but as this thesis will show, any mercury exposure increases the risk of immune dysregulation such as an

imbalanced immune response to MMR vaccine. Fombonne concluded that the broadening of diagnostic criteria were responsible for the increase in prevalence of disease during the period of his study and not due to vaccines. Upon careful analysis, the syllogism that supports his conclusion is due to a profound misinterpretation of results. In his discussion, he reports that the classification of disease faced two events of broadening diagnostic criteria, in 1992 and 1994. Dr. Fombonne found no association between thimerosal or MMR vaccine and Autism prevalence because he took endpoints across three different populations of broadening diagnostic criteria. By his own assessment, this was a methodology flaw which prevents accurate time trend analysis¹¹⁵. In his own words, “unless comparisons also control rigorously for changing case definitions, interpretation of differences in prevalence rates over time and across surveys is virtually impossible”⁹⁶. Indeed, if you heed his advice, and analyze his study results separately, for each population of uniform diagnostic criteria, a strong, direct relationship between thimerosal exposure and Autism prevalence is evident. In years when diagnostic criteria did not change, a clear relationship between thimerosal burden and Autism prevalence is evident (Fig. 2). Thimerosal levels rose sharply between 1992 and 1994, diagnostic criteria did not change, and the rate of Autism prevalence rose as well. When thimerosal load rose in 1990, the prevalence of Autism rose as well. Thus, with the proper methodology, one that Dr. Fombonne recommends and yet he does not adopt, the opposite conclusions are drawn from his misinterpretation and an association between thimerosal load and Autism prevalence is evident. By his own assessment, his study, and similar epidemiological studies reviewed by the IOM that found now association between vaccines and Autism were fundamentally flawed in design and methodology due to changing diagnostic criteria.

The IOM had mixed opinions about thimerosal. Although the IOM concluded that epidemiological evidence does not suggest causality, they admit that toxicological data may support a biological mechanism of causation, that there may be a genetically susceptible subpopulation to mercury exposure, and that there is evidence of immune dysregulation in the serum of autistic patients¹¹⁰. If there exists a genetically susceptible subpopulation to exposure, no epidemiological study would be expected to detect an association between exposure and disease unless the study was designed with that subpopulation in mind.

Risk and Susceptible Subpopulations

Autism is a pervasive neurodevelopmental disorder with symptoms apparent usually during the first three years of life¹⁰³. Autism is a rare disease that affects roughly 0.04% of children (1/2,500). Bernard et al. claim that autism is a “novel form of mercury poisoning”, that may occur in a subpopulation of infants with genetic susceptibility^{29, 56}. From a genetic screen in a human population, it is purported that susceptibility to Autism has a multi-locus etiology¹⁰⁴.

In the adult brain, CH₃Hg damage is focal, yet in the developing brain, the damage is more diffuse²⁰. In utero mercury exposure may disrupt microtubule assembly and impair cellular migration during brain development. This is consistent with the findings that abnormal regulation of brain growth in autism results in unusual brain growth patterns¹¹⁶.

There is evidence of immunogenetic susceptibility to autoimmune disorders among patients with autism^{104, 117}. A study from Johns Hopkins concluded that there is familial clustering of autoimmune disorders associated with autistic patients¹¹⁸. This study concludes that an “increased number of autoimmune disorders suggests that in some families with autism, immune dysfunction could interact with various environmental factors to play a role in autism pathogenesis”. More evidence to suggest that autism is linked to genetic susceptibility is that boys are more susceptible to autism than

girls (4-5 times). This may be related to the fact that Y chromosomes are completely lacking in immune genes¹¹⁹.

In studies on genetically susceptible strains of rodents, subtoxic organic mercury exposure results in systemic autoimmunity and enhanced allergic inflammation¹²⁰. Thimerosal has been shown to affect the immune system by interfering with cytokine secretion by human dendritic cells¹²¹. The mechanism underlying this process is not well understood but it may be linked to glutathione depletion (GSH)¹²¹. The autoimmunogen effect of ethylmercury (Thimerosal) is thought to be caused by the inorganic mercury (I-Hg) formed in the body¹²⁰. Because of an autoimmune response present in both mercury exposure and Autism, the possibility of a genetic subpopulation that is most susceptible to autoimmune disease in response to exposure is biologically plausible. The major histocompatibility complex, on the short arm of chromosome 6, comprises a number of genes that control the function and regulation of the immune system. One of these genes, the CB4 gene, encodes a product that is involved in eliminating pathogens, viruses and bacteria, from the body. Two studies have confirmed the findings of an increased frequency of the CB4 null allele in autism^{117, 122}. A specific link between autism and MHC has been made in other studies where “an association of autism with the major histocompatibility complex has been reported with an increased frequency of the extended haplotype B44-SC30-DR4 in autistic subjects, their mothers, or both (40%) as compared to controls (2%)¹⁰⁴. MHC genes exhibit “extremely high” levels of polymorphisms “relating to its role in presenting antigens”¹¹⁹. This high rate of polymorphism may be related to a variable disease response to mercury exposure within populations.

The defining characteristics of a high risk subpopulation may not rely entirely on genetic predisposition. A susceptible subpopulation may be defined by having an elevated baseline of chronic mercury exposure. Higher levels of baseline chronic mercury exposure may reduce the toxic dose to achieve threshold and neurotoxic effect. Another high risk subpopulation may be defined by liver function, GI motility, GI flora populations and the overall rate of methylmercury excretion. Subpopulations with impaired excretion of methylmercury will suffer from body burdens with longer half-lives, and a resultant increased proportion of demethylation and deposition. Variability among populations with regards to genetic response, baseline exposure levels, and rate of excretion may all contribute to define subpopulations that are high risk to exposure and disease response. Exposure and mercury deposition may be hereditary in that previous exposure is passed down from mother to child during gestation and milking. Geographic clustering and variability may also play a factor in exposure as atmospheric deposition is related to both local plume sources, and global wind patterns.

Conclusions

To date, due to poor methodology and flawed design, epidemiology studies of Autism and mercury exposure are inconclusive and err by misinterpretation. By the authors' own admissions, there are many factors that are unaccounted for: changing diagnostic criteria, variance in estimates of Autism prevalence rates, multiple sources of exposure, an undefined, susceptible subpopulation, and a rising time trend in baseline, chronic mercury exposure. Due to the significant limitations of such studies, the IOM has no evidence to refute the theory that ethyl-mercury (thimerosal) containing vaccines elevate the rate and risk of autism. In fact, in results from the Fombonne study (Fig. 2) during a time period with unchanging diagnostic criteria (1992-1994), there is evidence to prove a direct, causal relationship between cumulative thimerosal load and prevalence rate of Autism¹¹⁴.

In the 2004 report, the IOM offers recommendations that included “increased efforts to quantify the level of prenatal and postnatal exposure to thimerosal and other forms of mercury in infants, children, and pregnant women”¹¹⁰. The proper assessment of mercury exposure and risk of disease requires quantifying background, chronic exposure, rate of deposition, and acute exposure from the

cumulative dosage of multiple vaccines. This thesis hopes to define susceptible subpopulations by presenting and testing a method for the assessment of chronic mercury exposure. A method for the assessment of chronic mercury exposure may help define background levels of exposure, rates of inorganic mercury deposition, and define subpopulations most susceptible to mercury exposure.

4. Method for Assessment of Chronic Mercury Exposure

For human populations, the vast majority of chronic mercury exposure is presumed to be organic mercury from ingested food ¹¹. Consumption of contaminated fish is considered the major source of human exposure to organic, methyl mercury (CH₃Hg) in the United States ⁸. Demethylation of Methyl Mercury to water soluble, mercuric ions (Hg⁺⁺) is a necessary step for excretion from the gastrointestinal tract (GI) and kidney ¹⁹. Under normal conditions, the GI tract excretes the vast majority of ingested organic mercury (95%). In human tissue and organs, this demethylation process, crucial to excretion, also results in the accumulation of inorganic mercury. In the brain, inorganic mercury deposits play an important role in mercury neurotoxicity⁶. While organic mercury has a half life in the brain of approximately one month, inorganic mercury deposits have a half life on the order of years^{6, 22}. Animal studies on monkeys reveal that methylmercury is demethylated into inorganic mercury in the brain and other tissues upon long term, chronic exposure ¹²³. As a result of inorganic mercury deposition, the percentage of inorganic mercury relative to total mercury concentration in the brain increases after long term exposure to organic mercury ⁶. Because of tissue demethylation of CH₃Hg and resultant I-Hg deposition in the brain, Rice et al. recommend that “health effects of methylmercury should focus on long-term exposure” ¹²³.

In a population of microbial samples, Schaefer et al. found a strong log linear relationship between the proportion of organic mercury and total mercury levels ¹²⁴. These results describe a controlled, metabolic response to mercury exposure that maintains specific proportions of inorganic mercury and organic mercury at different levels of total mercury. The Schaefer study contends that this data represents a highly conserved and tightly controlled enzymatic response to mercury exposure that biotransforms mercury into a readily eliminated form. Studies on animals and humans have demonstrated that in the brain and tissue, organic mercury is slowly demethylated into inorganic mercury (for a review see, ¹²⁵). As methylmercury is eliminated more slowly from the brain than inorganic mercury, the result of chronic mercury exposure is a shift in the conserved relationship between inorganic mercury and methylmercury in the brain towards a higher percentage of inorganic mercury ^{6 125}.

Hypothesis

1. Assessment of chronic mercury exposure is best characterized by both recent exposure and longer term exposure. Demethylation of methylmercury into I-Hg and resultant deposition of I-Hg in brain and tissue suggests that I-Hg may serve as a bioindicator for long term, chronic methyl mercury exposure. If this hypothesis is correct, longer exposure groups will have greater I-Hg deposition and display a greater percentage of I-Hg relative to T-Hg (total mercury = CH₃Hg + I-Hg). Therefore, different chronic mercury exposure groups may be distinguished and characterized by comparing I-Hg and CH₃Hg.

This study applied statistical analysis to a data set of brain mercury levels from a toxicological trial of organic mercury exposure in monkeys ^{6, 22}. In this study, groups of five *M. fascicularis* (7-14 years of age, 2.4-6 kg) were given daily doses of methyl mercury in apple juice for 6, 12, and 18 months. The daily dose of CH₃Hg was 50 ug/kg body weight. One group of monkeys was administered CH₃Hg for 12 months, after which the group was unexposed for 6 months (in our analysis this group is labeled 12.6). One group was not administered mercury and served only as controls (group labeled 0).

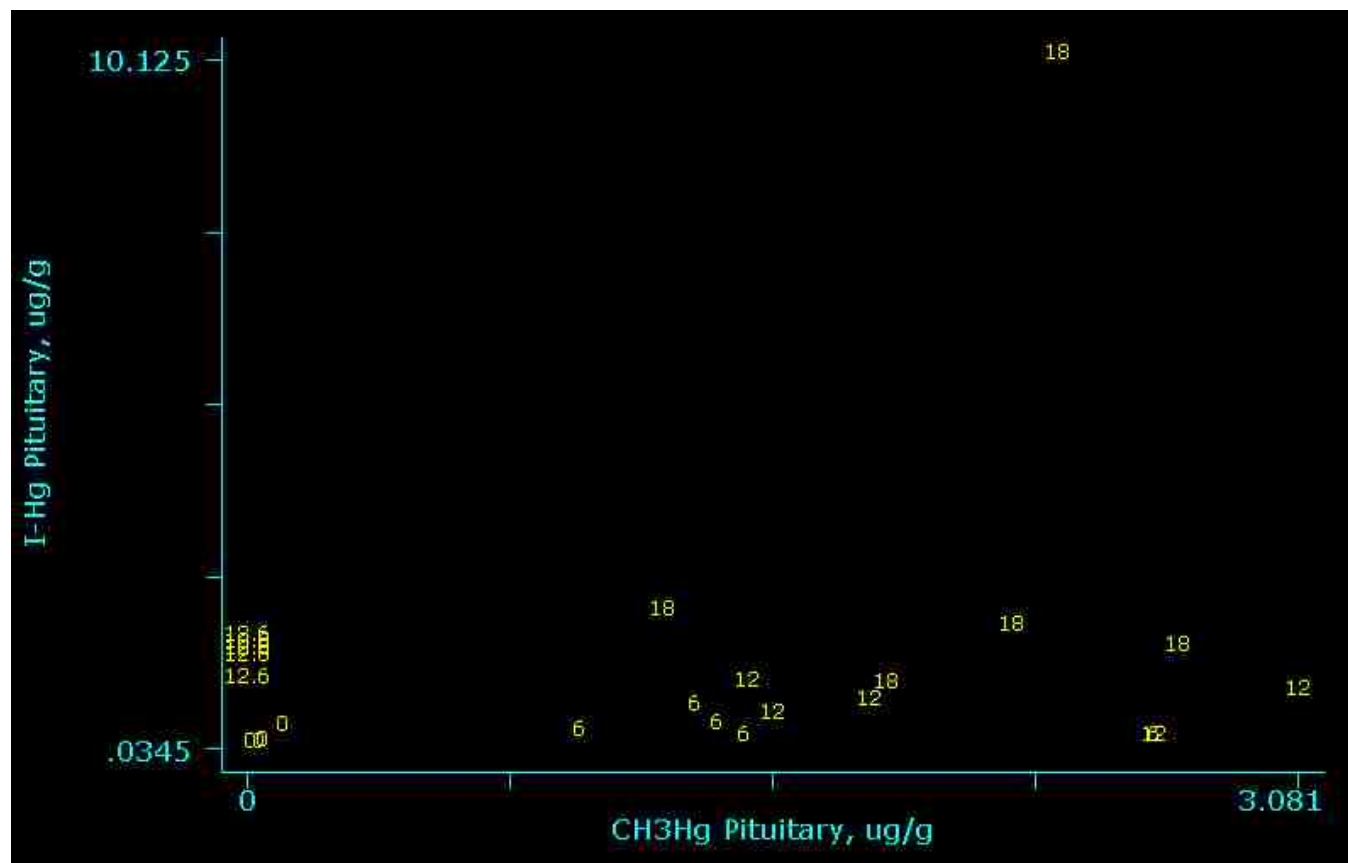
Brain samples from different brain regions were analyzed for total, inorganic, and organic mercury forms. After clinical administration of chronic methyl mercury exposure, the brain site with the highest percentage of mercury found in the inorganic form was the pituitary; 200 - 300% higher than other brain sites²². We estimated the mean value of whole brain concentrations. To look at the relationship between exposure, I-Hg, and methylmercury we illustrated the exposure groups with a linear regression comparing I-Hg to CH₃Hg with both the mean values of whole brain and for pituitary levels in particular. We also compared boxplots of mean values for I-Hg and CH₃Hg of the different exposure groups.

Results

From the graph of observed points (Figure 4.0 and 4.01), the process of deposition is illustrated. The graph can be divided into four quadrants. On the top, far right quadrant (high I-Hg and high CH₃Hg) are the observed points with the highest I-Hg deposition and methyl mercury exposure. On the bottom, far right (high CH₃Hg, low I-Hg) are the observed points with recent methylmercury exposure but low I-Hg deposition. On the left top (High I-Hg, low CH₃Hg) are the observed points with high deposition of I-Hg but little recent exposure. On the bottom left (low levels for both) are the observed points with little or no exposure or deposition. Thus, in the regression of I-Hg and CH₃Hg is a depiction of both recent exposure (CH₃Hg) and deposition (I-Hg), and a method to distinguish between different exposure groups. Rising inorganic mercury concentrations distinguish rising exposure groups and can differentiate between the low exposure group (6 months) and the high exposure group (18 months). Organic mercury levels differentiate time since exposure as illustrated by the differences in methylmercury concentrations between 12 month exposure and 12 months exposure followed by 6 months rest (group 12.6). After 6 months rest, organic mercury is eliminated and only inorganic mercury, from the demethylation process remains. From figure 4.01, we can see that methylmercury levels do not distinguish between exposure groups as 6 months exposure reaches a higher level of CH₃Hg than 18 months exposure. From figure 4 and 4.01, it is evident that CH₃Hg levels reach a peak value and then slowly demethylates into I-Hg over time. In fact, I-Hg levels are the best bioindicator of chronic mercury exposure. CH₃Hg serves as a bioindicator for time since exposure (compare groups 12 and 12.6) but can not distinguish between different chronic exposure groups with equivalent time since exposure (groups 6, 12, 18). This is due to the fact that blood methylmercury concentrations reach a steady state concentration with chronic mercury exposure. As the rate of elimination of methylmercury is more rapid than that of I-Hg deposits, I-Hg levels represent a more reliable assessment of chronic mercury exposure and effect.

The outlier monkey in the highest exposure group (18 months) with the highest and most extreme levels of I-Hg deposition was diagnosed with liver disease and died. This unique fatality recorded an unusually high percentage of inorganic mercury in its pituitary, 81% as compared to the mean of 17% for other brain areas⁶. After 18 months exposure, the pituitary had an overall 100% higher mean inorganic percentage than the overall brain mean percentage, yet total mercury remained equivalent to the mean value for whole brain. The inorganic form of mercury was found to deposit in the brain for almost two years, whereas the organic form had a half life in the brain of only one month. Thus the amount and percentage of inorganic mercury is a measure of mercury deposition and neurotoxic effect. An explanation for the death of this monkey may be that the liver damage caused poor excretion of organic mercury. A longer organic mercury half life may have resulted in more demethylation and deposition of inorganic mercury. Thus, what seems to be an idiosyncratic response, the death of one monkey among five, may be the result of impaired excretion, increased deposition, and the neurotoxic effects of inorganic mercury deposits. From these results, it seems that inorganic mercury levels may be

Figure 4: Relationship between Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg) and Methylmercury (CH₃Hg) in Macaque Monkey Pituitary samples following Chronic Mercury Exposure. Chronic exposure groups are labeled, 0 months, 6 months, 12 months, 18 months and 12 months exposure followed by 6 months rest (labeled group 12.6).



(Data points taken from Vahter et al. Reference⁶)

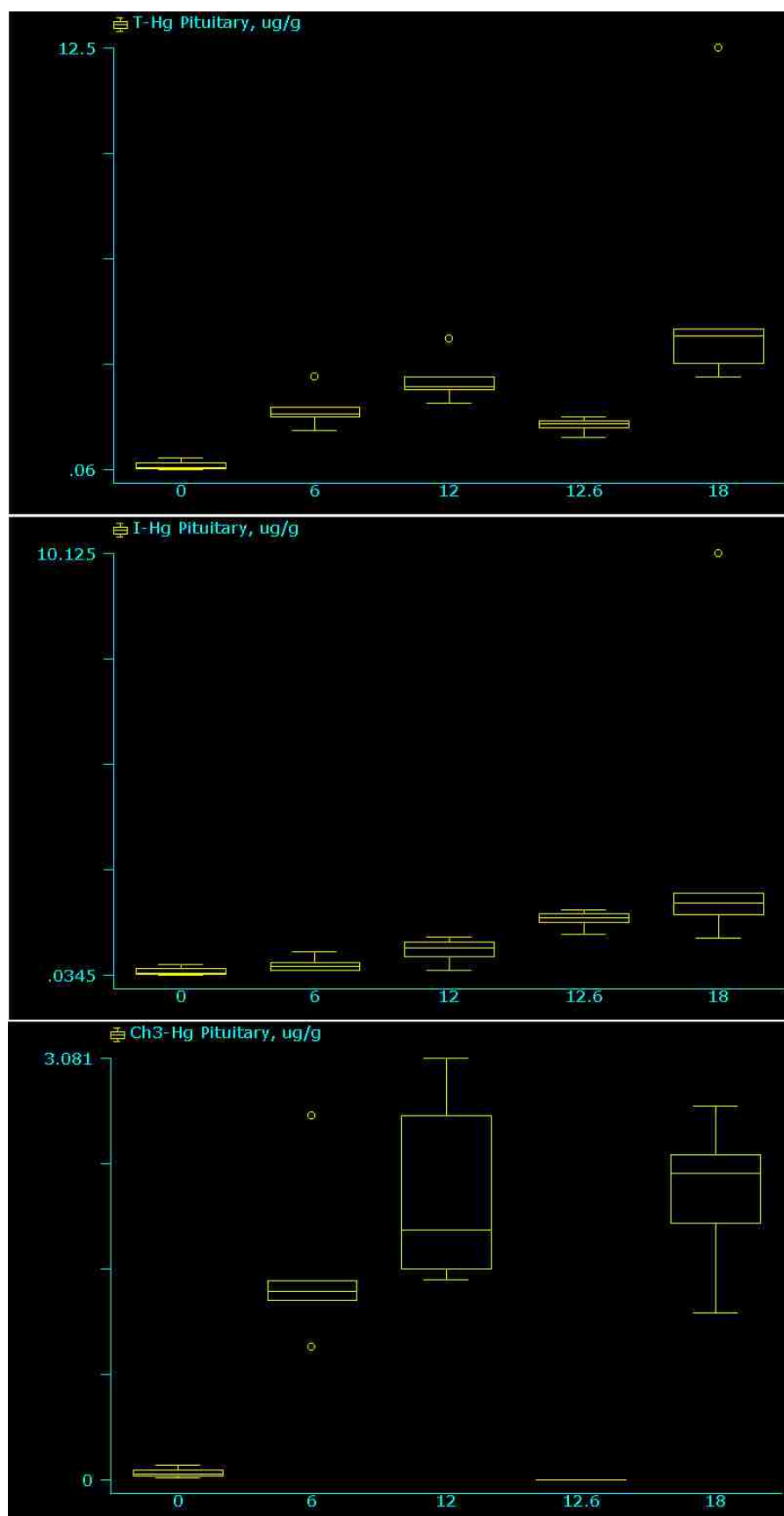


Figure 4.1: Boxplots of mercury forms by exposure (months) in Pituitary from brain data clinical trials on macaque monkeys. Group 12.6 indicates 12 months exposure followed by 6 months no exposure.

(A) Total Mercury. T-Hg increases with exposure and decreases partially after 6 months rest.

(B) Inorganic Mercury. I-Hg increases with exposure and accumulates in the pituitary even after 6 months rest. The increase in I-Hg after 6 months rest relative to 12 months exposure indicates impaired excretion of CH₃Hg and demethylation into I-Hg.

(C) Methyl Mercury (CH₃Hg). CH₃Hg reaches a maximum at 12 months and disappears with 6 months rest. After 12 months exposure, demethylation of CH₃Hg to I-Hg must account for the rise in I-Hg during the 6 months rest.

a more significant indicator of chronic mercury exposure and risk of disease, than methylmercury levels. Inorganic mercury levels can differentiate levels of exposure and even detect chronic exposures after 6 months of no exposure (group 12.6). In contrast, methylmercury levels are less definitive in separating different exposure groups and are unable to detect past exposures (group 12.6 has no methyl mercury). Careful analysis of the different brain regions clearly demonstrates that the pituitary is the main target site for inorganic mercury deposition⁶. After 12 months exposure with 6 months rest (group 12.6) the mean inorganic mercury level in the pituitary is higher than immediately after 12 months exposure (Figure 4.1B). These results describe a demethylation reaction with the fact that organic mercury levels disappear after exposure has ended for 6 months (in the 12.6 group). Although some organic mercury is excreted, Figures 4.1B and 4.1C present evidence that CH₃Hg is also demethylated into I-Hg deposits in the pituitary. These inorganic mercury deposits accrue and persist for many months if not years after exposure has ended. This analysis provides evidence that inorganic mercury levels may best represent chronic, organic mercury exposure while methylmercury represents recent exposure; but only taken together, can one distinguish between all of the different exposure groups.

Discussion

To study the effects of chronic mercury exposure, scientists must be able to identify different exposure populations. It is evident that both I-Hg and CH₃-Hg in brain must be analyzed in order to distinguish different exposure groups with different times since exposure, as one would expect in a typical diagnostic test. The question arises, is inorganic mercury an important bioindicator for chronic exposure in blood? In blood tests on these animals, the concentration of I-Hg in blood “increased in a fashion comparable to that of methylmercury”²². Yet, unlike in the brain, inorganic mercury in blood does not deposit with a longer half life than the organic forms. With the one trial monkey that died, blood organic mercury concentrations reached a steady state at 12 months while blood inorganic mercury concentrations continued to rise during the entire trial period²². In contrast to all the other animals, where I-Hg in blood remained a fraction of the total mercury, in the one monkey that died, I-Hg levels rose to a level beyond organic mercury. Thus, inorganic mercury in blood was the best bioindicator of disease response and mercury poisoning.

These results show that the pituitary acts as a sink for inorganic mercury deposits and accumulation. This is explained physiologically as the pituitary is the one area in the brain that has no blood brain barrier and is therefore prone to absorbing molecules from the adjacent, main arterial supply to the head. The tissue of the pituitary is heavily vascularized and contains a lot of fatty tissue, making it difficult for water soluble mercuric ions (I-Hg) to be eliminated. Dose response relationship analysis of methyl mercury poisoning cases reveals a toxic threshold in blood mercury levels that triggers disease response in acute exposure¹⁹. As local concentrations of inorganic mercury rise in the pituitary from chronic exposure, the risks of reaching a toxic threshold rise as well. The effects of I-Hg accumulation in the pituitary and resultant endocrine disruption provide a mechanism to explain the progression from chronic mercury exposure to neurodegenerative disease.

Previous experiments have shown that the macaque neuropathology data in response to mercury exposure corresponds highly with that of human (for a review see,⁵⁵). Therefore the applicability of these results from monkey to human seems to be a fair assumption. A shorter half life of mercury in blood of monkeys than in humans would indicate that for humans facing equivalent exposures, blood levels would be higher¹²⁶.

If we assume that blood I-Hg in humans comes primarily from the demethylation of organic mercury, then a blood test for I-Hg may be the best practical method for assessment of chronic methyl

mercury exposure. This assumption that CH_3Hg is the prime source of I-Hg is plausible as methylmercury from the consumption of fish is overwhelmingly the largest source of chronic mercury exposure.

Conclusion

Data are sufficient to conclude that both I-Hg and organic mercury concentrations are associated with chronic, organic mercury exposure. Results from this analysis illustrate that chronic exposure and mercury deposition are associated with changes in the proportion of inorganic mercury to methyl mercury. In the pituitary, levels of total, organic or inorganic mercury were insufficient by themselves to distinguish between all the exposure groups. Only by looking at both inorganic mercury and organic mercury levels in brain tissue, can one best characterize the exposure groups in terms of both the level and time course of chronic methyl mercury exposure and deposition. In blood, while inorganic mercury is a reliable sign of chronic exposure, it is unable to distinguish between different exposure groups. Yet, in the one test animal that died, blood inorganic mercury was the best bioindicator of deposition and the risk of disease response. Therefore it is recommended that in any method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure that uses blood levels, blood inorganic mercury (I-Hg) should be used as the primary bioindicator. Blood methylmercury levels should be used to confirm and in order to characterize the time since exposure. The regression of I-Hg to CH_3Hg may be the most effective method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure as it can distinguish between different chronic exposure group, determine time since exposure, and illustrate the rate of I-Hg deposition. I-Hg may best determine susceptibility to future exposures. By lowering the amounts of future exposures needed to reach the critical threshold concentration for toxic effect, I-Hg deposits may explain the focal neurotoxicity typical of mercury poisoning in adults. Each I-Hg deposit may act as a critical area where the reservoir of I-Hg deposited requires only subtoxic, or chronic future doses to reach the toxic threshold and lead towards a disease response.

5. Mercury and the Biochemical Profile

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess chronic, organic mercury exposure within the general U.S. population. To assess links with neurodegenerative disease, this study looked at associations between chronic, organic mercury exposure and main targets of inorganic mercury deposition and effect within the human body: the pituitary, immune system, and liver. From a review of toxicological evidence, blood I-Hg detection and blood CH₃Hg concentration were determined to be the appropriate bioindicators of chronic, organic mercury exposure. This epidemiological study analyzed data from the NHANES (1999-2000 and 2001-2002) surveys to evaluate relationships between chronic, organic mercury exposure and main target sites of inorganic mercury deposition and effect. In a cross sectional analysis, the biochemical profile markers luteinizing hormone (pituitary), white blood cell count (immune system), and bilirubin (liver), were all significantly associated with both blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg levels in the general U.S. population, specifically within the subpopulation of women ages 30-39 years. These results demonstrate a significant relationship between chronic, organic mercury exposure and biochemical changes related to the main targets of inorganic mercury deposition and effect. These associations provide links between exposure and the biological mechanism leading to neurodegenerative disease. Associations with the immune system (white blood cell) and pituitary (luteinizing hormone) establish links with Autism and Alzheimer's Disease. Associations with the liver (bilirubin) reiterate concern that mercury deposition may increase enterohepatic circulation, raise the absorption rate of mercury, and thereby elevate susceptibility to future exposure such as from vaccines containing ethyl mercury. The reported, direct association between I-Hg deposition and chronic organic mercury exposure suggests that the demethylation of organic mercury within the body is a contributing source of I-Hg deposition. This study reported a significant difference in the proportion of I-Hg detection between the two survey populations: 3% I-Hg detection in 1999-2000, and 6% I-Hg detection in 2001-2002. Whether this change in I-Hg detection was due to geographical differences in exposure, measurement error, or to a time dependent rise in the rate of chronic mercury exposure is unclear. While results from this study do not verify a time dependent increase in chronic mercury exposure and deposition, they do support this possibility. A rise in mercury deposition within the U.S. population may elevate susceptibility to further exposure and forecast a rise in the population risks of associated neurodegenerative diseases. Continued monitoring of these biomarkers in the NHANES population is necessary for full assessment of chronic mercury exposure and associated risks of neurodegenerative disease within the U.S. population.

Hypothesis

1. Previous studies suggest that chronic, organic mercury exposure is best characterized by elevated blood concentrations of both blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg. Therefore, both these bioindicators for chronic, organic mercury exposure and I-Hg deposition may be associated with the biochemical profile markers for main targets of mercury deposition and effect within the human population: the pituitary (luteinizing hormone), liver (bilirubin), and immune system (white blood cell count). The null hypothesis is that bioindicators for chronic, organic mercury exposure (blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg) are not associated with biochemical profile markers for main targets of inorganic mercury deposition and effect within the NHANES survey population. The alternative hypothesis is that chronic, organic mercury exposure is associated with main targets of deposition and effect.
2. As the rate of global mercury deposition is rising over time, the risks of chronic mercury exposure, deposition, and associated public health risks within the general U.S. population may be rising over time as well. The null hypothesis is that bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure and I-Hg deposition are not rising over time. The alternative hypothesis is that bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure and deposition are rising in a time dependent manner.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to assess chronic mercury exposure within the general U.S. population using data from NHANES, 1999-2002. To analyze links with neurodegenerative disease this study quantified associations between chronic mercury exposure and the targets of mercury deposition and effect within the human body: the pituitary, immune system, and liver. In addition, this study investigated changes in the rate of I-Hg deposition to determine time trends of chronic mercury exposure and population averaged risks of associated neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's and Autism.

Model and Methods

This study analyzed the NHANES, national survey 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 data sets after converting SAS files to STATA format, and using STATA software to perform the analysis. The NHANES data set for blood mercury levels contained a sample of American Women, ages 16-49 years. This population was chosen due to the availability of data, as no men were tested for mercury levels and children were excluded to focus on an adult population. Three biochemical profile markers were chosen to represent main targets for mercury deposition and effect: bilirubin (liver) (for review see thesis sections "Distribution" (p.11), "Deposition" (p.17), "Liver" (p.19)), luteinizing hormone (LH) (pituitary) (see thesis section "Pituitary" (p.20)), and white blood cell count (immune system) (see thesis section "Immune Response" (p.21)). Blood inorganic and organic mercury as well as urine mercury were compared with these selected biochemical profile markers. As total mercury (T-Hg) and inorganic mercury (I-Hg) were measured, blood organic mercury was estimated by the simple formula $T-Hg - I-Hg = CH_3Hg$ (see "Measurement and Error" section, p. 14). Data were analyzed as a raw population for internal validity and again as a survey weighted population for external validity.

The NHANES target population is the civilian, non-institutionalized U.S. population. NHANES 1999-2000 includes over-sampling of low-income persons, African Americans, and Mexican Americans. In addition to analyzing the NHANES population as a raw population of individuals, this study employed recommended survey analysis to reflect the complex survey design and sample

weighting methodology of the NHANES datasets (as described in the Analytic and Reporting Guidelines, Sept., 2006 version, and the NHANES Public Data Release File Documentation). In this study, only associations that were significant in the raw population were re-analyzed as a survey population. Survey weighted population analysis lends external validity to results in terms of reflecting Women, Ages 16-49 in the U.S. population.

The NHANES is a continuous survey beginning in 1999 and data are released in two year increments. This study looked at two of these increments, 1999-2000 and 2001-2002. There were no reported changes in the methodology for measuring mercury detection or biochemical profiles between these two survey groups. However, I-Hg (NHANES code: lbxihg) values below the limit of detection (0.4 ug/L) were assigned estimate values that dropped from 1999-2000 (0.3 ug/L = assigned estimate for values below LOD) and 2001-2002 (0.28 ug/L = assigned estimate for values below LOD). This unexplained change in estimates may have artificially stabilized the Mean I-Hg blood concentration between survey groups; pulling down the 2001-2, mean I-Hg concentration to the same value as 1999-2000 survey group.

Due to the complex survey design and sampling methodology, each measurement has its own weighting, primary sampling unit (PSU), and stratum. The sampling weights are used to produce unbiased national estimates and reflect the unequal probabilities of selection, non-response adjustments, and adjustments to independent population controls. The PSU's generally represent single counties in America although some small counties are combined.

The appropriate weight variable for our analysis in the combined years 1999-2002 is WTMEC4YR, in the NHANES dataset. The stratum variable is SDMVSTRA and the PSU variable is SDMVPSU. The PSU and stratum help estimate variances that would have been estimated using the true design structure. To estimate sampling error, a Taylor series linearization method was employed. In STATA the 1999-2002 NHANES data set is processed by:

```
svyset[pw=wtmec4yr], psu(sdmvpsu) strata(sdmvstra).
```

The stated purposes of the NHANES survey include estimating the percent of persons in the U.S. population that possess certain risk factors for disease. As the NHANES survey is a continuous survey, it is difficult to determine if differences between NHANES survey populations are due to geographical variance, variance in methodology, or actual time dependent changes over the survey years.

Associations reported in this study are rigorous and persistent in raw, adjusted, and survey populations and in both naïve and robust models. The data were adjusted for potential confounders such as age and race. Associations were considered significant if p values were less than or equal to 0.05.

Approximately 95% of this population had undetectable levels of inorganic mercury (below the limit of detection , 0.4ug/L (LOD)). Due to indeterminate storage times for up to a year, the measurement of inorganic mercury was subject to great measurement error and variance. 95% of the population below the LOD were all given a constant estimate value by NHANES. Because of these factors, I-Hg could not be treated as a continuous variable. For the purposes of this study, I-Hg detection was transformed into a binary variable: 0 for non detect (below the LOD), 1 for detect (above the LOD). To identify associations between I-Hg detect and the biochemical profile markers, t-tests, and logistic regression analysis was performed. The lincom STATA function was used to derive an odds ratio of I-Hg detection for a one standard deviation change in the biomarkers of interest (lincom (Std. Dev.)*(Biomarker)). To test for associations between CH₃Hg and the biochemical profile markers, linear regression analysis was performed.

Marginal Models:

Linear Regression*:

$$Y = B_0 + B_1(x) + B_2(x) + B_i(x)$$

Y= Continuous outcome variable (CH₃Hg, Urinary Hg)

B₁= Continuous explanatory variable for biochemical profile markers (LH, WBC, Bilirubin).

B₂= Age, as a continuous variable by year.

B_i= Categorical variables for race.

Logistic Regression*:

$$\text{Logit}[P(Y=1 | B_0, B_i, X=x)] = B_0 + B_1(x) + B_2(x) + B_i(x)$$

Exp(B₁) = O.R.

Y= Binary outcome variable for detection of inorganic mercury in blood (1=detection, 0=non detection).

B₁= Continuous explanatory variable for biochemical profile markers (LH, WBC, Bilirubin).

B₂= Age, as a continuous variable by year.

B_i= Categorical variables for race.

Logistic Regression*:

$$\text{Logit}[P(Y=1 | B_0, B_i, X=x)] = B_0 + B_1(x) + B_2(x) + B_i(x)$$

Exp(B₁) = I.R.R.

Y= Binary outcome variable for survey group years (1999-2000 =0, 2000-2001=1).

B₁= Binary explanatory variable for I-Hg detection.

B₂= Age, as a continuous variable by year.

B_i= Categorical variables for race.

*None of the reported results contained an Odds Ratio or relative risk with a confidence interval that spanned 1 or a slope with a confidence interval that spanned 0.

Summary description and units for mercury forms and biochemical profile markers are provided in table 5.0 below.

Results

Table 5.0: Summary Description of Mercury Forms and Biochemical Profile Markers	
I-Hg Detection	Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg) 0 = below the limit of detection (LOD= 0.4 ug/L) 1= above the limit of detection.
Total Hg	Blood total Hg: 1999-2000: LOD=0.05 ug/L 2001-2002: LOD=0.05 ug/L and 0.015 ug/L
CH ₃ Hg	Blood Methyl Mercury (ug/L) CH ₃ Hg = T-Hg - I-Hg
Urinary Mercury	(ng/ml) 1999-2000: LOD=0.05 ug/L 2001-2002: LOD=0.05 ug/L and 0.015 ug/L
Bilirubin	Total blood (umol/L) Liver Function Biomarker
White Blood Cell Count (WBC)	(SI) Immune System Biomarker
Luteinizing hormone (LH)	(mIU/mL) Pituitary/Endocrine System Biomarker

Table 5.3: Mean Values for Mercury forms and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined population, 1999-2002.					
Form	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
I-Hg Detection	3616	4.6% Detection	0.21	0	1
CH ₃ Hg	3613	1.15 (ug/L)	2.1	0	29.5
Urinary Mercury	3531	1.4 (ng/ml)	2.7	.1	68.51
Bilirubin	3569	8.45 (umol/L)	4.3	1.7	72
White Blood Cell Count	3614	7.8 (SI)	2.3	2.6	20.1
Luteinizing hormone (LH)	1133	13.4 (mIU/mL)	17.5	.1	129

The combined NHANES 1999-2002 population consisted of 3600 women, divided in two groups based on their years of survey. 1708 women in the survey group for the years 1999-2000 and 1908 in the survey group for the years 2001-2 group. The survey weighting design extends inferences based on this data with external validity to 66 million American women; 31 million for the years 1999-2000, and 35 million for the years 2001-2. The biochemical profile marker, Luteinizing hormone (LH), was measured only in a subsample of this population; 1133 Women, restricted to the ages 35-49 Years. In order to be concise, only certain, key table and figures are provided in the results section. Other figures and tables are provided after the conclusions as a supplemental section.

Scatterplots of age (years) versus the biochemical profile markers are illustrated in figure 5.0 (p.59). From these rough graphs, a possible association between LH and age is evident (figure 5.0 D). From the tables of descriptive statistics, we see the trend of a rise in I-Hg detection with age (table 5.02, p.99). There is also a slight rising trend of methylmercury with age (table 5.03, p.100). Blood LH follows this rising trend in mean values with age (table 5.05, p. 101) but the other biochemical markers do not seem to be affected by age (tables 5.04, p.100, table 5.06, p.101, table 5.07, p.102). A rising trend with age is illustrated in figures 5B, p.59 (methyl mercury) and 5E (LH). From logistic regression analysis, Age was found to be significantly associated in a direct relationship with I-Hg detection (table 5.93, p. 123). From linear regression analysis, Age was found to be significantly associated in a direct relationship with organic mercury concentration (table 5.94, p. 124).

The raw data and survey weighted data provide evidence of an increase in the proportion of I-Hg detection in the 2001-2002 survey populations as compared to the baseline, 1999-2000 survey population (Table 5.22, p.46, Table 5.21, p.103). From the results of the T-Test, there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the mean values of I-Hg detection are equivalent for the two survey groups (Table 5.21A, p.103). The two survey populations possess slightly different age and race distributions (Figure 5.01, p.64, Figure 5.02, p.66). To control for these differences, comparisons were adjusted for age and race. From both marginal models (logistic regression) and longitudinal regression analysis (Table 5.21B,C,D,E, p.103), there is evidence of a significant increase in the proportion of detectable blood inorganic mercury concentrations (I-Hg) over the years 1999-2002. Survey participants in the 2001-2 years were 320% more likely to have detectable levels of inorganic mercury in their blood than participants of the same race and age in the earlier survey group (1999-2000) (Table 5.22, p. 46, Tables 5.21F,G, p. 103).

To ensure the validity of these results in assessing the risks of I-Hg detection between survey populations, the analysis was repeated with categorical explanatory variables for age (Table 5.23, p.107). The transformed values were: age1= 16-19 years, age2= 20-29 years, age 3= 30-39 years, age4= 40-49 years. All logistic regressions were repeated with these dummy variables, and compared to the baseline population, age3= 30-39 years. In the raw population, both naive and robust estimates were performed. The analysis was repeated on the survey weighted population. The odds ratio for the estimated risk of I-Hg detection in Survey population 2001-2002 as compared to the baseline survey population 1999-2000, is comparable to the previous estimate using age as a continuous variable. In the raw population, the youngest age group (16-19 years) displayed a reduced risk of I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline (30-39 year old) population. In addition, race1 (Mexican American) and race 4 (African American) had an increased risk of I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline white population (table 5.23(A,B), p. 107). In the survey weighted population, the youngest age group (16-19) had a reduced chance of I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline (30-39 year old) population (table 5.23 (C), p.107). In addition, race 4 (African American) had an increased risk of I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline white population. In the survey weighted population, race1 (Mexican

American) did not have a significant difference in I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline white population.

From logistic regression analysis, there is evidence that I-Hg detection was significantly associated with Bilirubin (directly) in the full, survey weighted population (Table 5.5, p.47, Figure 5.03 (A), p. 100). An odds ratio of 1.28 indicates that there was a 28% increase in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection associated with a one standard deviation rise in bilirubin, among people of the same race and age by year (Table 5.51, p. 47). CH₃Hg concentration was also directly associated with I-Hg detection (Table 5.5, p. 47) (Fig. 5.03(D), p. 48, Fig. 5.11, p. 73). An Odds Ratio of 1.48 indicates that there was a 48% increase in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection associated with a one standard deviation rise in blood organic mercury, among people of the same race and age by year (Table 5.51, p. 47). White Blood Cell Count and Luteinizing Hormone were inversely associated with I-Hg Detection in the raw population but not in the survey weighted, full population. However, when a subpopulation is restricted by age (30-39 years for WBC, 35-39 years for LH), both LH and WBC were significantly associated in an inverse relationship with I-Hg Detection in both the raw and survey weighted populations (Table 5.5, p. 47, Fig. 5.03(B) and (C), p. 48). These associations were adjusted for age in years as a continuous variable (Fig. 5.2(D), p.75, Fig. 5.3(D), p. 79). An Odds Ratio of 0.654 indicates that there was a 35% decrease in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection associated with a one standard deviation rise in white blood cell count, among people of the same race and age by year (Table 5.5, p. 47). An Odds Ratio of 0.469 indicates that there was a 53% decrease in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection associated with a one standard deviation rise in luteinizing hormone, among people of the same race and age by year (Table 5.5, p. 47). These associations had low correlation coefficients so they are considered significant but weak. These results were confirmed by T-Tests (Fig. 5.1B, p. 70 and Fig. 5.3B, p. 79) that give evidence to reject the null hypothesis that the mean levels of these biochemical profile markers were the same for both groups of I-Hg detection. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis, that mean values of these biochemical profile markers were different for the two groups of I-Hg detection is accepted. I-Hg detection was also directly associated with urinary mercury. These results were also confirmed by T-Tests (Figure 5.11B, p. 73).

To test the results of the logistic regressions of I-Hg detection for rigor, explanatory variables were transformed into categorical variables. First, age in years (ridageyr) was transformed into categorical variables for age in decades (Fig. 5.31(A), p.82). The baseline population was age3= 30-39 years. Logistic regression was performed with biochemical profile markers as continuous variables and age and race as categorical variables. CH₃Hg concentrations were associated with I-Hg detection using categorical variables for age, and race in both raw and survey weighted populations with equivalent results to the analysis using age as a continuous variable. Bilirubin was associated with I-Hg detection in the logistic regression using race and age as categorical variables in both the raw and survey weighted populations with equivalent results to the analysis using age as a continuous variable. Luteinizing hormone (LH) was associated with I-Hg detection in the raw population when race and age are transformed as categorical variables. However this association does not persist in the survey weighted population. With age as a categorical variable and race as a categorical variable, I-Hg detection was associated with white blood cell (WBC) in the raw population but not in the survey weighted population.

Next, the biochemical profile markers were transformed into binary, categorical variables: 0= low levels, and 1=high levels (defined as 1 std. deviation above the mean). After transforming blood CH₃Hg concentrations into binary, categorical variables for low (orgmerc2=0, < 1 std. deviation above the mean, <3.3 ug/L) and high levels (orgmerc2=1, >= 3.3 ug/L), a significant, direct association with I-Hg detection is evident. An odds ratio of 3.7 indicates that there was a 270% increase in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection among those with high levels of organic mercury as compared to those

with low organic mercury levels, among people of the same race and age by decade (Table 5.51, p. 47). After bilirubin was transformed into a binary, categorical variable (bili2=high), a significant, direct association with I-Hg detection was evident. An odds ratio of 1.95 indicates that there was a 95% increase in the population averaged risk of I-Hg detection among those with high levels of bilirubin as compared to those with low bilirubin levels, among women of the same race and age by decade (Table 5.51, p.47). With LH (lhxlh) transformed as a binary categorical variable, there were no significant associations with I-Hg detection, even in subpopulations restricted by age. With WBC as a binary, categorical variable, there was no significant relationship with I-Hg detection, even in subpopulations restricted by age.

When a subpopulation is restricted to the roughly 5% of the population with detectable levels of I-Hg, and I-Hg is then treated as a continuous variable, linear regressions indicate that there are no significant associations with the markers of interest. This may be due to the fact that this population is already in the top 5% of I-Hg levels, the population is small, and measurement error and variance are significant factors in I-Hg determination. Converting this population restricted to I-Hg detection into high and low values for blood I-Hg concentration, likewise produces no significant associations with biomarkers of interest (Fig. Fig. 5.33, p. 53).

After linear regression analysis, marginal models provide evidence that blood methyl mercury (CH_3Hg) was significantly associated, in a direct relationship with bilirubin (Table 5.6, p.51, Figure 5.4(A), p.51, table 5.72 A, p. 112) and in an inverse relationship with both white blood cell counts (Table 5.6, p.51, Fig 5.4C, p.51, table 5.72 C, p.112) and luteinizing hormone (LH) (Table 5.6, p.51, Table 5.72 B, p.112).

To test these weak associations for rigor, subpopulations were created by age (decade). The association between methyl mercury and bilirubin was associated with ages 40-49 years (Table 5.73A, p. 115) and ages 30-39 years (table 5.73 C, p.115) (Figure 5.5B, p. 89). The Association between methylmercury and white blood cell count was associated with ages 40-49 (Table 5.73 B, p. 115) and ages 30-39 Years (Table 5.73 D, p.115). The association between methylmercury and LH was associated with ages 35-39 Years (Table 5.73 E, p.115). To test the sensitivity of these associations, outliers were dropped from the population and we repeated the regressions. When the outliers were dropped, white blood cell count was still associated with methyl-mercury (Figure 5.5A, p.89).

Analysis of race and mercury concentration indicates that African American's have an elevated risk of I-Hg detection as compared to the baseline white population (table 5.92, p.120). In addition, African Americans and Mexican Americans had elevated population averaged mean urinary mercury concentration as compared to the baseline white population (table 5.92, p.120). In the subpopulation restricted to I-Hg detection ($>0.4 \text{ ug/L}$, LOD, $n=160$), the races with the highest levels of blood inorganic mercury ($>1 \text{ std. dev.}$ above the mean I-Hg for those with detectable levels) were African American and Hispanic (Fig. 5.33, p.53). When the subpopulation was restricted to African Americans, the race with the greatest risk of I-Hg detection, I-Hg detection and CH_3Hg were both inversely associated with luteinizing hormone in the full population (LH) (Table 5.52, p.54, Table 5.53, p. 54, Fig. 5.8, p.92, Fig. 5.9, p.97). For African American women, an odds ratio of 0.509 indicates that there was a 49% reduction in the full population averaged risk of I-Hg detection associated with a one standard deviation rise in LH (Table 5.52, p.54, Fig 5.8(A), p.92). These results were adjusted for age, as a continuous explanatory variable by year, and confirmed by t-tests (Figure 5.8(A), p. 92). In contrast to LH, White Blood Cell Count and Bilirubin were not associated with either bioindicators of chronic mercury exposure within the African American subpopulation (Table 5.52, p54, 5.53, p.54, Fig. 5.8(B)(C), p.92, Figure 5.9(B)(C), p. 97). Within the African American subpopulation, I-Hg detection

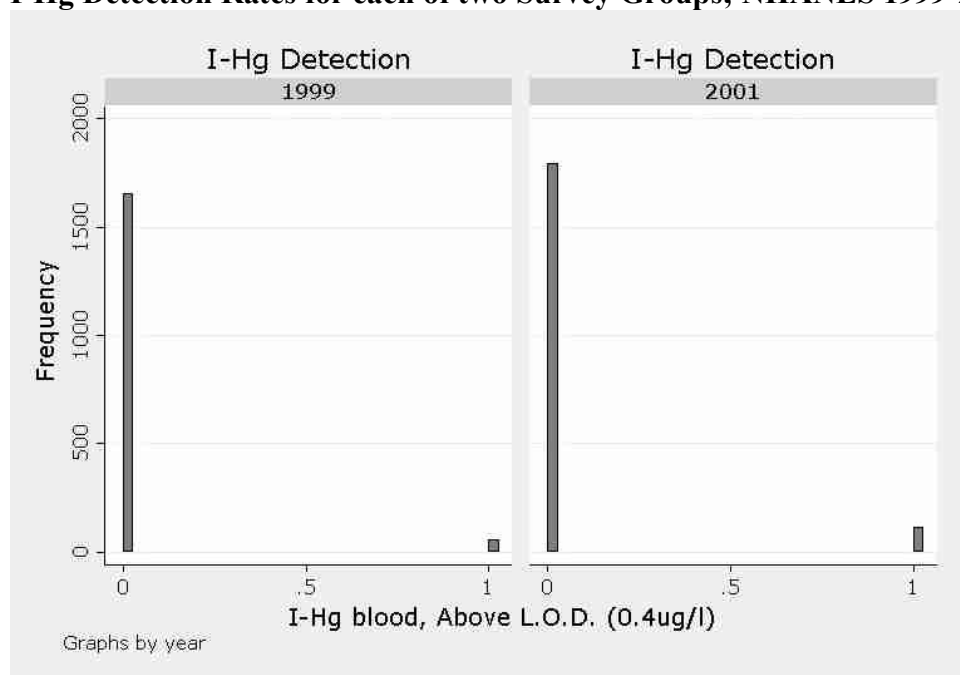
was strongly associated with both CH₃Hg, and Urinary Mercury (U-Hg) (Table 5.52, p. 54, Fig. 5.8(D), Fig. 5.8(E), p. 92).

In the full population, urinary mercury levels were significantly associated with white blood cell count in an inverse relationship but only in the raw population and not in the survey weighted population. Urinary mercury levels were associated with bilirubin levels in a direct relationship in both the raw population and the survey weighted population (table 5.91, p. 119). There was no significant relationship between urinary mercury levels and LH in the full population.

Table 5.22: Risk of I-Hg Detection for Survey Group 2001-2002 as compared to the baseline 1999-2000 survey group, in the NHANES Combined Survey Population (1999-2002). I-Hg detection is a binary variable: non-detect=0, I-Hg detection=1. Results of logistic regression presented are adjusted for age (continuous variable) and race (categorical variable). Only associations that were significant in the raw population are presented here with further adjustments for survey weights.

Survey Group	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With I-Hg Detection	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
2001-2002 (year2)	Full (3616)	Direct	3.19	0.850	<0.001	1.85 5.50

I-Hg Detection Rates for each of two Survey Groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and 2001-2002. (A) Histogram



Summary for variables: ihgdetect
by categories of: year

year	mean	sd	N
1999	.0322014	.1765863	1708
2001	.0592243	.2361059	1908
Total	.0464602	.2105086	3616

Table 5.5: Associations Between I-Hg Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002). Odds ratios for I-Hg detection (binary variable: non-detect=0, I-Hg detection=1) are calculated for a one standard deviation change in the explanatory variables using STATA command: lincom (Std. Dev.) (X) after logistic regression. Results presented are adjusted for age (continuous variable) and race (categorical variable). Only associations that were significant in the raw population are presented here with further adjustments for survey weights.

Biochemical Profile Marker	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With I-Hg Detection	Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a 1 Std. Dev. Change in Marker	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)	Full (3569)	Direct	1.28	0.139	0.029	1.03 1.60
White Blood Cell (lboxwbc)	Full Population (3614) Raw Survey Weighted	Inverse Not Significant	0.813 0.768	0.077 0.104	0.028 0.061	0.676 0.978 0.582 1.01
	Subpopulation Restricted by Age: 30-39 Years. (855)	Inverse	0.654	0.135	0.049	0.428 0.998
Luteinizing Hormone (lboxlh)	Full Population (1133) Raw Survey Weighted	Inverse Not Significant	0.689 0.744	0.115 0.158	0.026 0.175	0.496 0.956 0.481 1.14
	Subpopulation Restricted by Age: 35-39 Years. (391)	Inverse	0.469	0.164	0.039	0.229 0.961
CH ₃ Hg (organic mercury)	Full (3613)	Direct	1.48	0.097	<0.001	1.30 1.70

Table 5.51: Associations Between I-Hg Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002) as Categorical Variables. Biochemical profile markers are transformed into binary variables for low (0) and hi levels (1) (hi = greater than one std. deviation above the mean). Survey weighted logistic regression are adjusted for age as categorical variables by decade, with the baseline population age3 = thirty years olds. The survey weighted logistic regression is also adjusted for race, as categorical variables, with the baseline population race3 = whites. Only associations that were significant in the raw population are presented here with further adjustments for survey weights.

Biochemical Profile Marker (BPM)	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With I-Hg Detection	Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for Hi vs. Low (BPM)	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
Bilirubin (binary variable)	Full (3616)	Direct	1.95	0.575	0.031	1.07 3.56
CH ₃ Hg (binary variable)	Full (3616)	Direct	3.70	0.953	<0.001	2.18 6.26

Figure 5.03: Graphs of Probabilities for I-Hg Detection (Blood Inorganic Mercury) vs. Concentration of Biochemical Profile Markers in NHANES 1999-2002. (A) Bilirubin, full population, survey weighted. (B) White Blood Cell Count, survey weighted, subpopulation restricted by age: 30-39 Years. (C) Luteinizing Hormone, survey weighted, subpopulation restricted by age: 35-39 Years. (D) CH₃Hg, full population, survey weighted. I-Hg Detect is a transformed binary value (0 = non-detect 1= detection). Race is adjusted against baseline white population (race=3); race1= Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4= African American, race5=Other. Age is a continuous variable by decade.

(A):

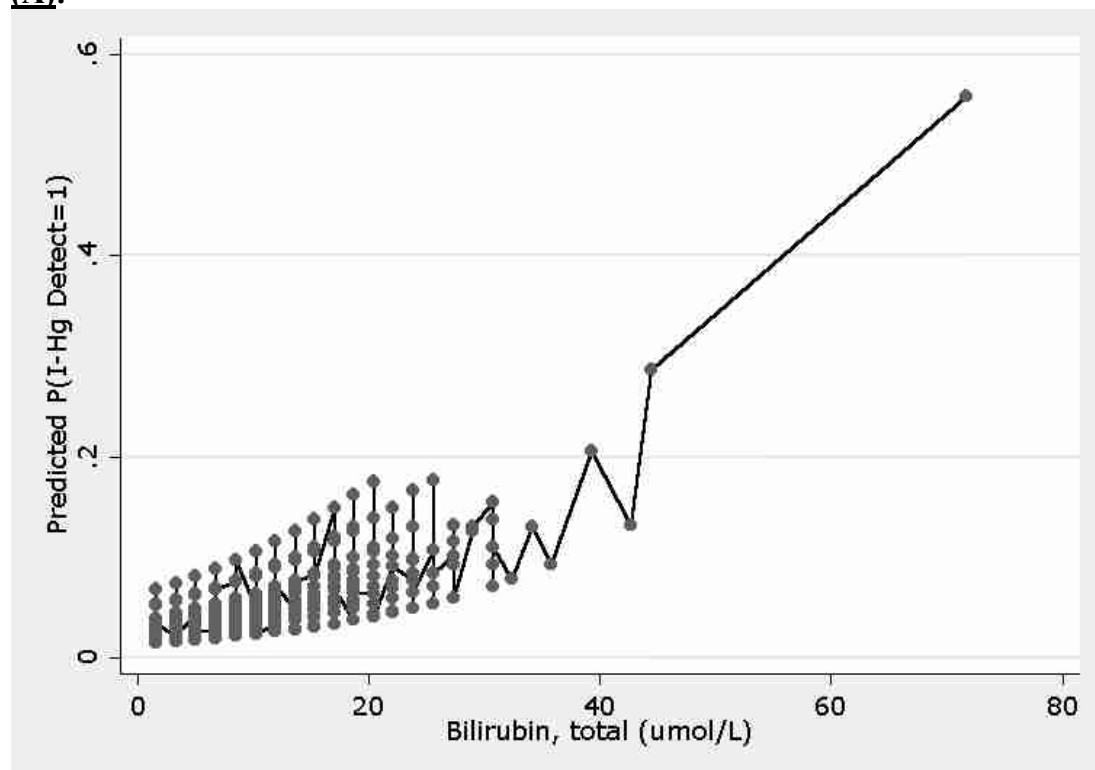


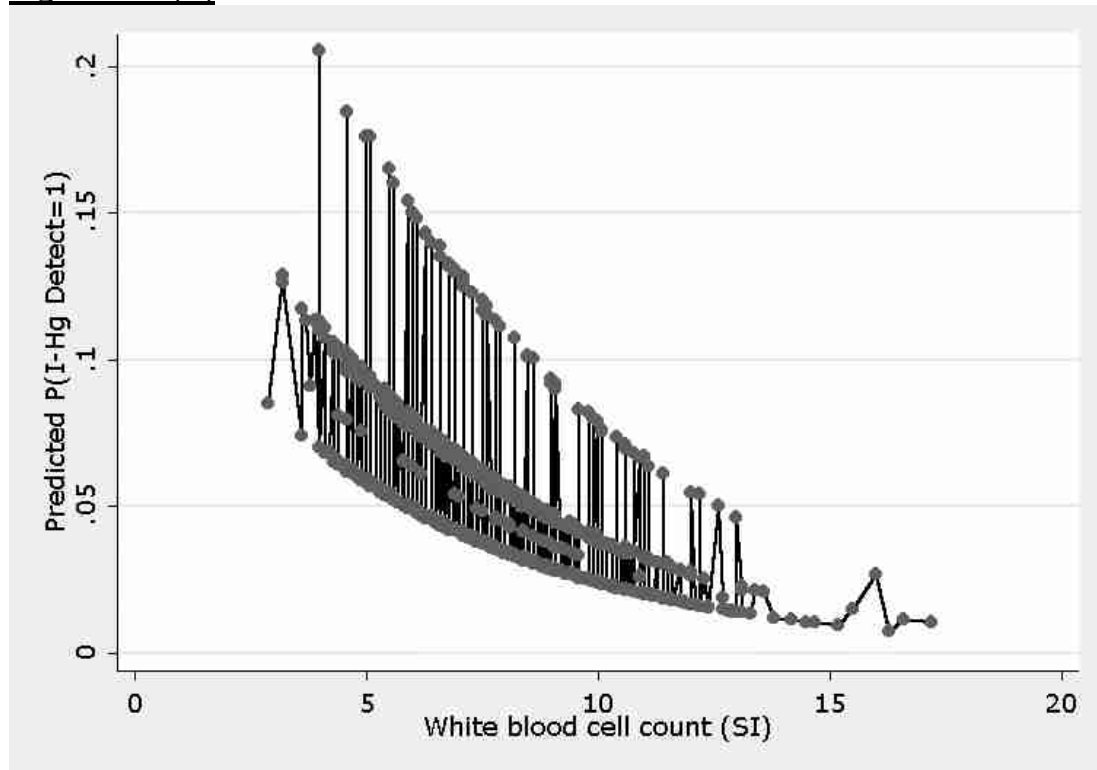
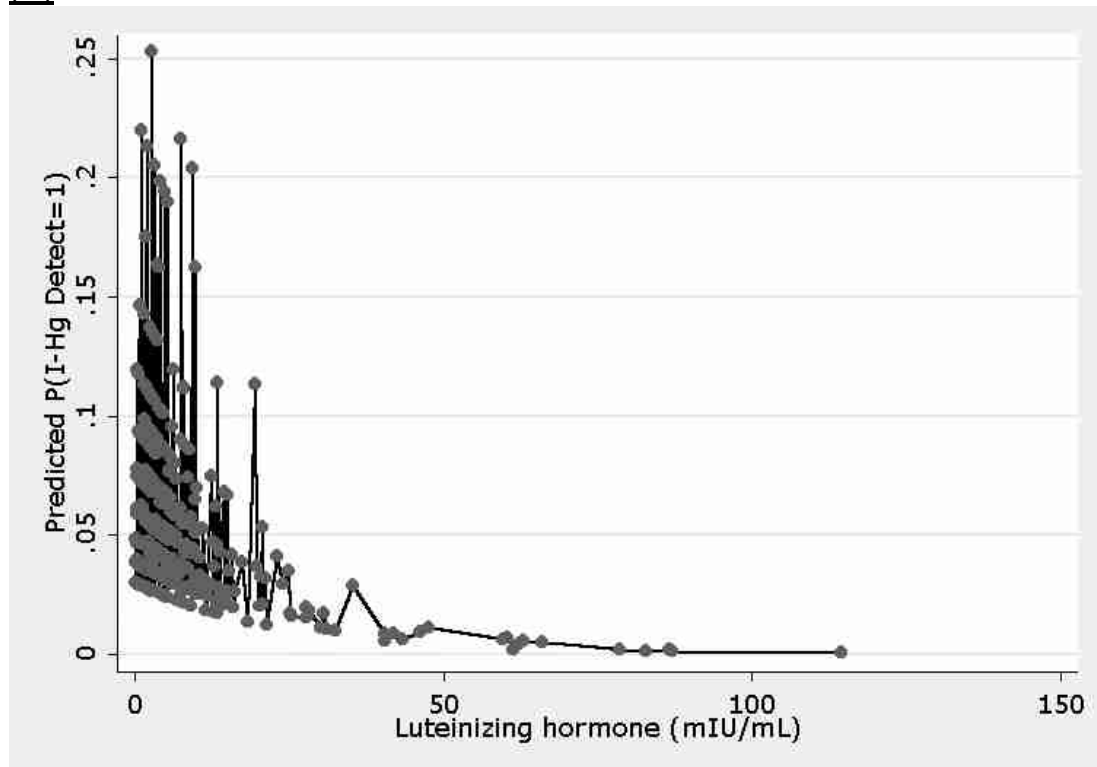
Figure 5.03 (B):**(C):**

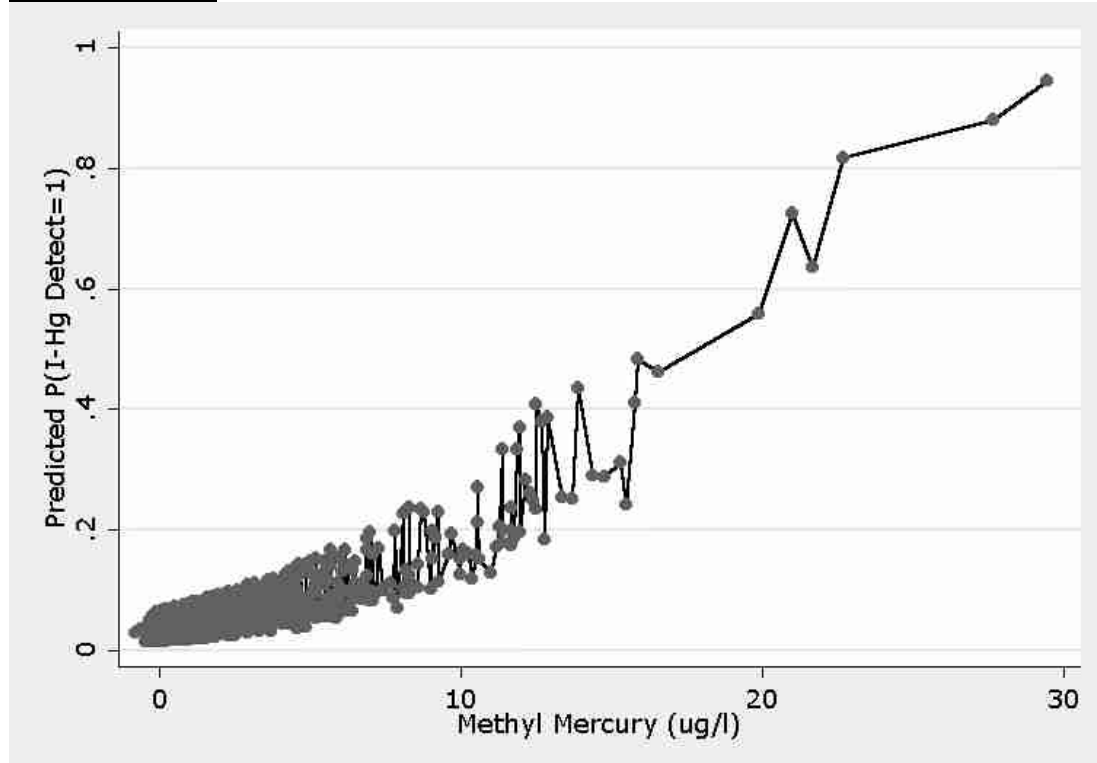
Figure 5.03 (D):

Table 5.6: Associations Between CH₃Hg and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002). Results presented are slopes for linear regression, adjusted for age (continuous variable) and race (categorical variable). Only associations that were significant in the raw population are presented here with further adjustments for survey weights.

Biochemical Profile Marker	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With CH ₃ Hg	Slope	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)	Full (3566)	Direct	0.044	0.018	0.018	0.008 0.80
White Blood Cell (lbxwbc)	Full (3611)	Inverse	-0.065	0.028	0.026	-0.121 -0.008
Luteinizing Hormone (lhxlh)	Full Population 35-49 Years. (1132)	Inverse	-0.011	0.004	0.006	-0.018 -0.003

Figure 5.4: Observed Points and Fitted lines for Linear Regressions of Blood Methyl Mercury (ug/L) versus biochemical profile markers in Women ages 16-49 years, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES. (A) Blood Bilirubin (B) Blood Luteinizing Hormone * (C) White Blood Cell Count
*LH measured in subpopulation, Ages 35-49 years.

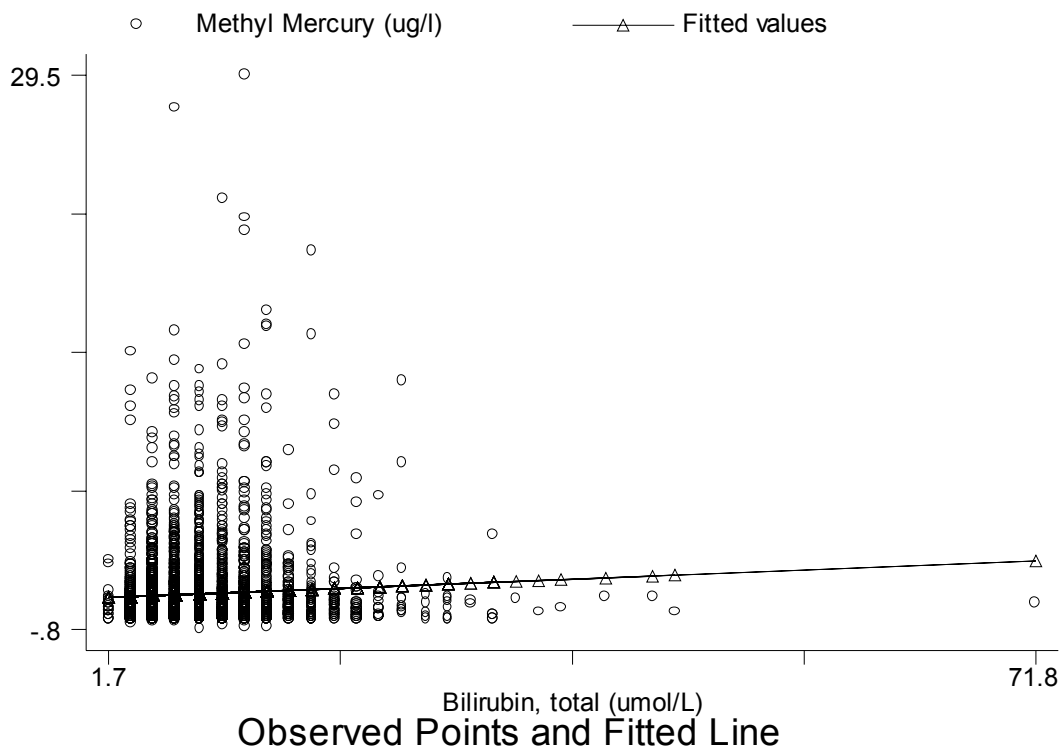


Figure 5.4 (B)

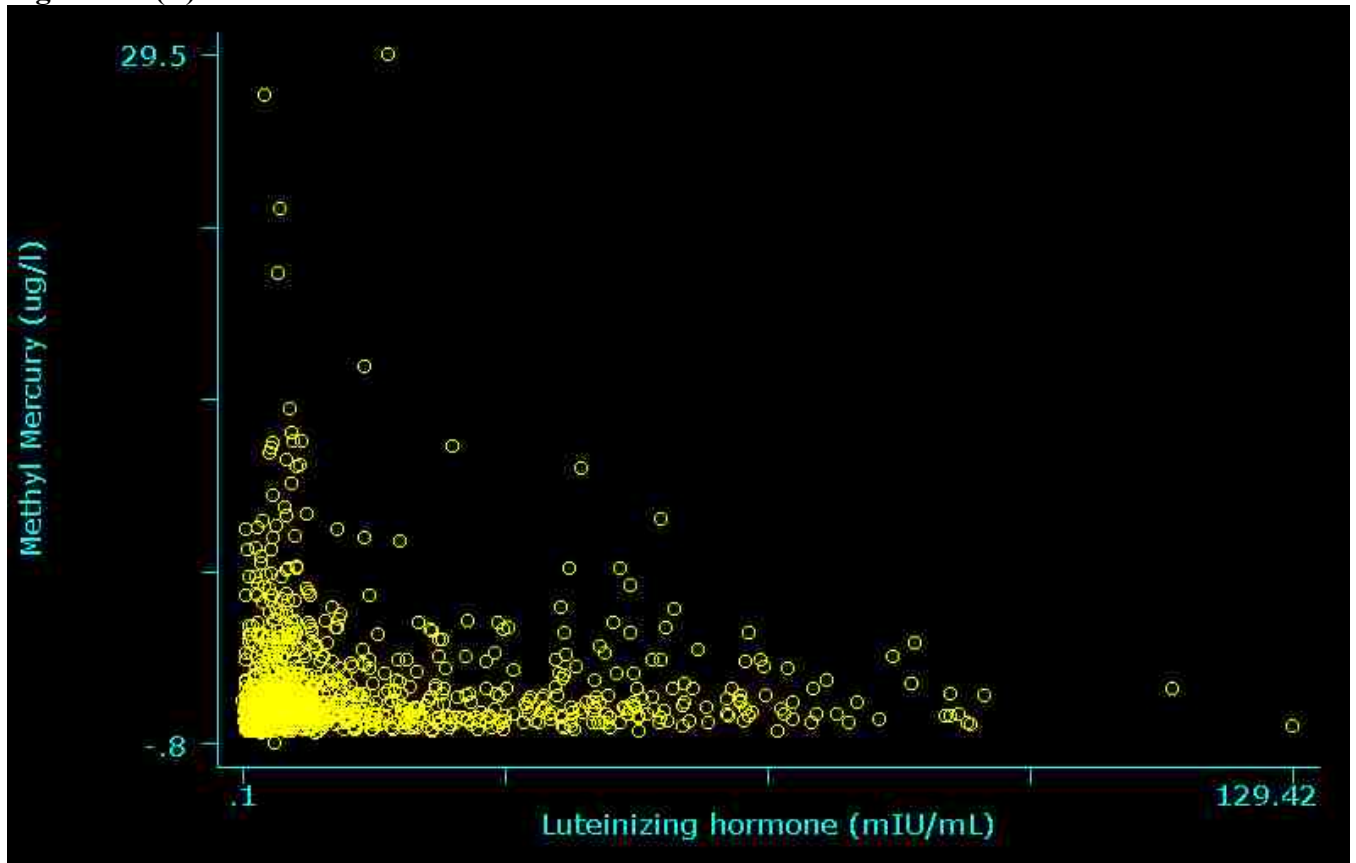


Figure 5.4 (C)

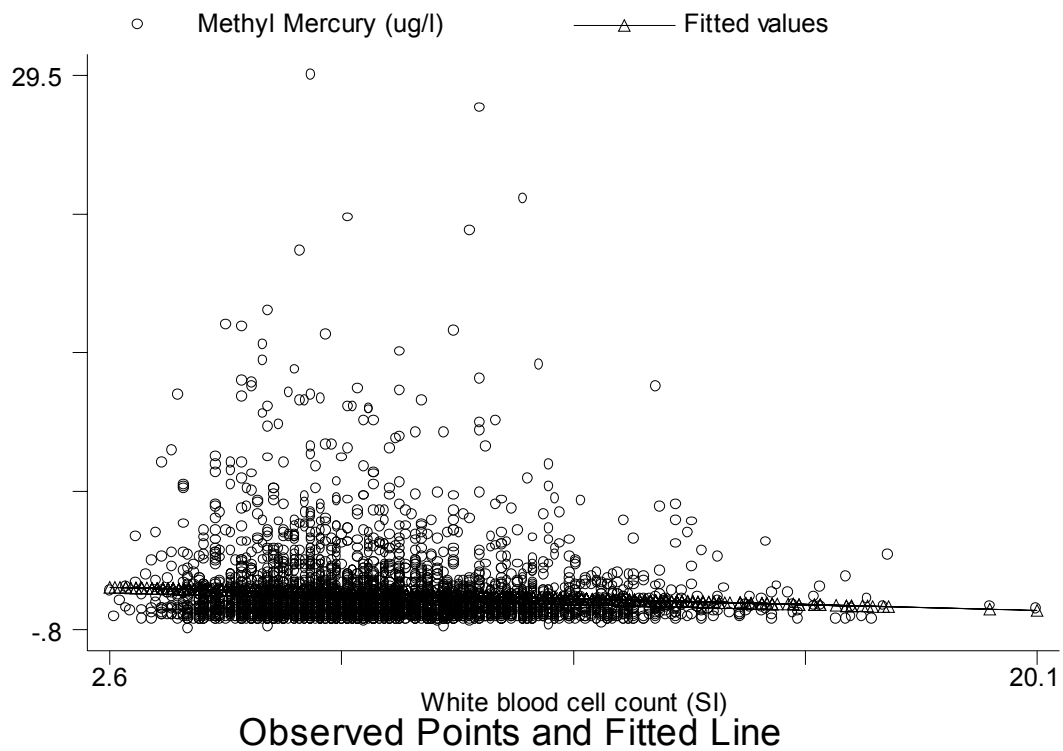


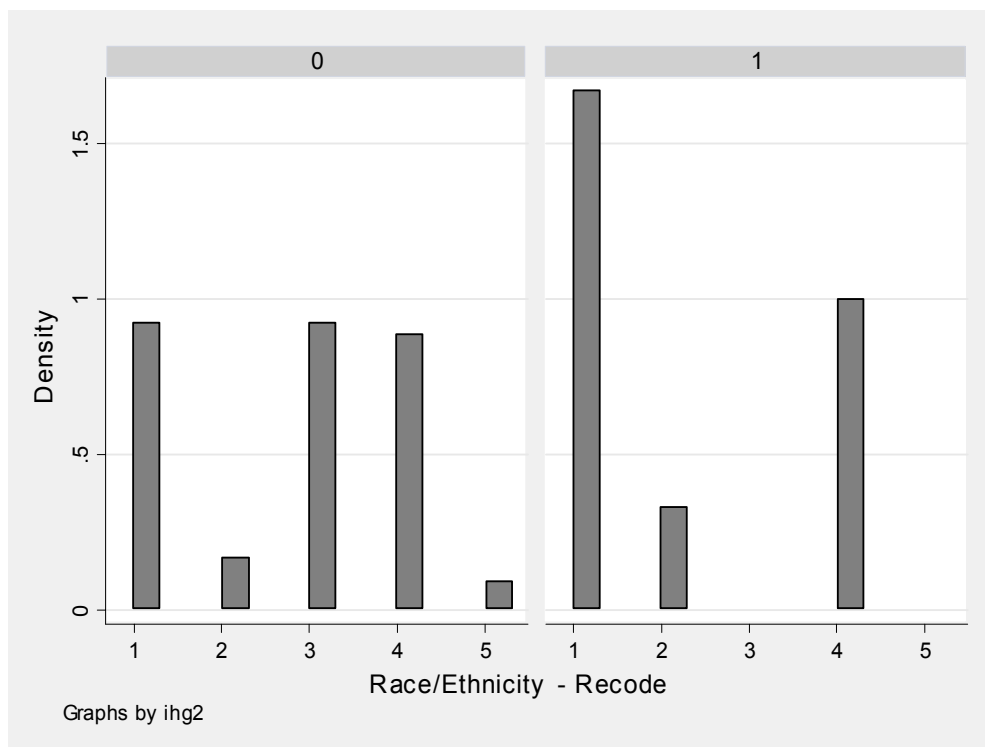
Figure 5.33: Subpopulation Restricted by I-Hg Detection (>0.4 ug/L, LOD), NHANES 1999-2003.

5.33(A): Binary variable for Low (<1 std. dev. above the mean, $ihg2=0$, $n=159$) and Hi (> 1 std. dev. above the mean, $ihg2=1$, $n=9$) in the NHANES subpopulation restricted to I-Hg detection (>0.4 ug/L, LOD, $n=168$).

```
. tabulate ihg2, gen(ihg2)
```

ihg2	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
0	159	94.64	94.64
1	9	5.36	100.00
Total	168	100.00	

5.33(B): Histogram of race in Low (<1 std. dev. above the mean, $ihg2=0$) and Hi (> 1 std. dev. above the mean, $ihg2=1$) in the NHANES subpopulation ($n= 168$) restricted to I-Hg detection (>0.4 ug/L, LOD).



Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other

Table 5.52: Subpopulation Restricted by race (African American). Associations Between I-Hg Detection and Biochemical Profile Markers in African American women in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002). Odds ratios for I-Hg detection (binary variable: non-detect=0, I-Hg detection=1) are calculated for a one standard deviation change in the explanatory variables using STATA command: lincom (Std. Dev.) (X) after logistic regression. Results presented are adjusted for age in years (continuous variable).

Biochemical Profile Marker	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With I-Hg Detection	Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a 1 Std. Dev. Change in Marker	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)	Full (775) Raw	Not Significant (P>0.5)				
White Blood Cell (lboxwbc)	Full Population (789) Raw	Not significant (P>0.5)				
Luteinizing Hormone (lboxlh)	Full Population (253) Raw	Inverse	0.509	0.148	0.020	0.288 0.900
CH ₃ Hg (organic mercury)	Full Population (789) Raw	Direct	1.88	0.199	<0.001	1.53 2.31
Urinary Mercury (urxuhg)	Full Population (763) Raw	Direct	3.26	0.681	<0.001	2.17 4.91

Table 5.53: Subpopulation Restricted by race (African American). Associations Between CH₃Hg and Biochemical Profile Markers in African American women in the NHANES combined survey population (1999-2000 and 2001-2002). Results presented are slopes for linear regression, adjusted for age (continuous variable in Years).

Biochemical Profile Marker	Population (Number of Observations)	Association With CH ₃ Hg	Slope	Std. Error	P-Value	[95% Confidence Interval]
Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)	Full (774)	Not Significant (P>0.5)	0.0188	0.017	0.282	-0.015 0.053
White Blood Cell (lboxwbc)	Full (788)	Not Significant (P>0.5)	-0.007	0.040	0.862	-0.072 0.086
Luteinizing Hormone (lboxlh)	(252)	Inverse	-0.014	0.006	0.027	-0.026 -0.0015
Urinary Hg (urxuhg)	(762)	Direct	0.197	0.056	<0.001	0.087 0.307

Discussion

In the marginal models, statistical analysis provides significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis that bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure (blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg) and the selected biochemical profile markers are not associated (Table 5.5, p.47, Table 5.6, p.51, Table 5.22, p. 46). The alternative hypothesis is accepted, that bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure and selected biochemical profile markers for the targets of mercury deposition and effect are associated, specifically within women, ages 30-49 years, in the general U.S. population. Associations presented in this study were rigorous and conserved in both raw and survey weighted populations and in both naïve and robust statistical estimations. Results were adjusted for the potential confounders of race and age, and yet, residual confounding may remain an issue. Significant results from the logistic regressions were confirmed by non-parametric T-Tests.

In the NHANES survey, I-Hg concentrations were determined after an indeterminate storage time of up to one year. Previous research has shown that storage times greater than 3 days result in sample loss and increased variance between measurements. Due to these limiting factors, I-Hg concentrations in the NHANES study may underestimate true concentration levels. In this study, I-Hg was transformed into a binary variable, I-Hg detection. This transformation helps address the issues of measurement error, variance, and estimate values below the LOD by grouping the population into low I-Hg levels (below the lod) and high levels (above the lod).

Low correlation coefficients for the logistic regressions of I-Hg detection demonstrate that these associations were weak. Weak associations are often typical of biological systems however large sample comparisons may produce such results with no biological importance. The fact that these associations persisted in smaller subpopulations restricted by age and year of survey suggests that these results were not a statistical anomaly. Tests for rigor involved dropping outliers and investigating subpopulations grouped by age. Results from these tests yielded more evidence that these associations were significant. In addition, as these results were persistent with both bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure (Blood I-Hg and Blood CH₃Hg) the reported associations with biochemical profile markers are even more unlikely due to random chance. Confirmation of results in the survey weighted population and in subpopulations restricted by age, extends an external validity to these associations in the U.S. population, women ages 30-39 years. The biochemical profile markers had the most enduring associations with blood organic mercury, then blood I-Hg and least of all urinary mercury. These findings help confirm previous evidence that blood mercury levels are the most suitable bioindicators of body burden and chronic mercury exposure.

As this is a cross sectional study, it is impossible to determine cause and effect. In addition, these are population averaged results and therefore, conclusions can not be drawn on individuals. This makes it difficult to interpret these associations but previous research offers possible interpretations. Previous research indicates that I-Hg detection may be an important biomarker for organic mercury demethylation and resultant I-Hg deposition in tissues of the human body²². In contrast, CH₃Hg in blood is a biomarker that reflects time since recent organic mercury exposure⁶. Taken together, both mercury forms (I-Hg and CH₃Hg in blood) serve as bioindicators for chronic, organic mercury exposure. As the biochemical profile markers (bilirubin, LH, WBC) were associated with both blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg, it may be reasonable to assume that they are also associated with chronic, organic mercury exposure.

From the results of logistic regressions using transformed categorical explanatory variables, it is evident that the most robust, direct association exists between I-Hg detection and CH₃Hg concentration in the blood. This supports previous research that maintains demethylation of CH₃Hg into I-Hg is a main source of I-Hg in the body⁶. The direct associations of both blood inorganic and organic mercury with

age suggest that chronic mercury exposure and I-Hg deposition may be a process of accumulation related to the aging process.

Robust associations between bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure (I-Hg and organic mercury) with bilirubin are persistent in the NHANES population. The role of bilirubin in the enterohepatic circulation of organic mercury may help explain this direct association between bilirubin and I-Hg. Associations between chronic mercury exposure and bilirubin reflect a physiological connection between exposure and the rate of excretion. The bile is an important step for excretion of mercury from the liver. Impaired excretion of methyl mercury and increased enterohepatic circulation may elevate the rate of I-Hg deposition and risks of associated neurodegenerative disease.

Associations between chronic mercury exposure and biochemical profile markers were associated with subpopulations in the older age groups. This may be explained as chronic mercury exposure is directly related to the duration of exposure, and thus, the accumulation of I-Hg deposition is expected to be associated with age. To prevent the possible confounding by age, results were adjusted for age in years as a continuous variable and age in decades as a categorical variable. Associations between I-Hg detection and bilirubin, while significant in the full population (16-49 years), were tied to subpopulations above the age of thirty. In like manner, both LH and WBC were related to I-Hg detection in subpopulations restricted to the third decade of life, even after adjusting for age in years as a continuous, explanatory variable (Fig. 5.2(C), p. 75, Fig 5.3(C), p. 79)..

The inverse association between mercury exposure and white blood cell count provides more evidence to link chronic mercury exposure, I-Hg deposition, and effects on the immune system within the general U.S. population. The immune system is a main target for mercury deposition and toxic effect. Inorganic mercury (I-Hg) deposits are associated with neurotoxic and immune pathways implicated in neurodegeneration²⁰. There is ample evidence for immunogenetic susceptibility to mercury exposure^{20, 23, 82, 87}. Even at sub acute, chronic mercury exposure levels, in vitro experiments have demonstrated the immunomodulatory effects of mercury exposure⁹⁴. Previous studies have demonstrated that a direct interaction between the immune system and mercury exposure leads to the suppression of white blood cell activation⁶⁶. Our results support this inverse association within the general U.S. population.

Results from this study suggest a link between chronic mercury exposure and pituitary function (LH) that is most evident in the third decade of life (35-39 years). This is in accordance with previous research that has demonstrated that the pituitary is a main target for I-Hg deposition⁶. This interaction may explain a pathway between chronic mercury exposure, target deposition, and a disease process leading to neurodegeneration. The disease process leading from chronic mercury exposure to neurodegenerative disease may include impaired liver function, increased I-Hg deposition, immune system damage, and focal deposition of I-Hg in the pituitary. Luteinizing Hormone (LH) is a gonadotropin secreted by the anterior pituitary that is involved in gonadotroph stimulation, mitogenesis, and immune regulation (for a review see,⁹⁰). Studies have demonstrated that Alzheimer's Disease patients have elevated serum and neuronal levels of LH as compared to controls^{90, 91}. Brain regions affected by AD show elevated expression of LH receptors (for a review see,⁹⁰). In cell cultures, LH stimulates amyloid beta production, a key element in oxidative stress leading to AD pathology. LH receptors are also found on immune cells where they are associated with neuroprotection and a role in the pro-inflammatory signaling process in the brain (for a review see,⁹¹). A disruption of the pituitary, such as one incurred by focal I-Hg deposition, may result in a cascade of events leading from oxidative stress to impaired neuro-protection, unbalanced neuro-immune response, inflammation, and neurodegenerative disease.

These results demonstrate relationships between chronic organic mercury exposure and biochemical changes related to the main targets of inorganic mercury deposition and effect. These associations provide links between exposure and a biological mechanism leading to neurodegenerative disease. Associations with the immune system (white blood cell) and with the pituitary (luteinizing hormone) establish links between mercury exposure, deposition, and the risks of Autism and Alzheimer's Disease. Associations with the liver (bilirubin) reiterate concern that mercury deposition may increase enterohepatic circulation, raise the absorption rate of mercury, and thereby elevate susceptibility to future exposures such as from vaccines containing ethyl mercury.

In the full population, associations between I-Hg detection and LH, and between I-Hg detection and WBC, were significant in the raw population but not in the survey weighted population (Table 5.5, p. 47). This may be due to oversampling of African Americans who faced the highest risk of I-Hg detection. In fact, there were no whites in the 0.2% of the NHANES population with the highest blood I-Hg levels (Fig. 5.33, p. 53). This finding suggests that African Americans and Mexican Americans face the greatest risk of chronic mercury exposure, I-Hg deposition, and highest risks of associated disease. There was a significant, inverse association between chronic mercury exposure and luteinizing hormone (LH) in the subpopulation of African Women (Table 5.52, p.54, Table 5.53, p.54). Persistent results from the raw population, the survey weighted subpopulation (35-39), and the African American subpopulation, suggest a strong link between chronic organic mercury exposure and targeted inorganic mercury deposition in the pituitary.

A significant difference in the proportion of I-Hg detection between the two survey populations was reported in this study; 3% I-Hg detection in 1999-2000, to 6% I-Hg detection in 2001-2002. This difference in I-Hg detection may be interpreted in several ways. I-Hg detection variability may reflect error and variance due to the methods of I-Hg measurement. I-Hg detection may also reflect real differences in I-Hg deposition between geographical regions. A recent study of human mercury exposure from fish in the U.S. established that geographic variability in Hg concentrations, in different species of fish, affects per capita exposure⁹. Another source of geographic variability may be the amount of local coal burning power plants. Oxidized forms of mercury released from point source plumes may deposit locally by the source¹.

Alternatively, these differences in I-Hg detection may be explained by a longitudinal analysis of the American population, wherein the percentage of people with detectable levels of inorganic mercury in their blood is dramatically increasing over time. According to a panel of scientific experts, the rate of atmospheric mercury deposition may be increasing due to industrial emissions and climactic changes¹. This likely rise in the rate of mercury deposition may signal a significant increase in the origins of global mercury exposure. A rising rate in detection of inorganic mercury within the U.S. population over time may indicate an increase in the rate of mercury deposition within the U.S. population. A rise in I-Hg detection may indicate increased susceptibility to further exposure. If this is a time dependent increase in I-Hg detection, the public health risks of associated neurodegenerative diseases may be rising over time as well. This possibility is of great concern and warrants continued monitoring of the NHANES population over time in order to determine the time trend of I-Hg detection rates within the U.S. population.

Conclusion

Data are sufficient to conclude there is an association between chronic, organic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition in target systems of the human body. Results from this study present evidence to reject the null hypothesis that bioindicators for chronic, organic mercury exposure (blood I-Hg and CH₃Hg) are not associated with biochemical profile markers for the main targets of

inorganic mercury effect and deposition within the NHANES survey population. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis, that chronic, organic mercury exposure is associated with the main targets of deposition and effect, is accepted. The NHANES survey weighting design extends this inference with external validity to the general U.S. women's population, specifically ages 30-39 years.

In the 2004, IOM report on vaccines, their assessment of a biological mechanism concluded that there was no human evidence of an immune response that associates thimerosal exposure with autism¹¹⁰. This thesis presents human evidence within the U.S. population for a biological mechanism to a causative relationship between mercury exposure, immune dysregulation, and the risk of Autism. Associations of mercury exposure with the immune system (white blood cell) and with the pituitary (luteinizing hormone) establish links with Autism and Alzheimer's Disease. Mercury's neurotoxic effect on these targets would increase the risks of immune dysregulation, autoimmune disorders, inflammation, impaired cell migration, and neurodegeneration. Associations with the liver (bilirubin) reiterate concern that mercury deposition may increase enterohepatic circulation, raise the absorption rate of mercury, and thereby elevate susceptibility to future exposure such as from vaccines containing ethyl mercury. The reported, direct association between I-Hg and organic mercury suggests that the demethylation of organic mercury within the body is a contributing source of I-Hg deposition.

In this study, African Americans were found to have the highest risk for I-Hg detection. In fact, there were no whites in the population with the highest blood I-Hg levels (Fig. 5.33). This finding suggests that African Americans and Mexican Americans face the greatest chronic mercury exposure, I-Hg deposition, and highest risks of associated disease. There was a significant, inverse association between chronic mercury exposure and luteinizing hormone (LH) in the subpopulation of African Women (Table 5.52, p. 54, Table 5.53, p. 54). Persistent results from the raw population, the survey weighted subpopulation (35-39), and the African American subpopulation, suggest a strong link between chronic organic mercury exposure, inorganic mercury deposition, and disruption of the pituitary.

This study presents associations between I-Hg deposition and biochemical profile markers (bilirubin, luteinizing hormone, and WBC) that are specific to the older population (above thirty). Links between mercury exposure, targets of deposition and effect, and the aging process are consistent with a process of exposure over decades. Cumulative I-Hg deposition in target sites within the body help explain a biological mechanism for disease. The link between chronic mercury exposure, deposition in the pituitary, and LH should be further investigated for a causal role in the development of AD.

Data are suggestive that there is a rising time trend in chronic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition in target systems of the human body. Evidence presented in this study suggests that I-Hg detection rates were elevated in the later survey group (2001-2002) as compared to the baseline survey group (1999-2000). A rise in the rate of I-Hg detection may be associated with a rise in chronic mercury exposure, deposition, and associated risks for neurodegenerative diseases. Whether the rise in I-Hg detection was due to geographical differences in exposure, measurement error, or to a time dependent rise in the rate of chronic mercury exposure is unclear. However, this trend should be monitored in future NHANES surveys and further investigated in order to determine the overall trend of exposure, assess the related public health risks of mercury exposure, and form effective policy objectives. As emissions of mercury into the global environment and food chain continue to rise over time due to rising coal burning capacity worldwide, the public health threats of rising chronic mercury exposure, deposition, and associated diseases may be rising over time as well. While results from this study do not verify a time dependent increase in chronic mercury exposure and deposition, they do support this possibility. Rising rates of chronic mercury exposure and deposition may pose a devastating public health threat and warrants further study of chronic mercury exposure and effect within future NHANES populations.

Supplemental Figures for NHANES study

Figure 5.0: Scatterplots of Age (Years) versus Biochemical Profile Markers, in Women ages 16-49 years, combined 199-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES. **(A)** Blood Methyl- Mercury **(B)** Urinary Mercury **(C)** Blood Bilirubin **(D)** Blood Leutenizing Hormone* **(E)** White Blood Cells

*LH measured in subpopulation, Women ages 35-49 years.

(A)

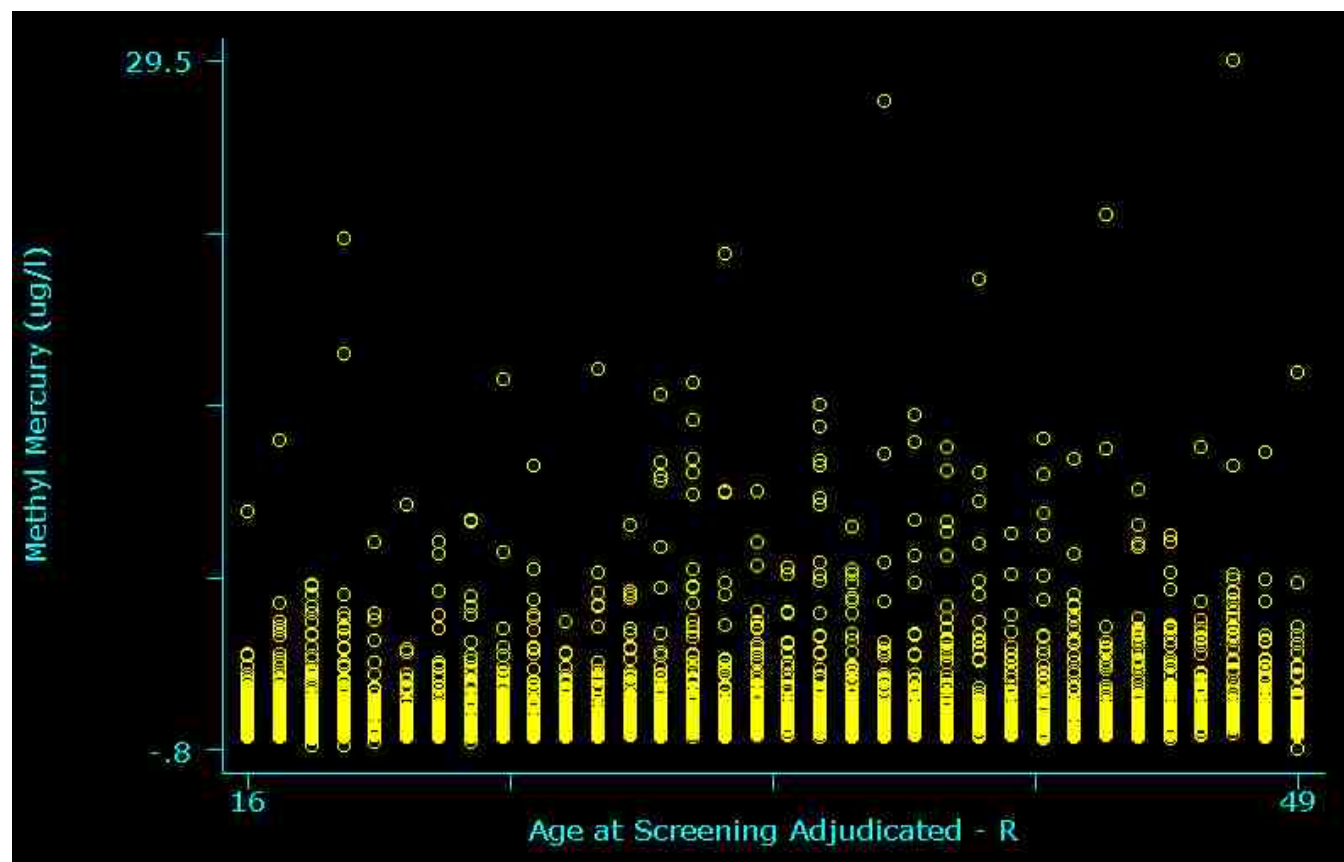


Figure 5.0: (B)

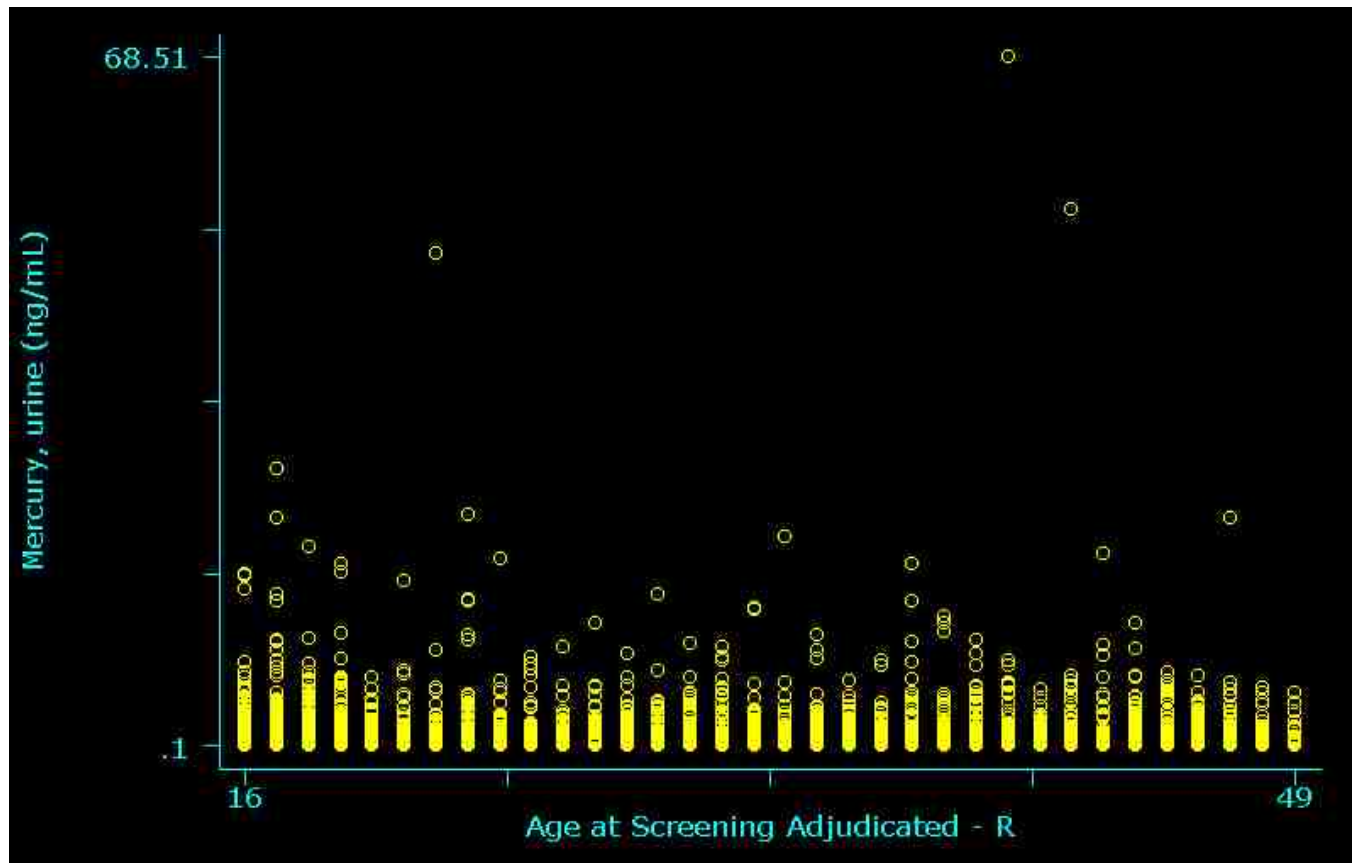


Figure 5.0: (C)

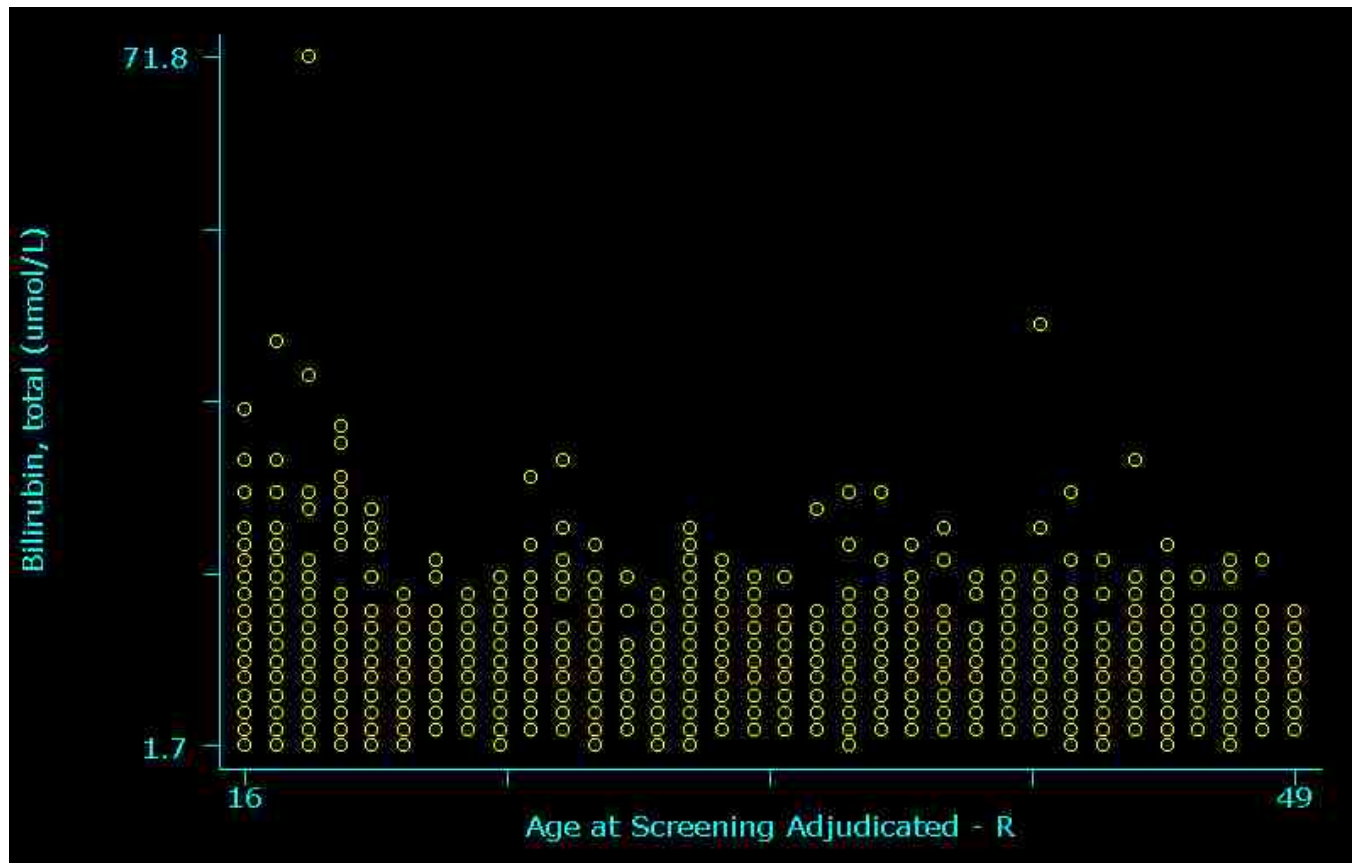


Figure 5.0: (E)

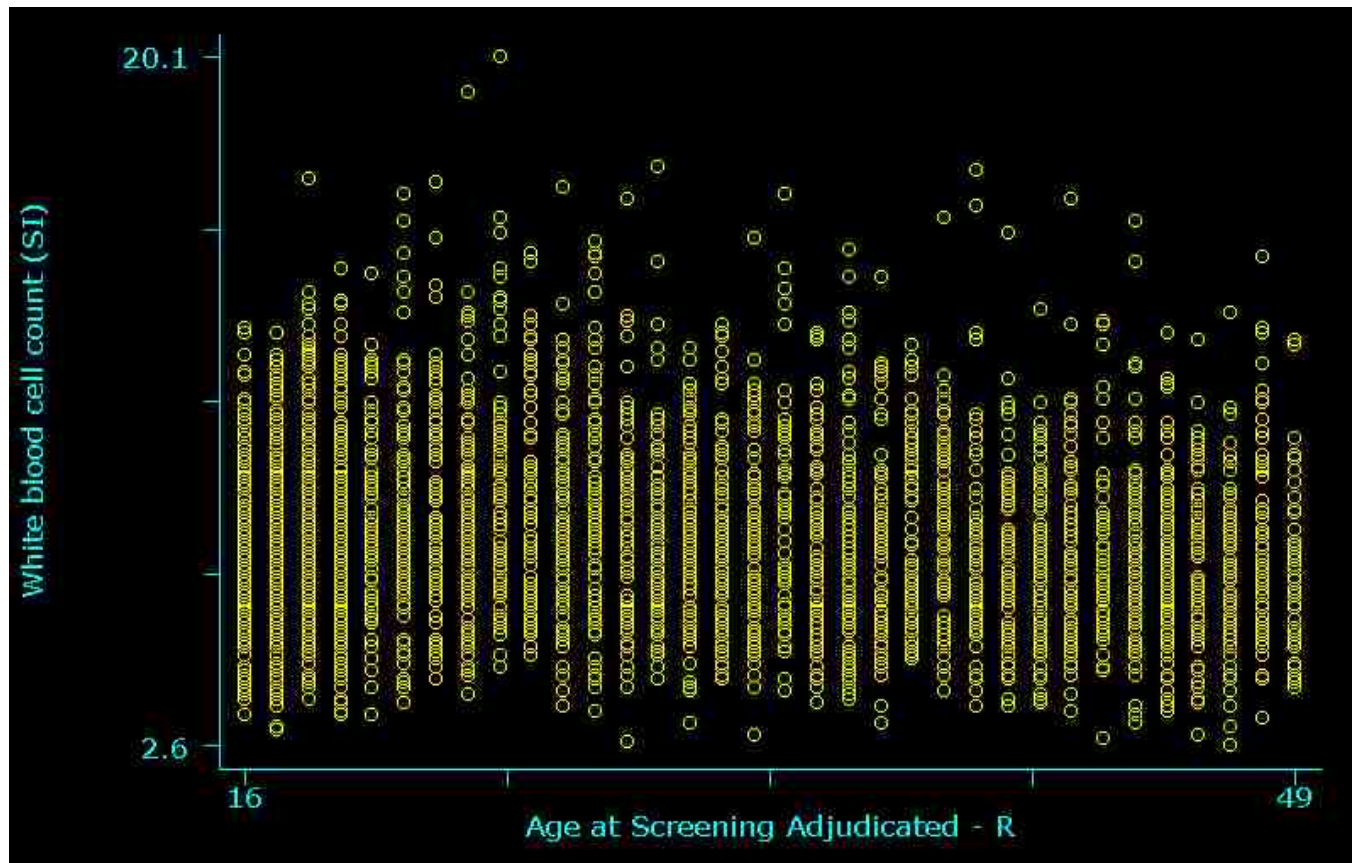


Figure 5.01: Age distribution by decade for each of the two survey groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and NHANES 2001-2002. (A) Histogram (B) Table (C) Mean Estimates (D) T-Test of Mean Values for age in years (ridageyr)

Figure 5.01 (A):

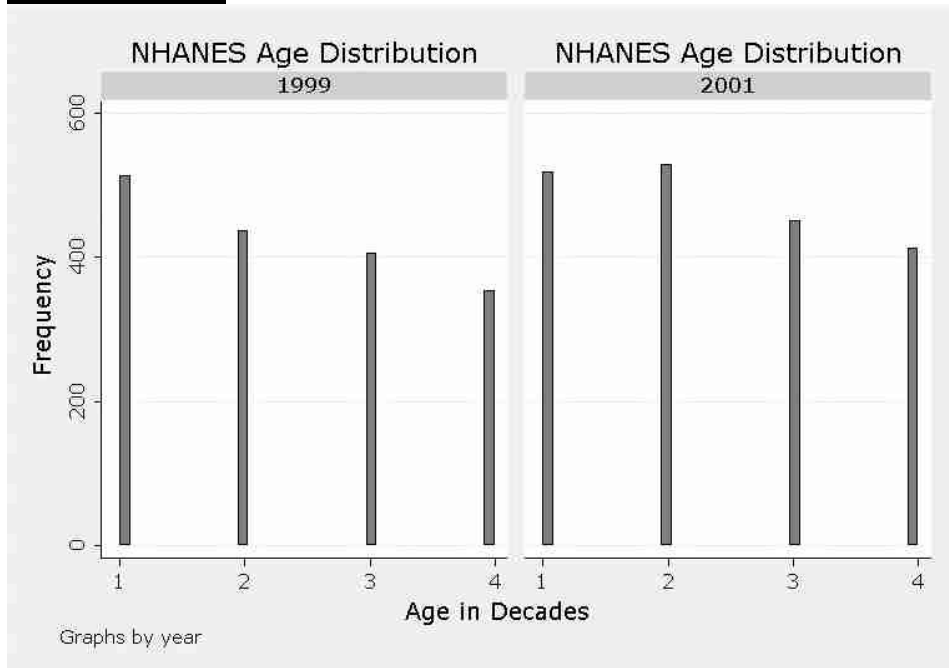


Figure 5.01 (B) : NHANES age distribution by survey group

```
. tab age year
```

	year		
age	1999-2000	2001-2002	Total
16-19	513	518	1,031
20-29	436	528	964
30-39	405	450	855
40-49	354	412	766
Total	1,708	1,908	3,616

Figure 5.01 (C):

```
tabstat ridageyr, stats (mean sd iqr n) by (year)
```

Summary for variables: ridageyr
by categories of: year

year	mean	sd	iqr	N
1999-2000	28.77518	10.28321	19	1708
2001-2002	29.13836	10.27533	19	1908
Total	28.96681	10.27923	19	3616

Figure 5.01 (D):

```
. ttest ridageyr,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999-2000	1708	28.77518	.2488197	10.28321	28.28715	29.2632
2001-2002	1908	29.13836	.2352374	10.27533	28.67702	29.59971
combined	3616	28.96681	.170941	10.27923	28.63166	29.30196
diff		-.3631891	.3424148		-1.034537	.3081591

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3569.55

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -1.0607	t = -1.0607	t = -1.0607
P < t = 0.1445	P > t = 0.2889	P > t = 0.8555

*No evidence to suggest that mean ages are different between survey groups.

Figure 5.02: Race Distribution for each of the two survey groups; NHANES 1999-2000 and NHANES 2001-2002. Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other. (A) Histogram (B) Table (C) T-Test of Mean Values for Mexican Americans (race1) in years (ridageyr) (D) T-Test of Mean Values for Hispanic (race2) in years (ridageyr) (E) T-Test of Mean Values for White (race3) in years (ridageyr) (F) T-Test of Mean Values for African American (race4) in years (ridageyr). (G) T-Test of Mean Values for Other (race5) in years (ridageyr).

Figure 5.02 (A):

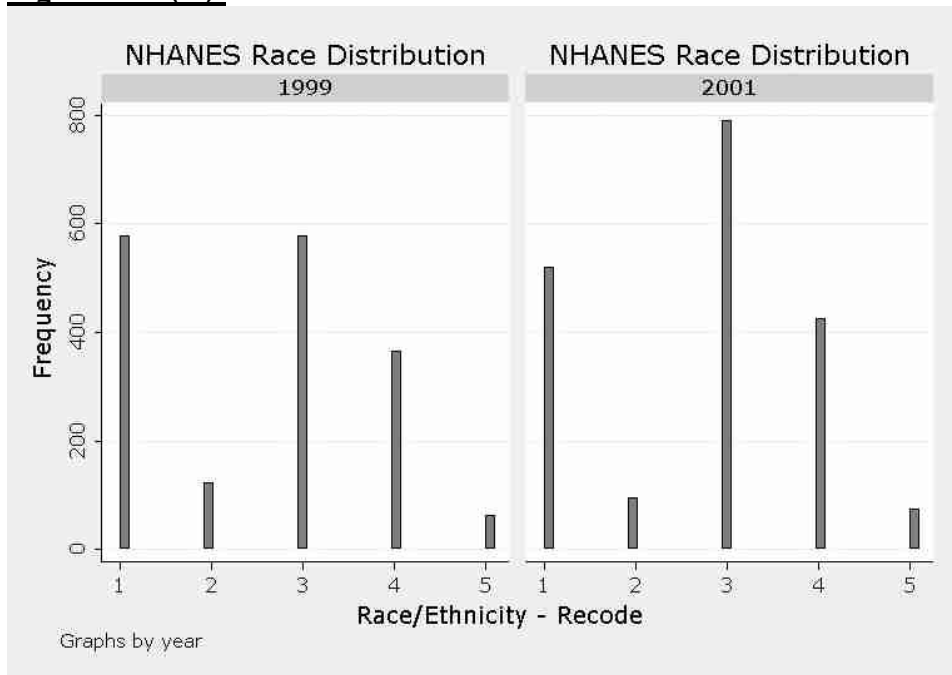


Figure 5.02(B): Distribution of race by survey group. Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

```
. tab ridreth1 year
```

Race/Ethnicity - Recode	year		Total
	19990-2000	2001-2	
1	578	521	1,099
2	123	96	219
3	578	791	1,369
4	365	425	790
5	64	75	139
Total	1,708	1,908	3,616

Figure 5.02(C):

```
. ttest race1,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999-2000	1708	.3384075	.0114525	.4733065	.3159452	.3608698
2001-2001	1908	.2730608	.0102024	.4456486	.2530517	.2930699
combined	3616	.303927	.0076499	.4600151	.2889284	.3189256
diff		.0653467	.0153378		.0352748	.0954186

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3511.71

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 4.2605	t = 4.2605	t = 4.2605
P < t = 1.0000	P > t = 0.0000	P > t = 0.0000

* More Mexican Americans in NHANES 1999-2000 as compared to 2001-20002.

Figure 5.02(D):

```
. ttest race2,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999-2000	1708	.0720141	.0062569	.2585869	.059742	.0842861
2001-2002	1908	.0503145	.0050057	.2186504	.0404973	.0601316
combined	3616	.0605642	.0039672	.2385621	.0527859	.0683424
diff		.0216996	.0080129		.005989	.0374102

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3359.47

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 2.7081	t = 2.7081	t = 2.7081
P < t = 0.9966	P > t = 0.0068	P > t = 0.0034

* More Hispanic in NHANES 1999-2000 as compared to 2001-20002.

Figure 5.02(E)

```
. ttest race3,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999	1708	.3384075	.0114525	.4733065	.3159452	.3608698
2001	1908	.4145702	.0112814	.4927768	.3924451	.4366953
combined	3616	.3785951	.0080672	.485104	.3627785	.3944118
diff		-.0761627	.0160757		-.1076811	-.0446444

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3596.13

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -4.7378	t = -4.7378	t = -4.7378
P < t = 0.0000	P > t = 0.0000	P > t = 1.0000

Group 1999 = NHANES survey group 1999-2000

Group 2001 = NHANES survey group 2001-2002

* More white in NHANES 2001-2001 as compared to 1999-2000.

Figure 5.02(F):

```
. ttest race4,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999	1708	.2137002	.0099216	.4100377	.1942405	.2331599
2001	1908	.2227463	.0095282	.4161985	.2040595	.2414331
combined	3616	.2184735	.0068725	.4132675	.204999	.2319479
diff		-.0090461	.0137559		-.0360162	.017924

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3581.05

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -0.6576	t = -0.6576	t = -0.6576
P < t = 0.2554	P > t = 0.5108	P > t = 0.7446

Group 1999 = NHANES survey group 1999-2000

Group 2001 = NHANES survey group 2001-2002

* No Difference in African American.

Figure 5.02(G):

```
. ttest race5,by(year) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999	1708	.0374707	.0045966	.1899679	.0284552	.0464863
2001	1908	.0393082	.00445	.1943781	.0305808	.0480355
combined	3616	.0384403	.0031976	.1922832	.0321709	.0447096
diff		-.0018375	.0063977		-.014381	.0107061

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3586.3

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

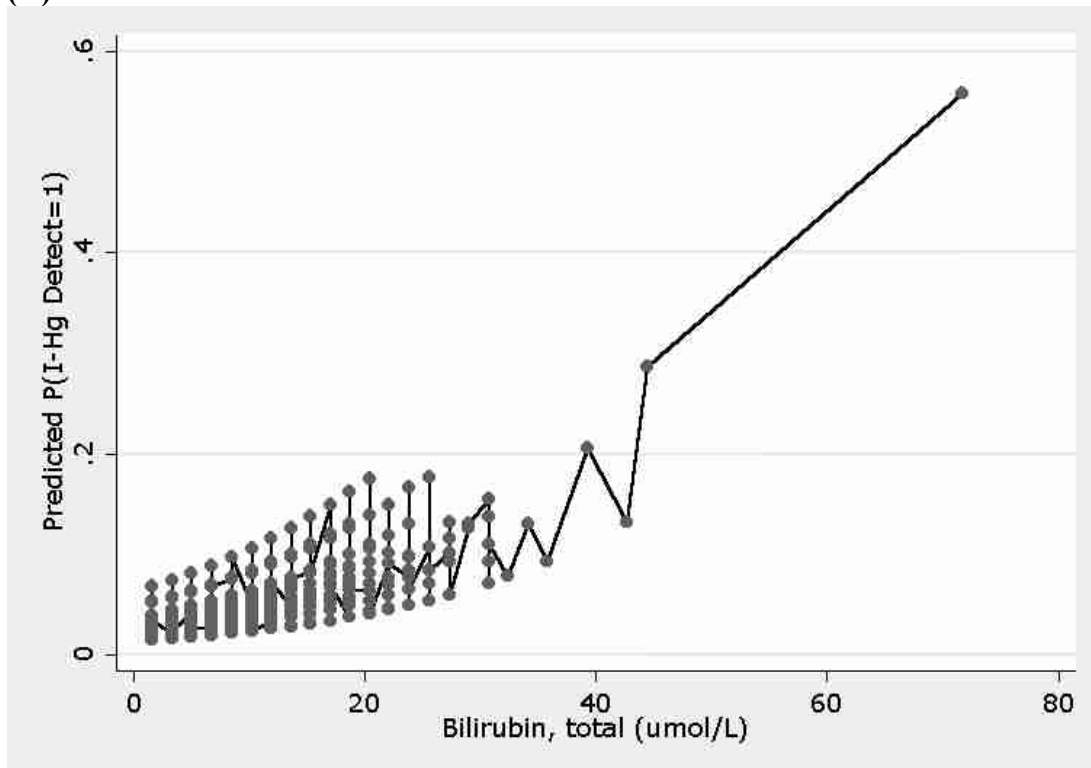
Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -0.2872	t = -0.2872	t = -0.2872
P < t = 0.3870	P > t = 0.7740	P > t = 0.6130

Group 1999 = NHANES survey group 1999-2000
Group 2001 = NHANES survey group 2001-2002
* NO difference in Other.

Figure 5.1: Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood Bilirubin (NHANES code= lbdstbsi) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002. (A) Graph of Probability of I-Hg Detection vs. Bilirubin concentration in survey weighted, full population. (B) T-Tests (C) Logistic Regression (D) Subpopulation Restricted by Age Group.

Blood Inorganic Mercury Detection (I-Hg Detect) is a transformed binary value (0 = non-detect 1= detection). Race is adjusted against baseline white population (race=3); race1= Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4= African American, race5= Other. Age is a continuous variable by decade.

(A)



(B): T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection. `ttest lbdstbsi, by(ihgdetect) unequal`

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	3404	8.419448	.0743729	4.339198	8.273628	8.565268
1	165	9.115152	.3208505	4.121399	8.481621	9.748682
combined	3569	8.451611	.0725009	4.331283	8.309464	8.593758
diff		-.6957038	.3293575		-1.345552	-.0458556

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 182.072

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0

t = -2.1123

P < t = 0.0180

Ha: diff != 0

t = -2.1123

P > |t| = 0.0360

Ha: diff > 0

t = -2.1123

P > t = 0.9820

Figure 5.1 (C): Logistic Regression of IHg Detection vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) in raw population, not survey weighted, adjusted for age(as a continuous variable by decade) and race (as categorical variables): **logistic ihgdetect lbdstbsi age race1 race2 race4 race5, ro**

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3569
                                                    Wald chi2(6)    =       25.52
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0003
Log pseudo-likelihood = -656.42986                Pseudo R2      =       0.0178
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.037123	.0137183	2.76	0.006	1.010581	1.064362
age	1.279832	.0902787	3.50	0.000	1.114576	1.46959
race1	1.514024	.3061603	2.05	0.040	1.018605	2.250399
race2	1.332001	.4771241	0.80	0.424	.6600905	2.687855
race4	1.90719	.3989699	3.09	0.002	1.265695	2.873816
race5	1.099776	.5246159	0.20	0.842	.4317813	2.801206

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Logistic Regression, Full Population.

```
. svylogit ihgdetect lbdstbsi ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtme4yr                                Number of obs   =       3569
Strata:    sdmvstra                              Number of strata =        28
PSU:       sdmvpsu                               Number of PSUs  =        57
                                                    Population size = 64701840
                                                    F( 6, 24)      =        3.39
                                                    Prob > F       =       0.0144
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.059576	.0267187	2.29	0.029	1.006315	1.115655
ridageyr	1.026967	.011736	2.33	0.027	1.003243	1.051253
race1	1.602393	.3844635	1.97	0.059	.9809683	2.61748
race2	1.570496	.5416908	1.31	0.201	.7756581	3.179824
race4	2.088547	.5296835	2.90	0.007	1.243302	3.508421
race5	1.064267	.5493903	0.12	0.905	.3702819	3.058926

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a one Std. Dev. Change in bilirubin (4.3)

1 std. dev. (4.3) of lbdstbsi

```
. lincom 4.3*lbdstbsi, or
```

```
( 1) 4.3 lbdstbsi = 0
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	1.28253	.1390654	2.29	0.029	1.027439	1.600954

Figure 5.1(D): Subpopulations Restricted by Age Groups (Decade): 40-49 Years**T-Test of I-Hg Detection v Bilirubin (lbdstbsi):** Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection

ttest lbdstbsi, by(ihgdetect) unequal

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	703	8.554908	.1514943	4.016742	8.257471	8.852344
1	47	10.22766	.5821878	3.991279	9.055776	11.39954
combined	750	8.659733	.1472627	4.032956	8.370637	8.94883
diff		-1.672752	.6015756		-2.879669	-.465835

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 52.4247

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -2.7806	t = -2.7806	t = -2.7806
P < t = 0.0038	P > t = 0.0075	P > t = 0.9962

Figure 5.1(D): Subpopulations Restricted by Age Groups (Decade): 40-49 Years

Logistic Regression of IHg Detection vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi),

Adjusted for race (as categorical variables):

logistic ihgdetect lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5, ro

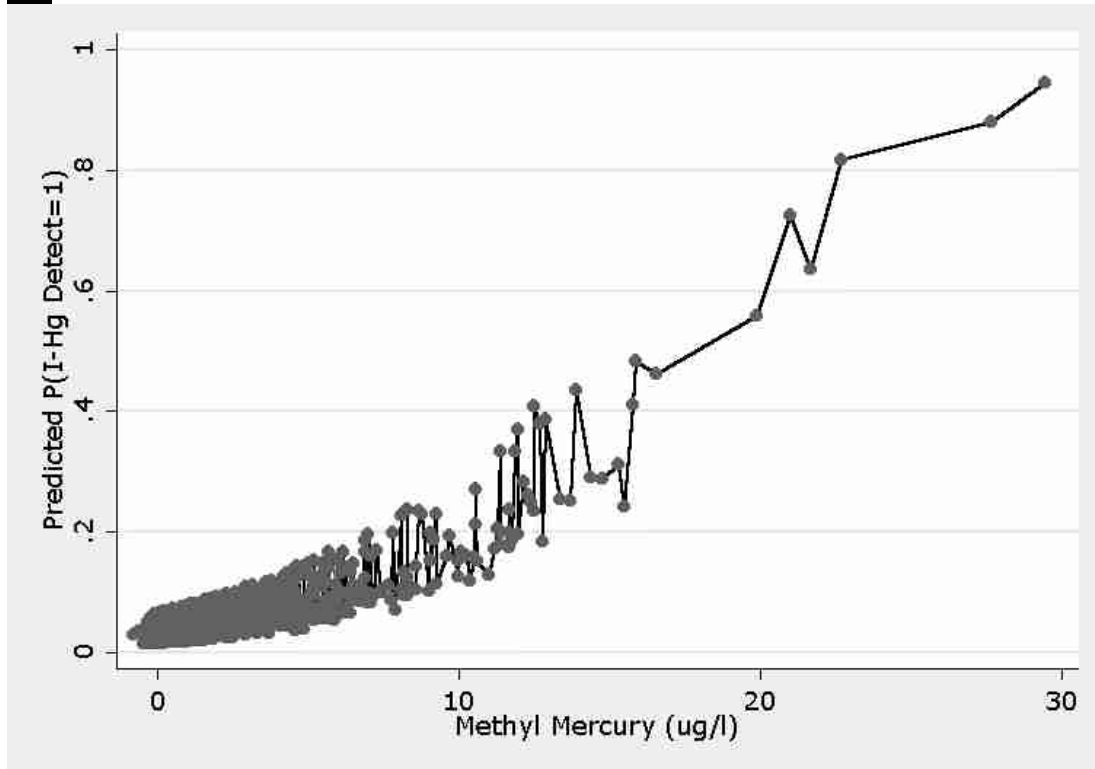
Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	750
	Wald chi2(5)	=	13.97
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0158
Log pseudo-likelihood = -169.95246	Pseudo R2	=	0.0326

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.086716	.0304171	2.97	0.003	1.028706	1.147998
race1	.9498615	.3738514	-0.13	0.896	.4391774	2.054379
race2	.45774	.4780005	-0.75	0.454	.059121	3.544021
race4	1.901341	.6930022	1.76	0.078	.9307081	3.884245
race5	.7126669	.7252421	-0.33	0.739	.0969763	5.237304

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Figure 5.11: Association Between Blood I-Hg and Blood Methyl Mercury in Women Ages 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002. (A) Graph of Probability of I-Hg Detect vs. CH₃Hg in survey weighted, full population. (B) T-Tests (C) Logistic Regression

(A)



(B): T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. CH₃Hg: `ttest ch3hg, by(ihgdetect) unequal`
Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	3445	1.057074	.0298966	1.754756	.9984571	1.115691
1	168	3.178036	.3927474	5.090589	2.402646	3.953426
combined	3613	1.155696	.034633	2.081726	1.087794	1.223598
diff		-2.120962	.3938837		-2.89853	-1.343394

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 168.941

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -5.3847	t = -5.3847	t = -5.3847
P < t = 0.0000	P > t = 0.0000	P > t = 1.0000

Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection

Figure 5.11(C): Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. CH₃Hg, adjusted for age (continuous variable by decade) and race (as categorical variable), in the raw population (not adjusted for survey weights).

```
. logistic inhgdetect ch3hg age race1 race2 race4 race4, ro
note: race4 dropped due to collinearity
Logistic regression
```

Number of obs	=	3613
Wald chi2(5)	=	109.05
Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Pseudo R2	=	0.0744

Log pseudo-likelihood = -628.97526

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ch3hg	1.248848	.0287297	9.66	0.000	1.193789	1.306446
age	1.159068	.0861953	1.98	0.047	1.001863	1.34094
race1	1.843868	.38285	2.95	0.003	1.227415	2.769928
race2	1.218353	.4844549	0.50	0.619	.5588677	2.656056
race4	1.893347	.3976641	3.04	0.002	1.254441	2.857657

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Logistic Regression, Full Population

```
svylogit inhgdetect ch3hg ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3613
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	65606783
		F(6, 24)	=	6.71
		Prob > F	=	0.0003

inhgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ch3hg	1.207132	.0375719	6.05	0.000	1.132684	1.286474
ridageyr	1.01788	.0118487	1.52	0.139	.9939333	1.042405
race1	1.807365	.4494428	2.38	0.024	1.086843	3.005559
race2	1.404565	.5511767	0.87	0.394	.6294826	3.134008
race4	1.95556	.47571	2.76	0.010	1.189049	3.216197
race5	.7499263	.4211956	-0.51	0.612	.2377627	2.36534

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

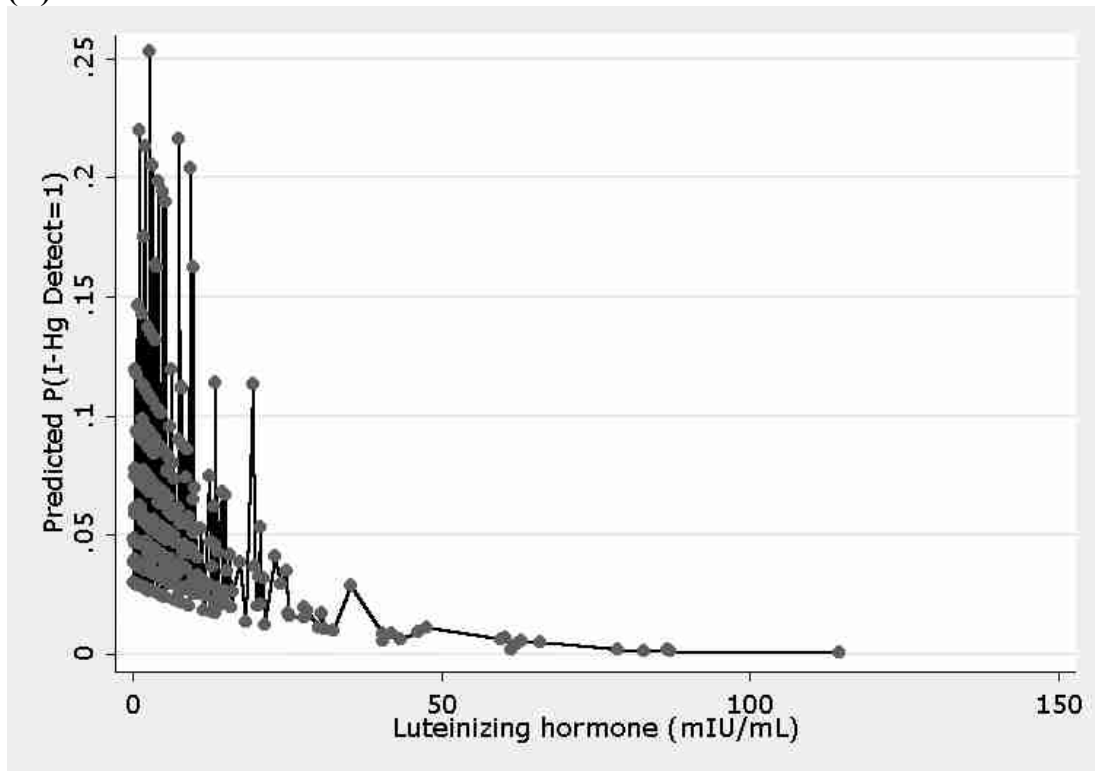
Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a one Std. Dev. Change in CH₃Hg

```
. lincom 2.1*ch3hg, or
( 1) 2.1 ch3hg = 0
```

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	1.484859	.0970539	6.05	0.000	1.299057	1.697236

Figure 5.2: Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood Leutenizing Hormone (LH) (NHANES* code= lbxlh) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002. (A) Graphs of probability I-Hg Detection vs. LH (B) T-Tests (C) Logistic Regression (D) Associations by Age Group. *LH was measured only in Women ages 35-49 years. Blood Inorganic Mercury Detection (I-Hg Detect) is a transformed binary value (0 = non-detect 1= detection). Race is adjusted against baseline white population (race=3); race1= Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4= African American, race5=Other. Age is a categorical variable by decade.

(A)



(B) T-Test of I-Hg Detect vs. Luteinizing Hormone (LH, lbxlh):

ttest lbxlh, by(ihgdetect) unequal: _Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	1065	13.69863	.5448433	17.7806	12.62954	14.76772
1	68	9.510882	1.375317	11.34115	6.765739	12.25603
combined	1133	13.44729	.519489	17.48603	12.42802	14.46656
diff		4.187747	1.479307		1.24864	7.126854

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 89.5415

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0

t = 2.8309

P < t = 0.9971

Ha: diff != 0

t = 2.8309

P > |t| = 0.0057

Ha: diff > 0

t = 2.8309

P > t = 0.0029

Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection

Figure 5.2 (C): Logistic Regression of IHg Detection vs. Leutenizing Hormone (lbxlh), adjusted for age, and race (both as categorical variables): `logistic ihgdetect lbxlh age race1 race2 race4 race5, ro`

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs    =      1133
                                                    Wald chi2(6)     =        9.35
                                                    Prob > chi2      =       0.1548
Log pseudo-likelihood = -251.89383                Pseudo R2       =       0.0207
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxlh	.9789097	.0093745	-2.23	0.026	.9607075	.9974569
age	1.233232	.3275048	0.79	0.430	.7328151	2.075368
race1	1.153093	.3827386	0.43	0.668	.6016318	2.21003
race2	1.937406	.9206802	1.39	0.164	.7633412	4.917253
race4	1.840847	.5810744	1.93	0.053	.9915867	3.417469
race5	.5507826	.5672278	-0.58	0.563	.0731752	4.14569

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

```
. lincom 17.5*lbxlh,or
```

```
( 1) 17.5 lbxlh = 0
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	.6886464	.1154087	-2.23	0.026	.4958444	.9564168

Figure 5.2 (D): Survey Weighted Logistic Regression of IHg Detection vs. Leutenizing Hormone (lbxlh), adjusted for age, and race (both as categorical variables): `. svylogit ihgdetect lbxlh race1 race2 race4 race5 age, eform`

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight: wtmecl4yr                                Number of obs    =      1133
Strata:   sdmvstra                                Number of strata =       28
PSU:      sdmvpsu                                Number of PSUs   =       57
                                                    Population size  = 29935892
                                                    F( 6, 24)       =       0.79
                                                    Prob > F        =       0.5848
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxlh	.9832166	.0119696	-1.39	0.175	.9590383	1.008004
race1	1.20121	.5533314	0.40	0.694	.4682302	3.081616
race2	2.171677	1.01612	1.66	0.108	.8340547	5.65452
race4	2.006589	.8146042	1.72	0.097	.8747172	4.603087
race5	.8077572	.7287655	-0.24	0.815	.1276175	5.112712
age	1.248843	.3151451	0.88	0.386	.7453542	2.092439

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

(D): Subpopulation Restricted by Age (Decade)**Age: 40 year olds**

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Leutenizing Hormone(LH, lbx1h): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detect

ttest lbx1h, by(ihgdetect) unequal

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	686	16.30109	.7279622	19.0665	14.87179	17.7304
1	45	11.45467	1.99966	13.41413	7.424617	15.48472
combined	731	16.00275	.6952312	18.79697	14.63786	17.36764
diff		4.846427	2.128044		.584063	9.10879

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 56.3716

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 2.2774	t = 2.2774	t = 2.2774
P < t = 0.9867	P > t = 0.0266	P > t = 0.0133

Figure 5.2 (D): Subpopulation Restricted by Age (Decade)**Age: 40 year olds**

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. LH(lbx1h), Adjusted for Race

logistic ihgdetect lbx1h race1 race2 race4 race5, ro

Logistic regression

Number of obs = 731

Wald chi2(5) = 7.89

Prob > chi2 = 0.1624

Log pseudo-likelihood = -164.72771

Pseudo R2 = 0.0255

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	.9810055	.0104006	-1.81	0.070	.960831	1.001604
race1	.9456699	.3814593	-0.14	0.890	.42893	2.084936
race2	.4776339	.4986906	-0.71	0.479	.0617118	3.696769
race4	1.925861	.7184311	1.76	0.079	.9270204	4.000927
race5	.7187846	.7531396	-0.32	0.753	.0921962	5.603821

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Subpopulation Restricted by Age (Decade)Age: 35-39 Years**T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Leutenizing Hormone(lbxlh):** Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection`_ttest lbxlh, by(ihgdetect) unequal`

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	379	8.9881	.7202012	14.02082	7.571998	10.4042
1	23	5.707826	.6250205	2.997493	4.411613	7.004039
combined	402	8.800423	.6809104	13.65221	7.461823	10.13902
diff		3.280274	.9535934		1.390109	5.170439

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 108.113

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 3.4399	t = 3.4399	t = 3.4399
P < t = 0.9996	P > t = 0.0008	P > t = 0.0004

Figure 5.2 (D): Subpopulation Restricted by Age (Decade)Age: 35-39 Years

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. LH (lbxlh), Adjusted for Race

`. logistic ihgdetect lbxlh ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro`

note: race5 != 0 predicts failure perfectly

race5 dropped and 11 obs not used

Logistic regression

Number of obs	=	391
Wald chi2(5)	=	10.13
Prob > chi2	=	0.0716
Pseudo R2	=	0.0614

Log pseudo-likelihood = -82.106098

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxlh	.9671564	.015385	-2.10	0.036	.9374677	.9977854
ridageyr	1.319748	.2117593	1.73	0.084	.9636335	1.807465
race1	1.656802	.9566202	0.87	0.382	.5343129	5.137425
race2	5.02426	3.131271	2.59	0.010	1.481077	17.04381
race4	1.522713	.9159575	0.70	0.485	.4683759	4.950412

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other

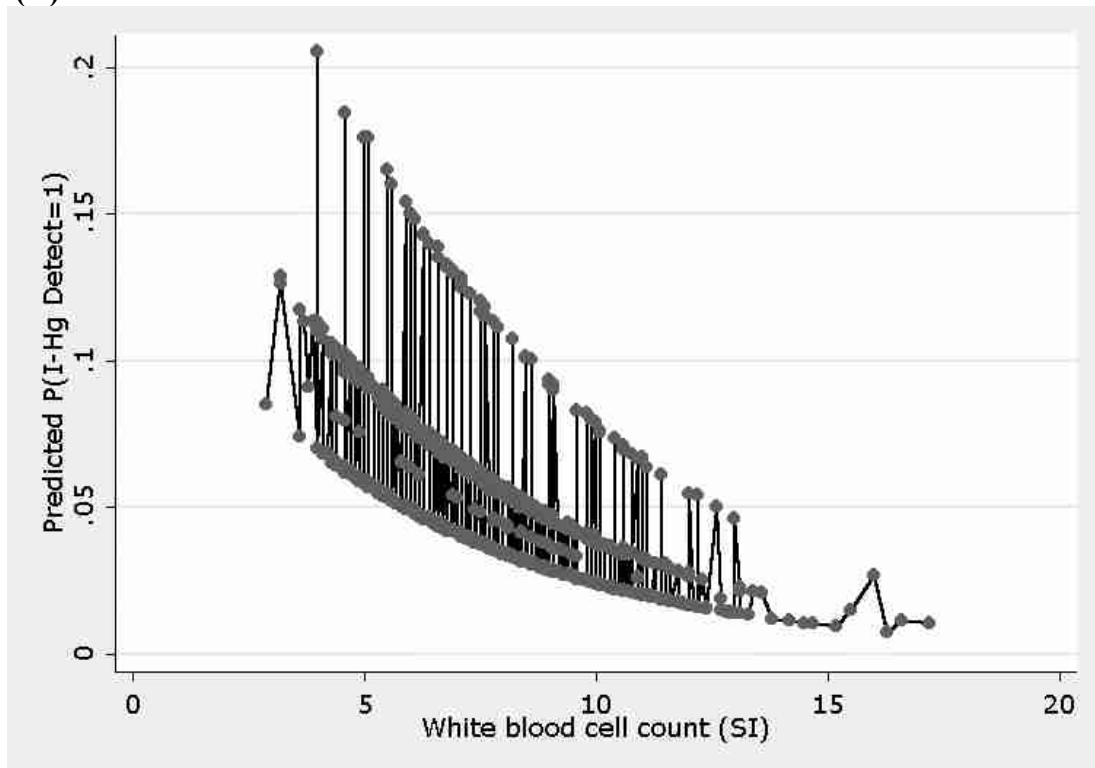
lincom 17.5*lbxlh, or

(1) 17.5 lbxlh = 0

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	.4692136	.1645339	-2.16	0.039	.2290362	.9612513

Figure 5.3: Association Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and Blood White Blood Cell Count (NHANES code= lbxwbc) in Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002. (A) Graph of Probability of I-Hg Detection vs. WBC concentration in survey weighted population restricted by age (30-39 Years). (B) T-Tests in full population. (C) Logistic Regression (D) Associations by Age Group. Blood Inorganic Mercury Detection (I-Hg Detect) is a transformed binary value (0 = non-detect 1= detection). Race is adjusted against baseline white population (race=3); race1= Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4= African American, race5=Other. Age is a continuous variable by decade.

(A)



(B): T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection

```
ttest lbxwbc, by(ihgdetect) unequal
Two-sample t test with unequal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	3446	7.827829	.0393217	2.308286	7.750733	7.904926
1	168	7.27619	.1729646	2.241878	6.934711	7.61767
combined	3614	7.802186	.0383898	2.307864	7.726918	7.877454
diff		.5516389	.177378		.2016912	.9015866

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 184.684

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0

t = 3.1100

P < t = 0.9989

Ha: diff != 0

t = 3.1100

P > |t| = 0.0022

Ha: diff > 0

t = 3.1100

P > t = 0.0011

Figure 5.3 (C): Raw Population (not survey weighted), Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc), Adjusted for Age, and Race:

```
. logistic ihgdetect lbxwbc age race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3614
                                                    Wald chi2(6)    =       26.53
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0002
Log pseudo-likelihood = -666.48533                Pseudo R2      =       0.0192
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.9141298	.0374174	-2.19	0.028	.8436577	.9904885
age	1.252531	.0869212	3.24	0.001	1.093246	1.435023
race1	1.507857	.3034488	2.04	0.041	1.016389	2.23697
race2	1.390447	.4952777	0.93	0.355	.6917612	2.794813
race4	1.743535	.3699397	2.62	0.009	1.150336	2.642633
race5	1.062462	.509891	0.13	0.900	.4147721	2.721557

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a one Std. Deviation Change in WBC (2.3).

```
. lincom 2.3*lbxwbc,or
( 1) 2.3 lbxwbcsi = 0
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	.8134261	.0765793	-2.19	0.028	.6763671	.9782587

Fig. 5.3(D): Subpopulation Restricted by Age (Decade): 30-39 Years.

Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc):

```
ttest lbxwbc, by(ihgdetect) unequal
Two-sample t test with unequal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	808	7.85297	.0812448	2.30941	7.693494	8.012446
1	47	7.178723	.3089168	2.117827	6.556906	7.800541
combined	855	7.815906	.0787704	2.303277	7.6613	7.970513
diff		.6742469	.3194218		.0334454	1.315048

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 52.5692

Ha: diff < 0	Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 2.1108	Ha: diff != 0	t = 2.1108
P < t = 0.9802	P > t = 0.0396	P > t = 0.0198

Fig. 5.3(D): Survey Weighted Logistic Regression in Subpopulation Restricted by Age: 30-39 Years.

```
svylogit inhgdetect lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, eform
Survey logistic regression
pweight:  wtmecl4yr          Number of obs    =      855
Strata:    sdmvstra          Number of strata =      28
PSU:       sdmvpsu          Number of PSUs  =      57
                               Population size = 20051629
                               F(   6,      24) =      1.75
                               Prob > F      =      0.1515
```

inhgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.8312639	.0748512	-2.05	0.049	.6914455	.9993551
race1	1.610803	.637804	1.20	0.238	.7167102	3.620274
race2	3.429905	1.85777	2.28	0.030	1.132872	10.38444
race4	1.676024	.8050182	1.08	0.291	.627552	4.476213
race5	1.288658	1.256531	0.26	0.797	.1754082	9.467287
ridageyr	.996067	.0759816	-0.05	0.959	.8521829	1.164245

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Odds Ratio of I-Hg Detection for a one Std. Deviation Change in WBC (2.3).

```
. lincom 2.3*lbxwbc, or
```

```
( 1)  2.3 lbxwbcsi = 0
```

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	.6537316	.1353903	-2.05	0.049	.4279996	.9985174

Figure 5.31: Logistic Regression of I-Hg using Categorical Explanatory Variables.**(A)** Age in years (ridageyr) was transformed into dummy variables for age in decades:

```

Age as a categorical variable (by decade)
. tabulate age, generate(age)

```

age	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
16-19	1,031	28.51	28.51
20-29	964	26.66	55.17
30-39	855	23.64	78.82
40-49	766	21.18	100.00
Total	3,616	100.00	

In regressions, dummy variables for age are compared to age 30-39 years as baseline.

(B)

```

. logistic ihgdetect lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, ro

```

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	3614
	Wald chi2(8)	=	26.45
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0009
Log pseudo-likelihood = -666.20121	Pseudo R2	=	0.0197

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.9127369	.0373821	-2.23	0.026	.8423328	.9890255
race1	1.529616	.3112128	2.09	0.037	1.026593	2.279115
race2	1.389981	.4941141	0.93	0.354	.6925028	2.789949
race4	1.750913	.3738802	2.62	0.009	1.152136	2.660881
race5	1.064738	.5115529	0.13	0.896	.415225	2.730248
16-19	.5612148	.1278824	-2.54	0.011	.359061	.8771825
20-29	.71706	.161101	-1.48	0.139	.4616544	1.113766
40-49	1.076266	.2301155	0.34	0.731	.7078235	1.636493

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Figure 5.31 (B):

```
. svylogit ihgdetect lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform
Survey logistic regression
```

```
pweight:  wtme4yr          Number of obs   =       3614
Strata:    sdmvstra        Number of strata =        28
PSU:       sdmvpsu         Number of PSUs  =        57
                                Population size = 65607099
                                F(      8,      22) =        3.73
                                Prob > F       =        0.0068
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.8904419	.0524145	-1.97	0.058	.7894437	1.004361
race1	1.600802	.4033067	1.87	0.072	.9562166	2.679904
race2	1.666735	.5495869	1.55	0.132	.8491453	3.27153
race4	1.862183	.5308828	2.18	0.037	1.039441	3.336147
race5	1.031224	.5312303	0.06	0.953	.3595709	2.957478
16-19	.4877849	.158218	-2.21	0.035	.2512588	.9469681
20-29	.6417564	.2156002	-1.32	0.197	.322824	1.275777
40-49	1.097802	.2880124	0.36	0.725	.6419382	1.877392

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Figure 5.31 (C):

```
logistic ihgdetect ch3hg race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, ro
```

```
Logistic regression          Number of obs   =       3613
                              Wald chi2(8)    =       109.17
                              Prob > chi2     =        0.0000
Log pseudo-likelihood = -628.89562          Pseudo R2      =        0.0745
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ch3hg	1.2496	.0293225	9.50	0.000	1.193431	1.308414
race1	1.809426	.3877436	2.77	0.006	1.188874	2.753884
race2	1.196198	.4790682	0.45	0.655	.5456367	2.622424
race4	1.855304	.4003774	2.86	0.004	1.215415	2.832081
race5	.839737	.428099	-0.34	0.732	.3091717	2.280798
16-19	.7563162	.1849112	-1.14	0.253	.4683751	1.221274
20-29	.842621	.1976134	-0.73	0.465	.5321163	1.334314
40-49	1.1629	.2571563	0.68	0.495	.7538988	1.79379

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Figure 5.31 (C):

```
. svylogit ihgdetect ch3hg race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtmec4yr      Number of obs   =      3613
Strata:    sdmvstra      Number of strata =        28
PSU:       sdmvpsu      Number of PSUs  =        57
                        Population size = 65606783
                        F(      8,      22) =        5.41
                        Prob > F       =        0.0008
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ch3hg	1.206252	.0367387	6.16	0.000	1.133405	1.28378
race1	1.845432	.4589492	2.46	0.020	1.109685	3.068998
race2	1.427256	.5493598	0.92	0.363	.6495548	3.136085
race4	1.965843	.47388	2.80	0.009	1.200699	3.218572
race5	.7542242	.415037	-0.51	0.612	.2447492	2.324233
age1	.6397023	.217165	-1.32	0.198	.3194791	1.280894
age2	.7502604	.2618714	-0.82	0.417	.367437	1.531938
age4	1.211545	.3804675	0.61	0.546	.6373877	2.302902

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
 Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49 years

Figure 5.31 (D):

```
. sum ch3hg
```

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
ch3hg	3613	1.155696	2.081726	-.8	29.5

```
. gen orgmerc=1
```

```
. replace orgmerc=2 if ch3hg>4
(233 real changes made)
```

```
. tabulate orgmerc, gen(orgmerc)
```

orgmerc	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
1	3,383	93.56	93.56
2	233	6.44	100.00
Total	3,616	100.00	

Orgmerc1= Low CH₃Hg < 3.0 ug/L, Orgmerc2= High CH₃Hg >= 3.0 ug/L

Figure 5.31 (D): Orgmerc1= Low CH₃Hg (< 3.0 ug/L), Orgmerc2= High CH₃Hg (>= 3.0 ug/L)

```
. logistic ihgdetected orgmerc2, ro
Logistic regression
```

Number of obs	=	3616
Wald chi2(1)	=	55.53
Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Pseudo R2	=	0.0321

Log pseudo-likelihood = -657.8553

ihgdetected	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
orgmerc2	4.500692	.9085179	7.45	0.000	3.030081	6.685046

```
. logistic ihgdetected orgmerc2 age1 age2 age4 race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
Logistic regression
```

Number of obs	=	3616
Wald chi2(8)	=	67.53
Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Pseudo R2	=	0.0450

Log pseudo-likelihood = -649.08423

ihgdetected	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
orgmerc2	4.374734	.9096862	7.10	0.000	2.910395	6.575841
age1	.6662871	.1541942	-1.75	0.079	.4233248	1.048695
age2	.7622536	.1735688	-1.19	0.233	.4878393	1.191028
age4	1.091314	.2342531	0.41	0.684	.7165347	1.662119
race1	1.675724	.3502589	2.47	0.014	1.112461	2.524179
race2	1.377718	.490328	0.90	0.368	.6858337	2.76759
race4	1.947021	.4100741	3.16	0.002	1.288528	2.942032
race5	.8537122	.4264922	-0.32	0.752	.3206812	2.272738

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

```
. svylogit ihgdetected orgmerc2 age1 age2 age4 race1 race2 race4 race5, eform
Survey logistic regression
pweight: wtmecl4yr
Strata: sdmvstra
PSU: sdmvpsu
```

Number of obs	=	3616
Number of strata	=	28
Number of PSUs	=	57
Population size	=	65642103
F(8, 22)	=	4.89
Prob > F	=	0.0014

ihgdetected	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
orgmerc2	3.699288	.9526756	5.08	0.000	2.184602	6.264177
age1	.5780129	.1951648	-1.62	0.115	.2897529	1.153047
age2	.6984534	.2433829	-1.03	0.312	.3424715	1.424461
age4	1.144424	.3251146	0.47	0.638	.6401073	2.046072
race1	1.736706	.4478806	2.14	0.041	1.024848	2.94302
race2	1.607539	.5296208	1.44	0.160	.8194534	3.153545
race4	2.050218	.5220258	2.82	0.009	1.217976	3.45113
race5	.773155	.4239733	-0.47	0.642	.2518772	2.373255

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Figure 5.31 (E):

```
. logistic ihgdetect lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3569
                                                    Wald chi2(8)    =       25.56
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0012
Log pseudo-likelihood = -656.21209                Pseudo R2      =       0.0182
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.037694	.0138795	2.77	0.006	1.010844	1.065257
race1	1.53539	.3148467	2.09	0.037	1.027239	2.294912
race2	1.330836	.4756784	0.80	0.424	.6605122	2.68144
race4	1.922521	.4069107	3.09	0.002	1.269727	2.910931
race5	1.100892	.5255784	0.20	0.840	.4318885	2.806196
age1	.543783	.1274973	-2.60	0.009	.3434392	.8609966
age2	.7151661	.1619664	-1.48	0.139	.4588091	1.114761
age4	1.119878	.2395275	0.53	0.597	.7363926	1.703067

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
 Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

```
. svylogit ihgdetect lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtme4yr                                Number of obs   =       3569
Strata:    sdmvstra                              Number of strata =        28
PSU:       sdmvpsu                                Number of PSUs  =        57
                                                    Population size = 64701840
                                                    F( 8, 22)      =        4.78
                                                    Prob > F       =       0.0017
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.059481	.0256805	2.38	0.024	1.008239	1.113327
race1	1.623043	.3904945	2.01	0.053	.9922627	2.654809
race2	1.576212	.5402249	1.33	0.195	.7819614	3.177195
race4	2.089179	.5250606	2.93	0.007	1.249515	3.493088
race5	1.058846	.537079	0.11	0.911	.3752277	2.987935
age1	.4659508	.1525191	-2.33	0.027	.2385592	.9100891
age2	.6482956	.2225899	-1.26	0.217	.3212195	1.308411
age4	1.15946	.3066337	0.56	0.580	.6750742	1.991406

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
 Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Figure 5.31 (F):

```
logistic ihgdetect bili2 age1 age2 age4  race1 race2  race4 race5, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3616
                                                    Wald chi2(8)    =       23.60
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0027
Log pseudo-likelihood = -667.58879                Pseudo R2      =       0.0178
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bili2	1.485919	.3131436	1.88	0.060	.983133	2.245835
age1	.5576656	.1278516	-2.55	0.011	.3558161	.8740215
age2	.6930073	.1558995	-1.63	0.103	.4459136	1.077023
age4	1.110222	.2351186	0.49	0.621	.7330704	1.681412
race1	1.555099	.3169455	2.17	0.030	1.042976	2.318686
race2	1.344317	.4780955	0.83	0.405	.6695436	2.699135
race4	1.945344	.4064932	3.18	0.001	1.291612	2.929955
race5	1.051052	.5019454	0.10	0.917	.4122116	2.679958

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Survey Weighted logistic regression:

```
. svylogit ihgdetect bili2  age1 age2 age4  race1 race2  race4 race5, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtmecl4yr                                Number of obs   =       3616
Strata:    sdmvstra                                Number of strata =        28
PSU:       sdmvpsu                                Number of PSUs  =        57
                                                    Population size = 65642103
                                                    F( 8, 22)      =        5.54
                                                    Prob > F       =       0.0007
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
bili2	1.951656	.5745968	2.27	0.031	1.068795	3.56379
age1	.4760667	.1523347	-2.32	0.028	.2474264	.9159876
age2	.6318899	.2144321	-1.35	0.187	.31566	1.264921
age4	1.134137	.3006678	0.47	0.638	.6594603	1.950483
race1	1.622397	.4016845	1.95	0.060	.9777825	2.69198
race2	1.53679	.5413768	1.22	0.232	.7476706	3.158776
race4	2.092386	.5263652	2.93	0.006	1.250824	3.500156
race5	.9854922	.4914865	-0.03	0.977	.3553632	2.732964

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Figure 5.31 (G):

```
. logistic ihgdetect lbx1h  luteage2  luteage3 race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       1133
                                                    Wald chi2(7)    =         9.68
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.2077
Log pseudo-likelihood = -251.94157                Pseudo R2      =       0.0205
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	.980807	.0092647	-2.05	0.040	.9628155	.9991347
luteage2	1.174513	.3223157	0.59	0.558	.6859095	2.01117
luteage3	.9338205	.3336956	-0.19	0.848	.4635443	1.881203
race1	1.153476	.3800244	0.43	0.665	.6047437	2.200116
race2	1.937199	.9160431	1.40	0.162	.7667728	4.894201
race4	1.842123	.5835344	1.93	0.054	.9901052	3.427332
race5	.5719054	.5928205	-0.54	0.590	.0749883	4.361691

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Survey Weighted Logistic Regression:

```
. svylogit ihgdetect lbx1h  luteage2  luteage3 race1 race2 race4 race5, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtme4yr                                Number of obs   =       1133
Strata:    sdmvstra                              Number of strata =         28
PSU:       sdmvpsu                                Number of PSUs  =         57
                                                    Population size = 29935892
                                                    F( 7, 23)      =         0.70
                                                    Prob > F       =       0.6718
```

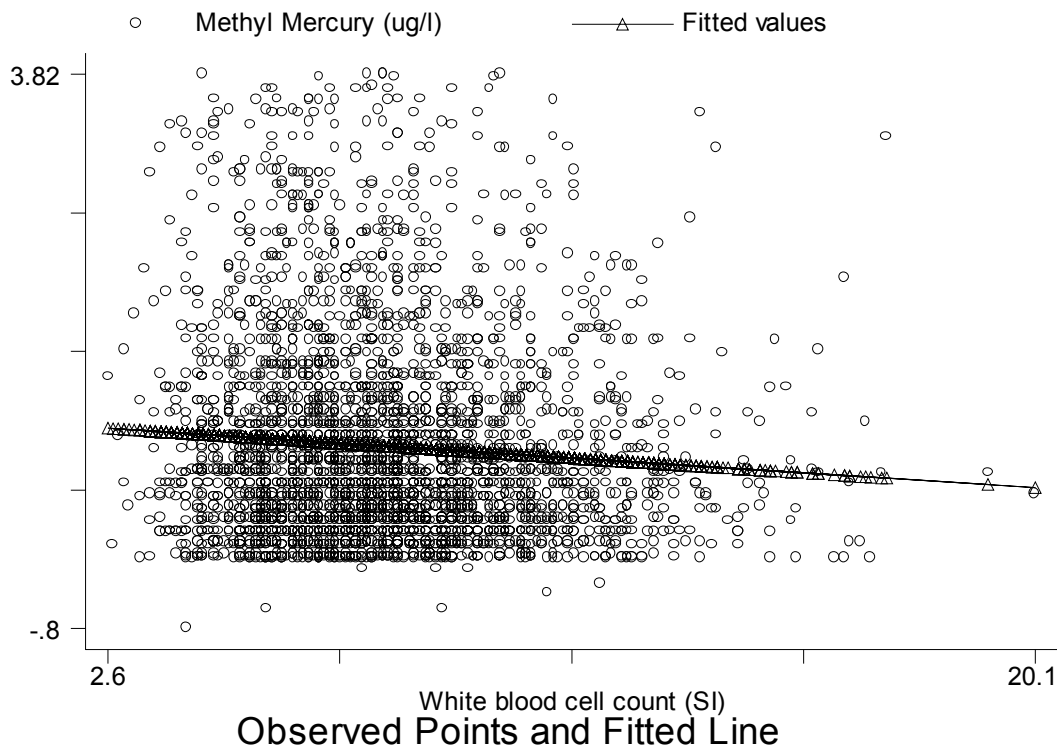
ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	.9846182	.0119633	-1.28	0.212	.9604519	1.009392
luteage2	1.282988	.3215149	0.99	0.328	.7684808	2.141964
luteage3	.9578207	.3252018	-0.13	0.900	.4783099	1.918046
race1	1.182553	.5487151	0.36	0.720	.4577973	3.054697
race2	2.165573	1.027591	1.63	0.114	.8205325	5.715442
race4	2.004461	.8160743	1.71	0.098	.8717113	4.609169
race5	.8596245	.8001178	-0.16	0.872	.1281043	5.768378

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Figure 5.5: Test of Rigor: Outliers Removed for Linear Regressions of Blood Methyl Mercury (ug/L) Versus Biochemical Profile Markers, Combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES. (A) CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cell (lbxwbc) (B) * Subpopulation Restricted by Age: 30-39 Years: CH₃Hg vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi).

*Adjusted for age (years) as a continuous variable (ridageyr) and race.

(A) CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cell (lbxwbc)



```
. regr ch3hg lbxwbc
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 3367		
Model	14.470942	1	14.470942	F(1, 3365) = 20.27		
Residual	2401.91396	3365	.713793154	Prob > F = 0.0000		
Total	2416.38491	3366	.717880246	R-squared = 0.0060		
				Adj R-squared = 0.0057		
				Root MSE = .84486		

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0283393	.006294	-4.50	0.000	-.0406798	-.0159989
_cons	.9439173	.0514406	18.35	0.000	.8430593	1.044775

Figure 5.5: Survey Weighted Regression of organic mercury to white blood cell (lbxwbc): Adjusted for age (ridageyr) as a continuous variable and race as a categorical variable.

```
. svyreg ch3hg lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

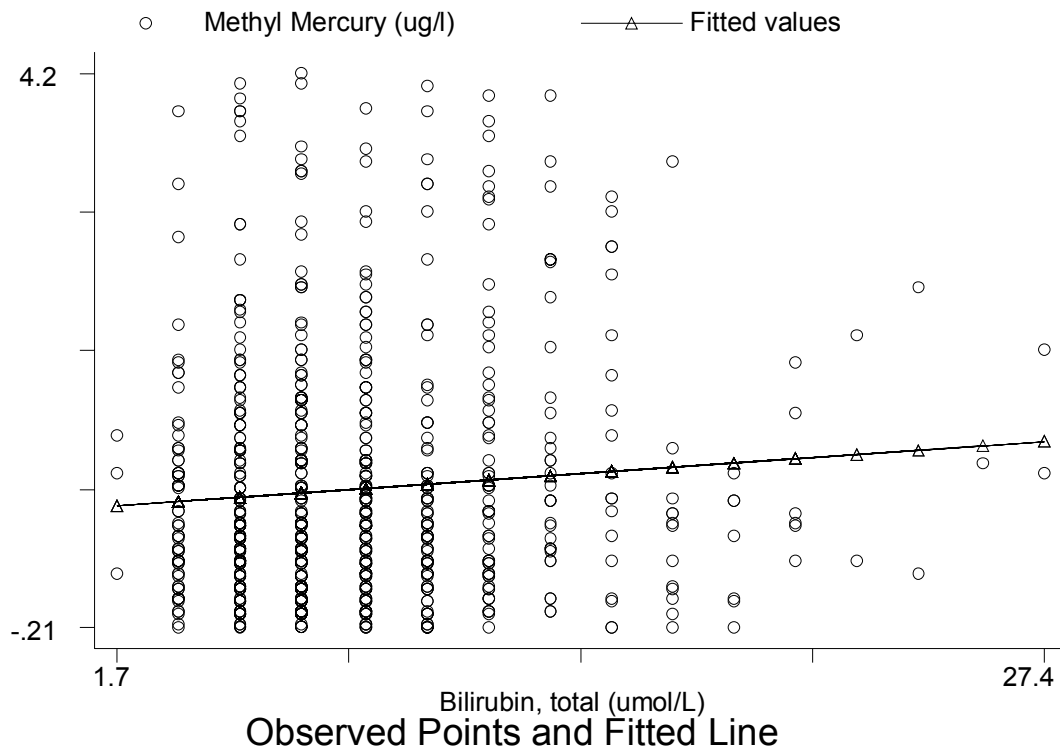
Survey linear regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3611
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	65571779
		F(6, 24)	=	10.65
		Prob > F	=	0.0000
		R-squared	=	0.0398

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0648348	.0276852	-2.34	0.026	-.1214575	-.0082121
race1	-.3514437	.1381687	-2.54	0.017	-.6340306	-.0688569
race2	.2687287	.3777198	0.71	0.482	-.503795	1.041252
race4	.2552534	.1904777	1.34	0.191	-.1343171	.644824
race5	1.149271	.3585909	3.20	0.003	.4158703	1.882672
ridageyr	.0336289	.0057833	5.81	0.000	.0218007	.0454572
_cons	.6797867	.2997267	2.27	0.031	.0667767	1.292797

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Ridageyr= age by year

Figure 5.5 (B) : Subpopulation Restricted by Age: 30-39 Years: CH₃Hg vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi).

Regression with robust standard errors

Number of obs = 771
 F(6, 764) = 5.03
 Prob > F = 0.0000
 R-squared = 0.0389
 Root MSE = .93249

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0217671	.008588	2.53	0.011	.0049082	.038626
ridageyr	.0209049	.011866	1.76	0.079	-.0023889	.0441987
race1	-.0575541	.0793951	-0.72	0.469	-.2134125	.0983044
race2	.1327266	.1394807	0.95	0.342	-.1410844	.4065375
race4	.3646939	.0917469	3.97	0.000	.1845879	.5447998
race5	.2688041	.2050045	1.31	0.190	-.1336349	.6712431
_cons	-.0896855	.4110679	-0.22	0.827	-.8966421	.7172711

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Ridageyr= age by year

Figure 5.8: Subpopulation restricted by Race: African American. Associations Between Blood Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg Detection) and biochemical profile markers in African American Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

(A) Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh) (B) White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc) (C) Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) (D) Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) (E) Urinary Mercury (Urxuhg)

Blood Inorganic Mercury Detection (I-Hg Detect) is a transformed binary value (0 = non-detect 1= detection). Age is a continuous variable by decade.

Fig 5.8 (A):

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh) : Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
. logistic ihgdetect lbxlh ridageyr, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =          253
                                                    Wald chi2(2)    =           6.02
                                                    Prob > chi2     =          0.0494
Log pseudo-likelihood = -70.217792                Pseudo R2      =          0.0297
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxlh	.9651255	.0147596	-2.32	0.020	.9366263	.9944918
ridageyr	1.069743	.0530011	1.36	0.174	.9707474	1.178834

O.R. of I-Hg Detection for a one std. dev. change in Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
. lincom 19*lbxlh, or
```

```
( 1) 19 lbxlh = 0
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf.Interval]	
(1)	.5094385	.1480259	-2.32	0.020	.2882444	.9003732

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh) : Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection. . ttest lbxlh, by(ihgdetect) unequal

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	232	15.86849	1.292604	19.68836	13.32169	18.41529
1	21	9.347143	1.781708	8.164812	5.630565	13.06372
combined	253	15.32719	1.199258	19.07536	12.96535	17.68904
diff		6.521349	2.201206		2.089242	10.95346

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 45.5023

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0

Ha: diff != 0

Ha: diff > 0

t = 2.9626

t = 2.9626

t = 2.9626

P < t = 0.9976

P > |t| = 0.0048

P > t = 0.0024

Fig 5.8 (B):

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
. logistic ihgdetect lbxwbc ridageyr, ro
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs   =      789
Wald chi2(2)    =        8.02
Prob > chi2     =       0.0181
Pseudo R2      =       0.0202
```

```
Log pseudo-likelihood = -182.54683
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.9155473	.0843254	-0.96	0.338	.7643317	1.096679
ridageyr	1.033485	.0133414	2.55	0.011	1.007665	1.059968

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
. ttest lbxwbc, by(ihgdetect) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf.Interval]	
0	739	6.933694	.0769922	2.092997	6.782544	7.084844
1	50	6.552	.3436804	2.430188	5.861348	7.242652
-----combined						
	789	6.909506	.075341	2.116265	6.761613	7.057399
diff		.3816942	.3521989		-.3244123	1.087801

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 54.0326

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = 1.0837	t = 1.0837	t = 1.0837
P < t = 0.8584	P > t = 0.2833	P > t = 0.1416

Fig 5.8 (C):

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
logistic ihgdetect lbdstbsi ridageyr, ro
```

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	775
	Wald chi2(2)	=	6.01
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0495
Log pseudo-likelihood = -176.83903	Pseudo R2	=	0.0176

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	1.036297	.0274212	1.35	0.178	.9839225	1.09146
ridageyr	1.033173	.0139897	2.41	0.016	1.006115	1.06096

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Bilirubin (lbdstbsi): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
. ttest lbdstbsi, by(ihgdetect) unequal
```

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	727	8.034388	.1559011	4.20355	7.728317	8.340459
1	48	8.591667	.489996	3.394792	7.605922	9.577411
combined	775	8.068903	.1493725	4.158355	7.77568	8.362126
diff		-.5572788	.5141996		-1.586961	.4724039

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 56.9596

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -1.0838	t = -1.0838	t = -1.0838
P < t = 0.1415	P > t = 0.2830	P > t = 0.8585

Fig 5.8 (D):

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
logistic ihgdetect ch3hg ridageyr, ro
Logistic regression
```

	Number of obs	=	789
	Wald chi2(2)	=	42.83
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log pseudo-likelihood = -164.55709	Pseudo R2	=	0.1168

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ch3hg	1.316371	.0603964	5.99	0.000	1.203163	1.440231
ridageyr	1.012119	.0150793	0.81	0.419	.9829913	1.04211

O.R. of I-Hg Detection for a one std. dev. change in Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
lincom 2.3*ch3hg, or
( 1) 2.3 ch3hg = 0
```

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	1.881786	.1985778	5.99	0.000	1.530192	2.314165

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

```
ttest ch3hg, by(ihgdetect) unequal
Two-sample t test with unequal variances
```

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	739	1.188769	.0589973	1.603816	1.072946	1.304591
1	50	4.324	.8892811	6.288167	2.536923	6.111077
combined	789	1.387452	.0831262	2.334945	1.224277	1.550628
diff		-3.135231	.891236		-4.925841	-1.344622

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 49.4322

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -3.5178	t = -3.5178	t = -3.5178
P < t = 0.0005	P > t = 0.0009	P > t = 0.9995

Fig 5.8 (E):

Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection vs. Urinary Mercury (Urxuhg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

logistic ihgdetect urxuhg ridageyr, ro

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	763
	Wald chi2(2)	=	36.98
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log pseudo-likelihood = -139.59274	Pseudo R2	=	0.2211

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
urxuhg	1.41625	.0868427	5.68	0.000	1.255872	1.597109
ridageyr	1.031682	.016913	1.90	0.057	.9990597	1.065369

O.R. of I-Hg Detection for a one std. dev. change in Urinary Mercury (Urxuhg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

lincom 3.4*urxuhg, or

(1) 3.4 urxuhg = 0

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
(1)	3.264946	.6806883	5.68	0.000	2.169773	4.912898

T-Test of I-Hg Detection vs. Urinary Mercury (Urxuhg): Group 0 = no I-Hg detection, Group 1=I-Hg detection.

ttest urxuhg, by(ihgdetect) unequal

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	715	1.376196	.0703363	1.880755	1.238105	1.514286
1	48	7.092917	1.523573	10.55563	4.027883	10.15795
combined	763	1.735832	.1260135	3.480803	1.488457	1.983207
diff		-5.716721	1.525196		-8.784675	-2.648767

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 47.2005

Ho: mean(0) - mean(1) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -3.7482	t = -3.7482	t = -3.7482
P < t = 0.0002	P > t = 0.0005	P > t = 0.9998

Figure 5.9: Subpopulation restricted by Race: African American. Associations Between Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) and biochemical profile markers in African American Women Age 16-49, NHANES 1999-2002.

(B) Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh) (B) White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc) (C) Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) (D) Urinary Mercury (Urxuhg)

Age is a continuous explanatory variable by decade.

5.9(A): Luteinizing Hormone (lbxlh)

```
regr ch3hg lbxlh ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      252
F( 2, 249) =      2.68
Prob > F      =    0.0708
R-squared     =    0.0125
Root MSE     =    3.0524
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxlh	-.0136017	.0061208	-2.22	0.027	-.0256568	-.0015466
ridageyr	.0738498	.0477687	1.55	0.123	-.0202325	.167932
_cons	-.7797043	1.868877	-0.42	0.677	-4.460527	2.901119

5.9(B): White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc)

```
regr ch3hg lbxwbc ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      788
F( 2, 785) =     23.04
Prob > F      =    0.0000
R-squared     =    0.0723
Root MSE     =    2.2532
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	.0070445	.0404868	0.17	0.862	-.0724307	.0865197
ridageyr	.0592879	.0087853	6.75	0.000	.0420424	.0765334
_cons	-.3602701	.3649487	-0.99	0.324	-1.076661	.3561208

5.9(C): Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)

```
regr ch3hg lbdstbsi ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      774
F( 2, 771) =    24.71
Prob > F      =    0.0000
R-squared     =    0.0746
Root MSE     =    2.2329
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0188002	.0174643	1.08	0.282	-.0154831	.0530834
ridageyr	.0596691	.0090406	6.60	0.000	.0419219	.0774163
_cons	-.4775358	.2991514	-1.60	0.111	-1.064784	.109712

5.9(D): Urinary Mercury (urxuhg)

```
regr ch3hg urxuhg ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      762
F( 2, 759) =    26.54
Prob > F      =    0.0000
R-squared     =    0.1556
Root MSE     =    2.1768
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
urxuhg	.1969935	.0560783	3.51	0.000	.0869065	.3070805
ridageyr	.054267	.0087737	6.19	0.000	.0370434	.0714905
_cons	-.4911032	.2136444	-2.30	0.022	-.9105073	-.0716991

Table 5.01: Descriptive statistics of Age (years) for women 16-49 years of age, by race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation
Total	3616	29.0	.171	10.3
Race Ethnicity				
Mexican American	1099	27.3	.311	10.3
Other Hispanic	219	29.0	.681	10.1
White	1369	30.6	.267	9.89
Black	790	28.7	.377	10.6
Other	139	28.4	.850	10.0

Table 5.02: Descriptive Statistics of I-Hg Detection (proportion of detection) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean *	Std. Error of Mean
Total	3616	.047	.004
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	1099	.049	.007
Other Hispanic	219	.046	.014
White	1369	.036	.005
Black	790	.063	.009
Other	139	.036	.016
Age(years)			
16-19	1031	.035	.006
20-29	964	.038	.006
30-39	855	.055	.008
40-49	766	.063	.009

- I-Hg Detection is defined as I-Hg concentrations above 0.4 ug/L. Mean Detection is presented as a proportion of detection within the population (i.e. 0.046 = 4.6% of the population had I-Hg detection with levels above the LOD. of 0.4 ug/L).
- The vast majority of samples had I-Hg levels below the limit of detection. NHANES gave a standard estimation of 0.3 ug/L for 1999-2000 and 0.28 ug/L for 2001-2 for all non-detects. As a result, there is no distribution of mean I-Hg levels that assume a standard estimate value in approximately 95% of the population.

Table 5.03: Descriptive statistics of blood CH₃Hg (ug/L) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total	3613	1.16	2.08
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	1099	.803	1.30
Other Hispanic	218	1.42	2.85
White	1368	1.20	2.18
Black	789	1.39	2.33
Other	139	1.80	2.67
Age(years)			
16-19	1030	.680	1.34
20-29	963	.964	1.74
30-39	855	1.56	2.64
40-49	765	1.59	2.41

Table 5.04: Descriptive statistics of Blood Bilirubin levels (umol/L) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean *	Std. Deviation
Total	3569	8.45	4.33
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	1088	8.30	3.94
Other Hispanic	216	8.91	5.87
White	1356	8.73	4.46
Black	775	8.07	4.16
Other	134	8.41	3.92
Age(years)			
16-19	1017	8.97	5.21
20-29	955	7.79	3.78
30-39	847	8.40	3.89
40-49	750	8.66	4.03

Table 5.05: Descriptive statistics of Blood Luteinizing Hormone (LH) levels (mIU/ml) for women 35-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean *	Std. Deviation
Total	1133	13.4	17.5
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	300	12.2	15.2
Other Hispanic	67	12.0	15.9
White	478	13.5	18.0
Black	253	15.3	19.1
Other	35	11.7	18.6
Age(years)			
16-19	0		
20-29	0		
30-39	402	8.80	13.7
40-49	731	16.0	18.8

Table 5.06: Descriptive statistics of White Blood Cell Count (SI) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean *	Std. Deviation
Total	3614	7.80	2.16
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	1099	8.00	2.10
Other Hispanic	218	8.28	2.30
White	1369	8.04	2.43
Black	789	6.91	2.12
Other	139	8.17	2.43
Age(years)			
16-19	1031	7.64	2.16
20-29	962	8.39	2.47
30-39	855	7.82	2.30
40-49	766	7.27	2.12

Table 5.07: Descriptive statistics of Urinary Mercury (ng/ml) for women 16-49 years of age, by age and race/ethnic group, combined 1999-2000 and 2001-2002 NHANES.

	Count	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total	3531	1.41	2.68
Race Ethnicity			
Mexican American	1083	1.47	3.20
Other Hispanic	213	1.58	2.11
White	1336	1.16	1.57
Black	763	1.74	3.48
Other	136	1.27	1.93
Age(years)			
16-19	1003	1.32	2.36
20-29	943	1.28	2.51
30-39	843	1.53	2.13
40-49	742	1.56	3.65

Table 5.1: Rate of Detection for Inorganic Mercury (I-Hg) in NHANES population by year.

Forms	Population	Years	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max
I-Hg Detect	Raw	1999-2000	1708	3% Detection	0.18	0	1
I-Hg Detect	Raw	2001-2	1908	6% Detection	0.24	0	1
I-Hg Detect	Survey Weighted	1999-2000	Inference to 31 million	2.2% Detection		0	1
I-Hg Detect	Survey Weighted	2001-2	Inference to 35 million	6.7% Detection		0	1

Table 5.21: Comparison of I-Hg Detection between the two Survey Groups, NHANES 1999-2000 (year1) and NHANES 2001-2002 (year2). (A) T-Test (B) Logistic Regression, raw populations. (C) Logistic Regression adjusted for age (ridageyr, continuous variable) and race (categorical variable), naïve estimate. (D) Logistic Regression adjusted for age and race, robust estimate (E) Random Effects model, longitudinal analysis (F) Survey Weighted MEANS (G) Survey weighted logistic regression.

Table 5.21: (A): I-Hg detection by survey group. Group 1999 = NHANES survey group 1999-2000, Group 2001 = NHANES survey group 2001-2002
`. ttest ihgdetect,by(year) unequal`

Two-sample t test with unequal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
1999	1708	.0322014	.0042728	.1765863	.0238209	.0405819
2001	1908	.0592243	.0054053	.2361059	.0486234	.0698252
combined	3616	.0464602	.0035007	.2105086	.0395966	.0533237
diff		-.0270229	.0068901		-.040532	-.0135138

Satterthwaite's degrees of freedom: 3505.66

Ho: mean(1999) - mean(2001) = diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff != 0	Ha: diff > 0
t = -3.9220	t = -3.9220	t = -3.9220
P < t = 0.0000	P > t = 0.0001	P > t = 1.0000

Table 5.21: (B) Logistic Regression, I-Hg Detection for NHANES 2001-2002 (year2) as compared to baseline population, NHANES 1999-2000 (Year1):

`. logistic ihgdetect year2`

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	3616
	LR chi2(1)	=	15.22
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0001
Log likelihood = -672.04233	Pseudo R2	=	0.0112

ihgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.892013	.317686	3.80	0.000	1.361444	2.629351

Table 5.21: (C) Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection for NHANES 2001-2002 (year2) as compared to baseline population NHANES 1999-2000 (Year1); adjusted for race, as a categorical variable, and age as a continuous variable in years(ridageyr): naïve estimate:

```
. logistic inhgdetect year2 race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3616
                                                    LR chi2(6)      =       36.09
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0000
Log likelihood = -661.60694                        Pseudo R2      =       0.0266
```

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.939744	.3277433	3.92	0.000	1.392911	2.701253
race1	1.606922	.3280307	2.32	0.020	1.077045	2.397484
race2	1.451428	.518192	1.04	0.297	.7209376	2.922088
race4	1.960732	.4070237	3.24	0.001	1.305327	2.945216
race5	1.083835	.5200382	0.17	0.867	.4231998	2.775753
ridageyr	1.025262	.0077308	3.31	0.001	1.010222	1.040527

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Ridageyr= age by year

Table 5.21: (D) Logistic Regression of I-Hg Detection for NHANES 2001-2002 (year2) as compared to baseline population NHANES 1999-2000 (Year1); adjusted for race, as a categorical variable, and age as a continuous variable in years(ridageyr): robust estimate:

```
. logistic inhgdetect year2 race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, ro
```

```
Logistic regression                                Number of obs   =       3616
                                                    Wald chi2(6)    =       41.79
                                                    Prob > chi2     =       0.0000
Log pseudo-likelihood = -661.60694                Pseudo R2      =       0.0266
```

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.939744	.32328	3.98	0.000	1.399208	2.689098
race1	1.606922	.3206966	2.38	0.017	1.086723	2.376133
race2	1.451428	.5157998	1.05	0.294	.7232702	2.912664
race4	1.960732	.4043851	3.26	0.001	1.308774	2.937457
race5	1.083835	.5172405	0.17	0.866	.4253463	2.761745
ridageyr	1.025262	.0073359	3.49	0.000	1.010984	1.039742

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Ridageyr= age by year

Table 5.21: (E) Random Effects model, longitudinal analysis of I-Hg detection for year2 as compared to year1, adjusted for race (ridreth1) as a categorical variable.

```
. xtlogit ihgdetect year2, or i(ridreth1) re
```

Fitting comparison model:

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -679.6543
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -672.19317
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -672.04241
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -672.04233
```

Fitting full model:

```
tau = 0.0 log likelihood = -672.04233
tau = 0.1 log likelihood = -671.34223
tau = 0.2 log likelihood = -672.18373
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -671.34223
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -671.06527
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -670.8494
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -670.72637
Iteration 4: log likelihood = -670.72327
Iteration 5: log likelihood = -670.72326
```

Random-effects logistic regression
Group variable (i): ridreth1

```
Number of obs      =      3616
Number of groups   =         5
```

Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian

```
Obs per group: min =      139
                avg  =     723.2
                max  =     1369
```

Log likelihood = -670.72326

```
Wald chi2(1)      =      15.09
Prob > chi2       =      0.0001
```

ihgdetect	OR	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.924639	.3244336	3.88	0.000	1.383131	2.678151
/lnsig2u	-3.34755	1.142699			-5.587199	-1.107902
sigma_u	.1875377	.1071496			.0612005	.5746747
rho	.0105774	.011959			.0011372	.0912266

Likelihood-ratio test of rho=0: chibar2(01) = 2.64 Prob >= chibar2 = 0.052

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Table 5.21: (F) Survey Weighted MEANS of I-Hg Detection, by Survey Group:

```
. svymean ihgdetect, by(year)
```

Survey mean estimation

```
pweight:  wtmec4yr      Number of obs   =      3616
Strata:    sdmvstra      Number of strata =       28
PSU:       sdmvpsu      Number of PSUs  =       57
                        Population size = 65642103
```

Mean	Subpop.	Estimate	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]		Deff
<hr/>						
ihgdetect						
	year==1999	.0223738	.0044452	.0132823	.0314653	1.540761
	year==2001	.0667028	.0113226	.0435454	.0898602	3.932265
<hr/>						

Table 5.21: (G) Survey weighted logistic regression

```
. svylogit ihgdetect year2 race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

```
pweight:  wtmec4yr      Number of obs   =      3616
Strata:    sdmvstra      Number of strata =       28
PSU:       sdmvpsu      Number of PSUs  =       57
                        Population size = 65642103
                        F(   6,      24) =       7.28
                        Prob > F      =       0.0002
```

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	3.192289	.8497688	4.36	0.000	1.852082	5.502302
race1	1.613499	.4257961	1.81	0.080	.9405196	2.768023
race2	1.651324	.6109662	1.36	0.186	.774817	3.519373
race4	2.095875	.5439684	2.85	0.008	1.232626	3.563684
race5	1.033402	.5465218	0.06	0.951	.3503658	3.048013
ridageyr	1.025802	.0110067	2.37	0.024	1.003536	1.048562

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Ridageyr= age by year

Table 5.22: Risk of I-Hg Detection for Survey Group 2001-2002 versus 1999-2000

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P- Value
Logistic	Survey	Wtmec4yr	3.2	0.85	<0.001

Table 5.23: Risk of I-Hg Detection for Survey Group 2001-2002 (year2) versus 1999-2000 (year1) Using Categorical variables for Age.

(A): Naïve estimate:

```
. logistic ihgdetetect year2  race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4
```

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	3616
	LR chi2(8)	=	37.24
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log likelihood = -661.0346	Pseudo R2	=	0.0274

ihgdetetect	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.943959	.3286112	3.93	0.000	1.39572	2.707548
race1	1.623991	.3331982	2.36	0.018	1.086277	2.427877
race2	1.452066	.5185198	1.04	0.296	.7211571	2.923768
race4	1.967366	.4103545	3.24	0.001	1.307197	2.960938
race5	1.069029	.5130146	0.14	0.889	.4173569	2.738238
age1	.5667871	.1303831	-2.47	0.014	.3610858	.8896709
age2	.6684062	.1514851	-1.78	0.075	.4286741	1.042206
age4	1.109508	.2362925	0.49	0.626	.7308862	1.684268

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Table 5.23 (B): Robust estimate:

```
. logistic ihgdetetect year2  race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, ro
```

Logistic regression	Number of obs	=	3616
	Wald chi2(8)	=	41.65
	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
Log pseudo-likelihood = -661.0346	Pseudo R2	=	0.0274

ihgdetetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	1.943959	.324671	3.98	0.000	1.401275	2.696813
race1	1.623991	.3279605	2.40	0.016	1.093165	2.412578
race2	1.452066	.5154446	1.05	0.293	.7241567	2.911657
race4	1.967366	.4096737	3.25	0.001	1.308084	2.958931
race5	1.069029	.5097315	0.14	0.889	.4198767	2.721805
age1	.5667871	.1291647	-2.49	0.013	.3626104	.8859305
age2	.6684062	.1510955	-1.78	0.075	.4291642	1.041016
age4	1.109508	.2359994	0.49	0.625	.7312647	1.683397

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Table 5.23 (C): Survey Weighted Population:

```
. svylogit ihgdetect year2 race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform
```

Survey logistic regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3616
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	65642103
		F(8, 22)	=	5.84
		Prob > F	=	0.0005

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
year2	3.227128	.8597735	4.40	0.000	1.871427	5.564928
race1	1.639983	.4345437	1.87	0.072	.9538624	2.819634
race2	1.664271	.6081792	1.39	0.174	.7881971	3.514092
race4	2.094948	.5402282	2.87	0.008	1.236298	3.549958
race5	1.012761	.5312893	0.02	0.981	.3463735	2.961208
age1	.4668655	.1488628	-2.39	0.024	.2432058	.8962098
age2	.5854915	.2036276	-1.54	0.135	.2874771	1.192444
age4	1.085844	.2896951	0.31	0.760	.6292077	1.873878

year2= NHANES survey years 2001-2002

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Table 5.3: Mean Values for Mercury forms and Biochemical Profile Markers in the NHANES combined population, 1999-2002.

Form	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
I-Hg Detection	3616	4.6% Detection	0.21	0	1
CH ₃ Hg	3613	1.15 (ug/L)	2.1	0	29.5
Urinary Mercury	3531	1.4 (ng/ml)	2.7	.1	68.51
Bilirubin	3569	8.45 (umol/L)	4.3	1.7	72
White Blood Cell Count	3614	7.8 (SI)	2.3	2.6	20.1
Luteinizing hormone (LH)	1133	13.4 (mIU/mL)	17.5	.1	129

Table 5.4: Marginal Model Associations With Mercury by Form American Women, Ages 16-49 (NHANES, 1999-2002).

Biochemical Profile Variable	Association with Mercury	I-Hg Detection	CH ₃ Hg	Urinary Mercury
Bilirubin	Yes, Direct	Yes, Direct	Yes, Direct	Yes, Direct
White Blood Cell Count	Yes, Inverse	Yes, Inverse 30-39 Years	Yes, Inverse	Yes, Inverse Association in Raw population
Luteinizing hormone	Yes, Inverse	Yes, Inverse 35-39 Years	Yes, Inverse	No Association

Table 5.5: I-Hg detection and Bilirubin

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P Value
Logistic	Adjusted, Raw Population	Robust	1.04	0.014	0.006
Logistic	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	1.06	0.027	0.029

Table 5.6: I-Hg detection and White Blood Cell Count

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P Value
Logistic	Adjusted, Raw Population	Robust	0.92	0.037	0.029
Logistic	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	0.89	0.053	0.059

Table 5.61: I-Hg detection and Luteinizing hormone (LH)

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P Value
Logistic	Adjusted, Raw Population	Robust	0.979	0.009	0.026

Table 5.62: Blood I-Hg Detection and Urinary Mercury

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P Value
Logistic	Adjusted, Raw Population	Robust	1.39	0.039	<0.001
Logistic	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	1.33	0.0631	<0.001

Table 5.63: Blood I-Hg Detection and CH₃Hg

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	O.R.	Std. Error	P Value
Logistic	Adjusted, Raw Population	Robust	1.25	0.029	<0.001
Logistic	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	1.21	0.0376	<0.001

Table 5.7: Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) and Luteinizing hormone (LH)

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Regression	Survey	Wtmec4yr	-0.011	0.004	0.006

Table 5.71: Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) and Bilirubin

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Regression	Raw, adjusted	robust	0.029	0.008	<0.001
Regression	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	0.044	0.018	0.018

Table 5.712: Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) and White Blood Cell Count

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Regression	Raw, adjusted	Robust	-0.052	0.014	<0.001
Regression	Survey Weighted	Wtmec4yr	-0.065	0.028	0.026

Table 5.72: Linear Regressions of Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) to Biochemical Profile Markers, Women Age 16-49 Years, NHANES 1999-2000 & 2001-2002 Combined Population. (A) Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) (B) Leutenizing Hormone (lbxlh) * (C) White Blood Cells (lbxwbc). Adjusted for Age in years (ridageyr) as a continuous variable. Dummy variables for race are compared to the baseline, white population; race1=Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4=African American, race5= Other.

*LH measured in subpopulation, Ages 35-49 years.

(A)

```
regr ch3hg lbdstbsi ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs = 3566
F( 6, 3559) = 26.42
Prob > F = 0.0000
R-squared = 0.0517
Root MSE = 2.0253
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0294591	.0084044	3.51	0.000	.0129811	.045937
ridageyr	.0370246	.003375	10.97	0.000	.0304074	.0436417
race1	-.2619715	.069337	-3.78	0.000	-.3979157	-.1260272
race2	.2789491	.2030637	1.37	0.170	-.1191838	.677082
race4	.2745151	.1011532	2.71	0.007	.0761911	.4728391
race5	.6317864	.2282889	2.77	0.006	.1841962	1.079377
_cons	-.1901475	.1250077	-1.52	0.128	-.4352414	.0549463

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Regression:

```
svyreg ch3hg lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

pweight: wtmecl4yr

Strata: sdmvstra

PSU: sdmvpsu

```
Number of obs = 3566
Number of strata = 28
Number of PSUs = 57
Population size = 64666519
F( 6, 24) = 8.32
Prob > F = 0.0001
R-squared = 0.0406
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0441854	.0176249	2.51	0.018	.0081384	.0802324
race1	-.3377264	.1376161	-2.45	0.020	-.6191828	-.0562699
race2	.2415385	.4007183	0.60	0.551	-.5780224	1.061099
race4	.3370606	.1775659	1.90	0.068	-.0261025	.7002238
race5	1.042425	.3823843	2.73	0.011	.2603611	1.824488
ridageyr	.0352444	.0062074	5.68	0.000	.0225488	.04794
_cons	-.2629977	.2428089	-1.08	0.288	-.7595976	.2336021

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other

Table 5.72 (B):

```
. regress ch3hg lbx1h ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =    1132
F(   6,   1125) =     7.22
Prob > F       =    0.0000
R-squared      =    0.0350
Root MSE      =    2.4835
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	-.0085914	.0031118	-2.76	0.006	-.0146969	-.0024858
ridageyr	.0266999	.0181733	1.47	0.142	-.0089575	.0623572
race1	-.5135549	.1404104	-3.66	0.000	-.7890507	-.2380592
race2	.3219232	.4711148	0.68	0.495	-.6024392	1.246286
race4	.5608793	.221245	2.54	0.011	.12678	.9949786
race5	1.38178	.5115431	2.70	0.007	.3780946	2.385466
_cons	.5471325	.7468238	0.73	0.464	-.9181918	2.012457

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighed Regression:

```
. svyreg ch3hg lbx1h race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

```
pweight:  wtmecl4yr
Strata:    sdmvstra
PSU:       sdmvpsu
```

```
Number of obs    =    1132
Number of strata =     28
Number of PSUs   =     57
Population size   = 29923099
F(   6,   24)    =     4.94
Prob > F         =    0.0020
R-squared        =    0.0247
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	-.0108912	.0036663	-2.97	0.006	-.0183897	-.0033927
race1	-.6052247	.2029188	-2.98	0.006	-1.02024	-.1902092
race2	.343313	.788399	0.44	0.666	-1.269144	1.95577
race4	.5046719	.2783463	1.81	0.080	-.0646102	1.073954
race5	1.330827	.6130145	2.17	0.038	.0770721	2.584583
ridageyr	.01893	.0321906	0.59	0.561	-.0469071	.0847672
_cons	.9352752	1.268819	0.74	0.467	-1.659752	3.530302

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.72 (C):

```
. regress ch3hg lbxwbc ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =    3611
F(   6,   3604) =    29.31
Prob > F       =    0.0000
R-squared      =    0.0519
Root MSE      =    2.0292
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0521023	.0141182	-3.69	0.000	-.0797828	-.0244217
ridageyr	.0357987	.0033716	10.62	0.000	.0291882	.0424092
race1	-.2784288	.0697395	-3.99	0.000	-.4151616	-.1416961
race2	.2924682	.2009245	1.46	0.146	-.1014688	.6864052
race4	.1994858	.1059372	1.88	0.060	-.0082171	.4071886
race5	.6920375	.2263871	3.06	0.002	.248178	1.135897
_cons	.5222849	.1760035	2.97	0.003	.1772084	.8673613

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Regression:

```
. svyreg ch3hg lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

```
pweight:  wtmec4yr      Number of obs    =    3611
Strata:    sdmvstra      Number of strata =     28
PSU:       sdmvpsu       Number of PSUs  =     57
Population size = 65571779
F(   6,   24) =    10.65
Prob > F       =    0.0000
R-squared      =    0.0398
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0648348	.0276852	-2.34	0.026	-.1214575	-.0082121
race1	-.3514437	.1381687	-2.54	0.017	-.6340306	-.0688569
race2	.2687287	.3777198	0.71	0.482	-.503795	1.041252
race4	.2552534	.1904777	1.34	0.191	-.1343171	.644824
race5	1.149271	.3585909	3.20	0.003	.4158703	1.882672
ridageyr	.0336289	.0057833	5.81	0.000	.0218007	.0454572
_cons	.6797867	.2997267	2.27	0.031	.0667767	1.292797

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.73: Linear Regressions of Blood Organic Mercury (CH₃Hg) to Biochemical Profile Markers, in subpopulations of Women grouped by Age in Years, NHANES 1999-2000 & 2001-2002 Combined Population. (A) Ages 40-49 Years; CH₃Hg vs Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) (B) Ages 40-49 Years; CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc) (C) Ages 35-39; CH₃Hg vs Bilirubin (lbdstbsi) (D) Ages 30-39; CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cells (lbxwbc). (E) Ages 30-39; CH₃Hg vs. Luteinizing Hormone (LH) (lbxlh). Adjusted for Age in years (ridageyr) as a continuous variable. Dummy variables for race are compared to the baseline, white population; race1=Mexican American, race2=Hispanic, race3=White, race4=African American, race5= Other.

(A) Ages 40-49 Years; CH₃Hg vs Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)

```
regr ch3hg lbdstbsi ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      749
F(   6,   742) =      4.00
Prob > F       =    0.0006
R-squared      =    0.0378
Root MSE     =    2.3737
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0336363	.0217365	1.55	0.122	-.009036	.0763087
ridageyr	.0431208	.0308483	1.40	0.163	-.0174395	.1036811
race1	-.4031824	.1665817	-2.42	0.016	-.73021	-.0761547
race2	-.3321979	.2180767	-1.52	0.128	-.7603186	.0959229
race4	.6507238	.2979537	2.18	0.029	.0657912	1.235657
race5	1.168833	.6060024	1.93	0.054	-.0208509	2.358516
_cons	-.6696384	1.431362	-0.47	0.640	-3.47964	2.140364

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

(B) Ages 40-49 Years; CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cell Count (lbxwbc)

```
. regr ch3hg lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      765
F(   5,   759) =      5.57
Prob > F       =    0.0000
R-squared      =    0.0358
Root MSE     =    2.3672
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0648807	.0431991	-1.50	0.134	-.1496846	.0199231
race1	-.4284151	.1659874	-2.58	0.010	-.7542641	-.1025662
race2	-.2735482	.2156087	-1.27	0.205	-.6968083	.149712
race4	.559665	.2917654	1.92	0.055	-.0130981	1.132428
race5	1.21452	.5871536	2.07	0.039	.0618823	2.367158
_cons	2.02657	.3513744	5.77	0.000	1.336789	2.716351

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.73 (C): Ages 30-39; CH₃Hg vs Bilirubin (lbdstbsi)

```
. regress ch3hg lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      847
F(   5,   841) =      8.60
Prob > F       =     0.0000
R-squared      =     0.0381
Root MSE      =     2.5801
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0836107	.0264533	3.16	0.002	.0316884	.1355329
race1	-.6452009	.1596354	-4.04	0.000	-.9585315	-.3318703
race2	.5378101	.5665725	0.95	0.343	-.574252	1.649872
race4	.405491	.2375085	1.71	0.088	-.0606879	.8716699
race5	.5536321	.4558753	1.21	0.225	-.3411548	1.448419
_cons	.8431566	.2243168	3.76	0.000	.4028702	1.283443

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Regression:

```
. svyreg ch3hg lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

```
pweight:  wtmecl4yr      Number of obs    =      847
Strata:    sdmvstra      Number of strata =       28
PSU:       sdmvpsu       Number of PSUs  =       57
                        Population size = 19914496
                        F(   6,   24) =       5.87
                        Prob > F      =     0.0007
                        R-squared     =     0.0423
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.1143499	.0259214	4.41	0.000	.0613347	.1673651
race1	-.6280074	.2281058	-2.75	0.010	-1.094536	-.1614786
race2	.872882	.8786158	0.99	0.329	-.9240891	2.669853
race4	.3136023	.3039881	1.03	0.311	-.3081232	.9353278
race5	.6200551	.6932843	0.89	0.378	-.7978705	2.037981
ridageyr	.0235316	.0310718	0.76	0.455	-.0400173	.0870806
_cons	-.2746783	1.154181	-0.24	0.814	-2.635243	2.085886

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.73 (D): Ages 30-39; CH₃Hg vs. White Blood Cells (lbxwbc).

```
. regress ch3hg lbxwbc race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      855
F(   5,   849) =      8.62
Prob > F       =    0.0000
R-squared      =    0.0270
Root MSE      =    2.6123
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbxwbcsi	-.0723845	.034076	-2.12	0.034	-.1392676	-.0055014
race1	-.6988591	.1641941	-4.26	0.000	-1.021133	-.3765851
race2	.5749902	.5620753	1.02	0.307	-.5282298	1.67821
race4	.2581545	.2548571	1.01	0.311	-.2420693	.7583782
race5	.5429921	.4732027	1.15	0.252	-.3857922	1.471776
_cons	2.155493	.3399598	6.34	0.000	1.488233	2.822754

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.73 (E): Ages 35-39; CH₃Hg vs. Luteinizing Hormone Hormone (LH) (lbx1h).

```
. regress ch3hg lbx1h ridageyr race1 race2 race4 race5, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

```
Number of obs =      402
F(   6,   395) =      3.90
Prob > F       =    0.0009
R-squared      =    0.0517
Root MSE      =    2.6266
```

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	-.0135734	.0054831	-2.48	0.014	-.0243531	-.0027937
ridageyr	.1148142	.090477	1.27	0.205	-.0630625	.2926908
race1	-.5843171	.2416931	-2.42	0.016	-1.059483	-.1091514
race2	1.18767	1.032845	1.15	0.251	-.8428913	3.21823
race4	.484276	.3134363	1.55	0.123	-.131936	1.100488
race5	1.983898	.9693392	2.05	0.041	.0781892	3.889607
_cons	-2.64772	3.252748	-0.81	0.416	-9.042583	3.747143

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.73 (E): Ages 35-39

Survey Weighted Regression:

svyreg ch3hg lbx1h race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr

Survey linear regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	402
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	10138006
		F(6, 24)	=	2.27
		Prob > F	=	0.0705
		R-squared	=	0.0590

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbx1h	-.0210409	.0075129	-2.80	0.009	-.0364064	-.0056753
race1	-.6864714	.3147743	-2.18	0.037	-1.330257	-.0426857
race2	1.608213	1.49481	1.08	0.291	-1.449016	4.665442
race4	.4258422	.4332328	0.98	0.334	-.4602183	1.311903
race5	1.972353	1.334098	1.48	0.150	-.7561838	4.700891
ridageyr	.1712217	.1470553	1.16	0.254	-.1295403	.4719836
_cons	-4.64519	5.214143	-0.89	0.380	-15.30931	6.018929

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.91: Urinary Mercury and Bilirubin

Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Linear Regression	Survey	Wtmec4yr	0.26	0.010	0.017

```
regr urxuhg lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

Number of obs = 3490

F(6, 3483) = 6.66

Prob > F = 0.0000

R-squared = 0.0108

Root MSE = 2.6346

urxuhg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.0251078	.0095258	2.64	0.008	.006431	.0437845
race1	.3403985	.1078064	3.16	0.002	.1290285	.5517685
race2	.427708	.1519776	2.81	0.005	.1297337	.7256822
race4	.6191392	.1364855	4.54	0.000	.3515396	.8867389
race5	.164533	.1753975	0.94	0.348	-.1793592	.5084252
ridageyr	.0120985	.0045938	2.63	0.008	.0030916	.0211053
_cons	.5700113	.1501655	3.80	0.000	.27559	.8644325

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Survey Weighted Population: svyreg urxuhg lbdstbsi race1 race2 race4 race5
ridageyr

Survey linear regression

pweight: wtmec4yr

Strata: sdmvstra

PSU: sdmvpsu

Number of obs = 3490

Number of strata = 28

Number of PSUs = 57

Population size = 63099012

F(6, 24) = 4.22

Prob > F = 0.0049

R-squared = 0.0165

urxuhg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
lbdstbsi	.025844	.01025	2.52	0.017	.0048803	.0468076
race1	.325975	.1020661	3.19	0.003	.1172263	.5347237
race2	.3833382	.1894089	2.02	0.052	-.0040466	.7707229
race4	.7141062	.1949674	3.66	0.001	.3153531	1.112859
race5	.125043	.1474088	0.85	0.403	-.1764419	.4265279
ridageyr	.0078998	.0033859	2.33	0.027	.000975	.0148247
_cons	.6516055	.1483139	4.39	0.000	.3482695	.9549415

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Table 5.92: Race Effects and Mercury Forms: The reported Odds Ratio (O.R.) or slope is relative to the baseline, white population.

Mercury Form	Race	Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Odds Ratio (OR)	Std. Error	P- Value
I-Hg Detection	Black	Logistic	Adjusted, Raw	Robust	1.9	0.393	0.002
I-Hg Detection	Black	Logistic	Survey Weighted	wtmec4yr	2	0.534	0.011

Raw Population, Age as a continuous variable:

logistic inhgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, ro

Logistic regression

Number of obs = 3616

Wald chi2(5) = 21.78

Prob > chi2 = 0.0006

Pseudo R2 = 0.0146

Log pseudo-likelihood = -669.72823

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	1.50747	.3026857	2.04	0.041	1.017034	2.234405
race2	1.340228	.4760842	0.82	0.410	.6680507	2.688734
race4	1.902568	.3932167	3.11	0.002	1.268868	2.85275
race5	1.06084	.5084355	0.12	0.902	.4146572	2.714005
ridageyr	1.025318	.0073151	3.50	0.000	1.01108	1.039756

Ridageyr= age by year(continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Raw Population, Age as a categorical variable:

. logistic inhgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, ro

Logistic regression

Number of obs = 3616

Wald chi2(7) = 21.56

Prob > chi2 = 0.0030

Pseudo R2 = 0.0154

Log pseudo-likelihood = -669.20221

inhgdetect	Odds Ratio	Robust Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	1.525309	.3106727	2.07	0.038	1.023261	2.27368
race2	1.344033	.4770771	0.83	0.405	.6702985	2.694957
race4	1.911501	.3991809	3.10	0.002	1.269454	2.878272
race5	1.054577	.5055032	0.11	0.912	.4121562	2.69833
age1	.5663149	.1291213	-2.49	0.013	.3622277	.8853892
age2	.6852332	.1542384	-1.68	0.093	.4408008	1.065208
age4	1.121734	.2381172	0.54	0.588	.739946	1.700511

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49

Table 5.92: (continued):

Survey Weighted Population, age as a continuous variable:

svylogit ihgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, eform

Survey logistic regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3616
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	65642103
		F(5, 25)	=	2.84
		Prob > F	=	0.0367

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	1.549632	.3936259	1.72	0.095	.9217359	2.605257
race2	1.547931	.5331532	1.27	0.215	.7652765	3.131014
race4	2.034373	.5361414	2.69	0.012	1.18671	3.487518
race5	1.03489	.5475319	0.06	0.949	.3507158	3.053749
ridageyr	1.025682	.0109394	2.38	0.024	1.00355	1.048301

*Survey weighted population: Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

ridageyr= age in years as a continuous variable.

Survey Weighted Population, age as a categorical variable:

. svylogit ihgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform

Survey logistic regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3616
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	65642103
		F(7, 23)	=	3.71
		Prob > F	=	0.0078

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	1.575972	.400624	1.79	0.084	.9370297	2.650598
race2	1.560918	.5324564	1.31	0.202	.7769422	3.135967
race4	2.033236	.5315736	2.71	0.011	1.19115	3.470636
race5	1.033539	.5386299	0.06	0.950	.3559783	3.00075
age1	.4887826	.1583454	-2.21	0.035	.2519795	.9481262
age2	.6262808	.2146998	-1.37	0.183	.3106475	1.262613
age4	1.145636	.2995942	0.52	0.607	.6710672	1.955813

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49 years

Table 5.92 (Continued): Race Effects and Mercury Forms: The reported Odds Ratio (O.R.) or slope is relative to the baseline, white population.

Mercury Form	Race	Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Urinary Mercury	Black	Linear Regression	Adjusted, Raw	Robust	0.6	0.14	<0.001
Urinary Mercury	Black	Linear Regression	Survey Weighted	wtmec4yr	0.7	0.194	<0.001
Urinary Mercury	Mexican	Linear Regression	Adjusted, Raw	Robust	0.35	0.11	<0.001
Urinary Mercury	Mexican	Linear Regression	Survey Weighted	wtmec4yr	0.33	0.10	0.002

Survey Weighted Population:

```
svyreg urxuhg race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

pweight:	wtmec4yr	Number of obs	=	3531
Strata:	sdmvstra	Number of strata	=	28
PSU:	sdmvpsu	Number of PSUs	=	57
		Population size	=	63947268
		F(5, 25)	=	3.34
		Prob > F	=	0.0191
		R-squared	=	0.0143

urxuhg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
race1	.3245899	.1006417	3.23	0.003	.1187545 .5304253
race2	.3872116	.181142	2.14	0.041	.0167347 .7576885
race4	.6961877	.1932283	3.60	0.001	.3009914 1.091384
race5	.1161961	.1491957	0.78	0.442	-.1889434 .4213356
ridageyr	.0078836	.0033209	2.37	0.024	.0010916 .0146756
_cons	.8795611	.125314	7.02	0.000	.6232653 1.135857

Ridageyr= age by year (continuous variable)

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other (categorical variables)

Table 5.93: Age Effect and I-Hg Detection.

(No reported Slopes contain 0 and no reported O.R.'s contain 1 in their confidence intervals.)

Mercury Form	Variable	Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Odds Ratio (OR)	Std. Error	P- Value
I-Hg Detection	Age (year)	Logistic	Adjusted, Raw	Robust	1.03	0.007	<0.001
I-Hg Detection	Age (year)	Logistic	Survey Weighted	wtmec4yr	1.03	0.01	0.024

Survey Weighted Population, Age as a continuous variable:

. svylogit ihgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, eform

Survey logistic regression

pweight: wtmec4yr

Strata: sdmvstra

PSU: sdmvpsu

Number of obs = 3616

Number of strata = 28

Number of PSUs = 57

Population size = 65642103

F(5, 25) = 2.84

Prob > F = 0.0367

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
race1	1.549632	.3936259	1.72	0.095	.9217359 2.605257
race2	1.547931	.5331532	1.27	0.215	.7652765 3.131014
race4	2.034373	.5361414	2.69	0.012	1.18671 3.487518
race5	1.03489	.5475319	0.06	0.949	.3507158 3.053749
ridageyr	1.025682	.0109394	2.38	0.024	1.00355 1.048301

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

ridageyr= age in years as a continuous variable.

Survey Weighted Population, Age as a categorical variable:

. svylogit ihgdetect race1 race2 race4 race5 age1 age2 age4, eform

Survey logistic regression

pweight: wtmec4yr

Strata: sdmvstra

PSU: sdmvpsu

Number of obs = 3616

Number of strata = 28

Number of PSUs = 57

Population size = 65642103

F(7, 23) = 3.71

Prob > F = 0.0078

ihgdetect	exp(b)	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
race1	1.575972	.400624	1.79	0.084	.9370297 2.650598
race2	1.560918	.5324564	1.31	0.202	.7769422 3.135967
race4	2.033236	.5315736	2.71	0.011	1.19115 3.470636
race5	1.033539	.5386299	0.06	0.950	.3559783 3.00075
age1	.4887826	.1583454	-2.21	0.035	.2519795 .9481262
age2	.6262808	.2146998	-1.37	0.183	.3106475 1.262613
age4	1.145636	.2995942	0.52	0.607	.6710672 1.955813

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other. Age1=16-19 years, Age2=20-29 years, Age3=30-39 years, Age4=40-49 years

Table 5.94: Age Effect and CH₃Hg

Mercury Form	Variable	Analysis	Model Type	Correlation	Slope	Std. Error	P- Value
Organic Mercury	Age (year)	Linear Regression	Adjusted, Raw	Robust	0.37	0.003	<0.001
Organic Mercury	Age (year)	Linear Regression	Survey Weighted	wtmec4yr	0.35	0.006	<0.001

```
. regr ch3hg race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr, ro
```

Regression with robust standard errors

Number of obs = 3613
 F(5, 3607) = 31.96
 Prob > F = 0.0000
 R-squared = 0.0487
 Root MSE = 2.0318

ch3hg	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	-.2727954	.0696737	-3.92	0.000	-.4093993	-.1361916
race2	.279263	.2004799	1.39	0.164	-.1138023	.6723282
race4	.260343	.1009071	2.58	0.010	.0625023	.4581837
race5	.6875855	.2276118	3.02	0.003	.2413248	1.133846
ridageyr	.0368248	.0033456	11.01	0.000	.0302655	.0433842
_cons	.0717908	.1063471	0.68	0.500	-.1367157	.2802973

*Raw population: Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.
 ridageyr= age in years as a continuous variable.

Survey Weighted Population, Age as a continuous variable:

```
. svyreg ch3hg race1 race2 race4 race5 ridageyr
```

Survey linear regression

pweight: wtme4yr

Strata: sdmvstra

PSU: sdmvpsu

Number of obs = 3613
 Number of strata = 28
 Number of PSUs = 57
 Population size = 65606783
 F(5, 25) = 10.56
 Prob > F = 0.0000
 R-squared = 0.0363

ch3hg	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
race1	-.3575219	.1427765	-2.50	0.018	-.6495327	-.0655111
race2	.2340007	.3941081	0.59	0.557	-.5720409	1.040042
race4	.3088219	.1822552	1.69	0.101	-.0639318	.6815757
race5	1.152467	.3608042	3.19	0.003	.4145401	1.890395
ridageyr	.0349455	.005872	5.95	0.000	.0229359	.0469551
_cons	.1385998	.1628108	0.85	0.402	-.1943857	.4715853

Race1=Mexican American, Race2=Hispanic, Race 3=White, Race 4= African American, Race5=Other.

ridageyr= age in years as a continuous variable.

6. Policy Review

U.S. and global policy regarding chronic mercury exposure suffers from political and scientific uncertainty. In order to create effective public health guidelines regarding chronic mercury exposure, a suitable method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure is needed to establish links with associated disease risks.

On March 15th, 2005, the Environmental Protection Agency (E.P.A.) approved the deceptively titled, “Clear Skies” initiative. The “Clear Skies” Act, regarding the regulation of mercury emissions from power plants, was first put to Congress in July 29, 2002 by Republican Senator Robert Smith, from New Hampshire. This bill was designed to revise the more stringent regulatory plans of the “Clean Air” Act put in place by the Clinton administration. Analysis of this policy to deregulate mercury emissions reveals a repeated trend: conflict of interest, corporate politics, and negligence in regards to safeguarding public health.

The government policy surrounding the health risks posed by mercury exposure is defined by the many industries that profit from its sale, application, and emissions. The NRDC, founded in 1970, claims to be the first public interest law firm to work on national environmental issues. To gain access to the “energy task force”, the NRDC sued the Department of Energy(D.O.E.) and pursued litigation until some “energy task force” papers were released. Even then the D.O.E. violated the freedom of information act, illegally withheld documents with no legal justification and censored public documents in order to conceal details of the new energy plan. From those released documents, details revealed how energy companies had authored their own regulations and proposed revisions on previous EPA rulings.

Industries that profit from the manufacture and sale of the mercury commodity exerted immense power and influence on rewriting the policy towards deregulation. A thorough and documented conflict of interest between industry and government policy remains at the source of poor mercury regulations. The NRDC notes that the Bush administration deceptively claims that the pollution trading rule makes the United States “the first country in the world to regulate mercury emissions from utilities.” As noted above, the rule does not directly reduce mercury pollution until 2018. This rhetorical argument diverts attention away from the fact that the administration threw out the Clean Air Act’s requirement that power plants make deep cuts in their mercury emissions over the next three years, substituting it with a scheme that delays any mercury reductions for at least 13 years. Indeed, for the United States to be first in any meaningful sense, other countries must refrain from regulating the toxin for the next 13 years. For now, the NRDC is still considering what future actions to take. From the D.O.E. documents attained by the NRDC, there is ample evidence to support a case of a conflict of interest between industry, policy and the public health. According to NRDC communication director, Craig Noble, the new EPA rule was made behind closed doors with industry while the conservation community had no seat at the table.

EPA and Bush administration officials stressed that they could not require tighter controls on mercury pollution because the cost to industry was much higher than the benefits to public health. They did not disclose that an EPA-funded, peer-reviewed Harvard University study concluded just the opposite. The Harvard study estimated health benefits 100 times as great as the EPA did, and, according to the Washington Post, top EPA officials deleted any mention of the analysis from public documents. The Harvard analysis—and a recent study by the Mount Sinai School of Medicine—both show that

more stringent controls on power plant mercury pollution are necessary to protect public health. (See <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/articles/A55268-2005Mar21.html>.)

The threat of rising mercury levels was clearly reviewed and outlined by government scientists and made available to regulatory officials. In 2000, the National Research Council published “The Toxicological Effects of Methylmercury”¹¹. This comprehensive report on mercury hazards clearly detailed the growing health threat from utility emissions of mercury. The Bush administration edited this scientific document to downplay the health risks of mercury exposure.

“This is a pattern of undermining and disregarding science on political considerations,” said Senator Hillary Rodham Clinton, citing a letter by the Union of Concerned Scientists, signed by 60 scientists, including 20 nobel laureates, which criticized the Bush administration’s handling of science issues (New York Times, April 7, 2004). In July 2001, one third of congress wrote a letter to the President, urging him not to revise the original EPA plans for immediate regulation of mercury by “maximum achievable control technology.”

When EPA originally proposed these D.O.E., “energy task force” rules to deregulate industry in December 2003, the proposal contained whole paragraphs taken directly from memos provided to the agency by Latham & Watkins, a law and lobbying firm that represents large coal-fired utilities. An enormous public outcry followed release of the proposal. Forty-five U.S. senators sent a letter to then-EPA Administrator Mike Leavitt, urging him “to take prompt and effective action to clean up mercury pollution from power plants,” and noted that EPA’s “current proposals ... fall far short of what the law requires, and ... fail to protect the health of our children and our environment.” One-hundred-eighty U.S. representatives also publicly opposed the proposal. The attorneys general of New Jersey, California, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Vermont and Wisconsin, the chief counsel of the Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection, and the New Mexico environment secretary condemned the rules. The association of state and local air protection officials and NESCAUM likewise denounced the proposal.

In Spring 2004, attorney generals from ten states and 45 senators asked the E.P.A. to scrap the new “Clear Skies” proposal, saying it was not strict enough. But instead, the Bush administration went ahead and set forth the new proposal to delay any mercury restrictions until 2018. The ruling on March 15, 2005 that ratified the Bush proposal effectively revised the scientific assessment of the serious health risks posed by mercury exposure. The new proposal that passed contained an act to revise previous EPA regulatory findings that it was “appropriate and necessary” to regulate mercury emissions. Now apparently, it is not. This revision was originally suggested to the energy task force by a Southern Company lobbyist (source: NRDC).

In 1999, concern was expressed over the safety of thimerosal containing vaccines by the American Academy of Pediatrics and the U.S. Public Health Service²⁹. Within 18 months, mercury preservative was purportedly removed from vaccines destined for use in the U.S.. This policy restriction did not last and was never put into full effect. In fact, the World Health Organization (WHO) “continues to recommend the use of vaccines containing thiomersal for global immunization programs since the benefits of using such products far outweigh any theoretical risk of toxicity”¹⁰⁷. The Institute of Medicine (I.O.M.) recommended that more studies were necessary to determine what role thimerosal may play in autism.

At a global level, the Bush administration recently blocked international efforts to limit mercury pollution and trade at a United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) conference in Nairobi (www.nrdc.org/media/pressreleases/050225a.asp). While world mercury production is rising and chronic mercury exposure may be affecting the health of everyone on the planet, government agencies regulate the many sources of mercury with ambivalence and contradictions. On one hand, the National Research Council published a report on the growing risks of mercury exposure. On the other hand, the Energy Task Force dismantles the regulatory actions scheduled by the Clean Air act. On one hand, the EPA got rid of mercury in thimerosal vaccines throughout America in a rapid response to health concerns. On the other hand vaccines still contain mercury and the World Health Organization (WHO) claims that the benefits outweigh the risks for thimerosal vaccines in developing countries. On one hand, the EPA has lowered the acceptable level of mercury exposure and advises pregnant mothers against eating more than three fish a month because of high mercury levels. On the other hand, background levels of mercury are rising and human exposure from the medical establishment is still largely unrestricted regarding vaccines and dental amalgams.

7. Conclusion

At this time, a scientific consensus suggests that the global rate of atmospheric mercury deposition may be increasing over time¹. In addition, the latest studies suggest that as global mercury deposition increases, the incidence of the most closely associated neurodegenerative diseases such as Autism and Alzheimer's Disease are rising as well^{2,3}. Recent studies suggest that the incidence of Autism and Alzheimer's Disease may be rising in heavily industrialized countries around the world, in the same regions where unprecedented mercury levels have recently been found in women and children, fish and animals, rice and soil⁴. These trends support the theory that both chronic mercury exposure and associated risks of neurodegenerative disease may rise over time within the general U.S. population.

Due to the bioaccumulation of organic mercury in food sources, atmospheric deposition of mercury vapor ultimately deposits mercury in the human pituitary, liver, immune system, adrenals, and kidney. The accumulation of targeted mercury deposition may disrupt the endocrine and immune systems, damage the delicate balance between inflammation and suppression, and elevate risks of neurodegenerative disease. As emissions of mercury into the atmosphere increase on a global scale, it is logical to assume that the rate of chronic mercury exposure and deposition in target areas of the human body will increase as well.

Our analysis of chronic mercury exposure trials tested a hypothesis that a suitable method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure would observe the change of I-Hg that results from CH₃Hg exposure, demethylation, and deposition. The regression of I-Hg to CH₃Hg was effective at distinguishing different exposure groups in a trial of chronic mercury exposure. This is significant as it provides a method for assessment of chronic, organic mercury exposure by the rate of inorganic mercury deposition.

From the NHANES study, data are sufficient to conclude there is an association between chronic, organic mercury exposure and inorganic mercury deposition in target systems of the human body. This study concludes that blood I-Hg and methyl mercury levels should both be accurately measured in order to serve as bioindicators for the assessment of chronic mercury exposure. Our analysis of the NHANES population reports an association between organic and inorganic mercury levels in the blood. This is consistent with other studies that demonstrate demethylation of organic mercury as a contributing source of I-Hg deposition within the body. Our study reports evidence that chronic mercury exposure and resultant deposition are associated with changes in biochemical markers for the liver, immune system, and pituitary. Luteinizing hormone, white blood cell count, and bilirubin levels are all biomarkers associated with chronic, organic mercury exposure. This is significant as it demonstrates for the first time within the U.S. population, that chronic, organic mercury exposure is associated with targets of inorganic mercury deposition. Blood I-Hg was the most accurate bioindicator to characterize susceptible subpopulations, women ages 35-39 years, and African American women ages 16-49 years. The method presented here for the assessment of chronic mercury exposure should be further tested as a method to define subpopulations most susceptible to further mercury exposure.

Biological Mechanism for Mercury Exposure and the Risks of Neurodegenerative Disease

The 2004, IOM report on vaccines gave an assessment of a biological mechanism regarding vaccines and Autism and concluded that there was no human evidence of an immune response that associates thimerosal exposure with autism¹¹⁰. Results from this thesis report provide human evidence, within the U.S. population, of a biological mechanism and a causative relationship between mercury exposure, immune dysregulation, and the risk of Autism.

Reported, direct associations between I-Hg and organic mercury suggest that demethylation of organic mercury within the body is a contributing source of I-Hg deposition. The process of I-Hg deposition occurs in targets of the endocrine and immune system and may lead to an elevated risk of neurodegeneration. As Webster et al. discuss in their review, “disturbances at any level of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis or glucocorticoid action lead to an imbalance of this system and enhanced susceptibility to infection and inflammatory or autoimmune disease⁶⁰”. I-Hg deposition in white blood cells would produce a similar effect on the immune system, with resulting immune imbalance leading to increased risks of autoimmune disease.

Associations with the liver (bilirubin) reiterate concern that mercury deposition may increase enterohepatic circulation, raise the absorption rate of mercury, and thereby elevate susceptibility to future exposure such as from vaccines containing ethyl mercury. As the rate of mercury deposition accelerates with exposure, so do the risks of disease. I-Hg deposits accumulate over years in targets of the immune and endocrine system. Infants are particularly susceptible to exposure as they have no microflora in their GI tract to help eliminate mercury. During gestation, a hereditary burden of exposure would include inheritance of mercury exposure from the mother’s mercury burden. After birth, exposure would include diet, mother’s milk, and a regimen of vaccines. Geographic clustering of direct exposure from point source plumes is another possible influence on the rate of deposition.

According to the biological mechanism presented here, the subpopulation most susceptible to mercury exposure and the risks of disease would be characterized by quantifying the rate of I-Hg deposition. Proper assessment of chronic mercury exposure and neurodegenerative disease would consist of the most accurate measurement of blood I-Hg to serve as bioindicator for chronic mercury exposure and targeted deposition. The sum of all thimerosal-containing vaccines would then predict the relative risks of a disease response for each subpopulation characterized by I-Hg deposition.

In 2004, the IOM concluded that toxicological data may support a biological mechanism of causation, that there may be a genetically susceptible subpopulation to mercury exposure, and that there is evidence of immune dysregulation in the serum of autistic patients¹¹⁰. Results from our NHANES analysis present evidence that African Americans face the highest risk of I-Hg deposition and associated effect on the pituitary (LH). Due to increased risk of chronic mercury exposure and targeted I-Hg deposition in the endocrine system, the African American subpopulation may face elevated risks of associated neurodegenerative disease. Indeed, several epidemiological studies have found a higher prevalence of Autism in African American children than in white children^{127, 128}.

Associations of chronic mercury exposure with the immune system (white blood cell) and pituitary (luteinizing hormone) within the general U.S. population establish links with mercury deposition, Autism and Alzheimer’s Disease. Deposition in target areas may decrease the amount of future exposure or acute dose (e.g. vaccines) needed to surpass a threshold concentration and trigger mercury’s targeted, neurotoxic effect. Once the critical threshold concentration is reached, simultaneous neurotoxic events may cause focal damage in the pituitary, adrenals, immune system, and liver and induce a cascade of inflammation, autoimmune responses, neurodegeneration, and disease.

Policy recommendations

- Limit all sources of mercury exposure.
- Reduce dietary intake of contaminated fish.
- Monitor and measure mercury content in food and diet.
- Remove mercury from vaccines and dental amalgams.
- Regulate coal burning power plant emissions to limit mercury emissions into the atmosphere.
- Restrict mining of mercury.
- Chronic mercury exposure should be measured with the method for assessment of chronic mercury exposure presented in this paper.
- Chronic mercury exposure should be monitored in the general population and within susceptible populations such as the elderly, expectant mothers, and newborn infants.
- Continued research in the fields of mercury speciation, detection and elimination therapy should be developed.

Future Research

- Future research should adopt the method for assessment of mercury exposure presented in this study that relies on both blood I-Hg and methylmercury as bioindicators of chronic mercury exposure.
- Bioindicators for chronic mercury exposure within the U.S. population should be monitored to assess risks of disease.
- Accurate methods of inorganic and dimethyl mercury detection should be developed.
- A causative role for chronic mercury exposure and neurodegenerative disease may be linked through impairment of the pituitary, and secretion of Luteinizing Hormone. Investigate a causative role for mercury deposition and the process from LH disruption to Alzheimer's Disease and Autism.
- Investigate the cellular mechanism for the demethylation of organic mercury in mammalian tissue. This mechanism is unknown and may be an important area for future research in molecular biology.
- Study the effects of liver function, the role of bilirubin, gastric motility, and the role of variable flora populations on the rate of mercury elimination.
- Perform clinical research on mercury elimination and chelation therapy to apply towards susceptible populations such as pregnant mothers, children, and elderly populations.
- Present and Test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: In this biological mechanism, chronic, organic mercury exposure is linked to elevated risks of neurodegenerative disease, specifically types of Autism, and Alzheimer's Disease. Elevated risks of neurodegenerative disease may be due to immune and endocrine disruption caused by targeted I-Hg deposition in the liver, pituitary, and white blood cells. A process of focal I-Hg accumulation may lead to elevated risks for mercury's neurotoxic effect. Once this neurotoxic concentration is surpassed, resultant endocrine and immune system impairment may instigate a cascade of neuroinflammatory reactions, autoimmune disorders, impaired cell migration and neural development, neurodegeneration, and associated disease.

Hypothesis 2: Accurate assessment of blood I-Hg concentration will define the subpopulation most susceptible to cumulative mercury exposure (vaccines, diet, amalgams) and at highest risk of associated neurodegenerative disease (Autism and Alzheimer's Disease).

1. International Conference on Mercury as a Global Pollutant. The Madison Declaration on Mercury Pollution. *Ambio* **36**, 3 (2007).
2. Chen, C., et al. Factors Associated with the Diagnosis of Neurodevelopmental Disorders: A Population Based Longitudinal Study. *Pediatrics* **119**, 8 (2007).
3. Yan, S., et al. Is the Dementia Rate increasing in Beijing? Prevalence and Incidence of Dementia 10 Years later in an Urban Elderly Population. *Acta. Psychiatr. Scand.* **115**, 6 (2007).
4. Hsu, C. Mercury Concentration and fish consumption in Taiwanese Pregnant Women. *General Obstetrics*, 4 (2006).
5. Geier, D. & Geier, M. A Clinical Trial of Combined anti-androgen and anti-heavy metal therapy in autistic disorders. *Neuro Endocrinol Lett.* **27**, 5 (2006).
6. Vahter, M., Mottet, N. & , e.a. Demethylation of Methyl Mercury in Different Brain Sites of Macaca Fascicularis Monkeys During Long-Term Subclinical Methyl Mercury Exposure. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **134**, 273-284 (1995).
7. Wood, J.M., Kennedy, F. & Rosen, C. Synthesis of Methyl Mercury Compounds by Extracts of a Methanogenic Bacterium. *Nature* **220**, 173-174 (1968).
8. Mahaffey, K., Clickner, R. & Bodurow, C. Blood Organic Mercury Intake: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1999 and 2000. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **112**, 562-570 (2004).
9. Sunderland, E. Mercury Exposure from Domestic and Imported Estuarine and Marine Fish in the U.S. Seafood Market. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **115**, 7 (2007).
10. Peterson, S. & Sickle, J. Mercury Concentration in Fish from Streams and Rivers Throughout the Western United States. *Environmental Science Technology* **41**, 58 (2007).
11. , N.R.C. *Toxicological Effects of Methylmercury* (National Academy Press, 2000).
12. Capo, M., Alonzo, C. & , e.a. In Vitro Effects of Methylmercury on the Nervous System: A Neurotoxicologic Study. *Journal of Environmental Pathology* **13**, 117-123 (1994).
13. Ngim, C. & Devathasan, G. Epidemiologic Study on the Association Between Body Burden Mercury Level and Idiopathic Parkinson's Disease. *Neuroepidemiology* **8**, 128-141 (1989).
14. Ratcliffe, H., Swanson, G. & Fischer, L.J. Human Exposure to Mercury: A Critical Assessment of the Evidence of Adverse Health Effects. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health* **49**, 221-270 (1996).
15. Casarett, L. & Doull, J. *Toxicology. 6th ed.* (McGraw Hill Companies, Inc, 2000).
16. Bates, M. & , e.a. Health Effect of Dental Amalgam Exposure: A Retrospective Cohort Study. *International Journal of Epidemiology* **33**, 894-902 (2004).
17. McDowell, M., Dillon, C. & , e.a. Hair Mercury Levels in U.S. Children and Women of Childbearing Age: Reference Range Data from NHANES 1999-2000. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **112**, 1165-1171 (2004).
18. Clarkson, T. & , e.a. The Toxicology of Mercury- Current Exposures and Clinical Manifestations. *The New England Journal of Medicine* **349**, 1731-1737 (2003).
19. Bakir, F., Damluj, S., Amin-Zaki, L. & , e.a. Methylmercury poisoning in Iraq. *Science* **181**, 230-241 (1973).
20. Counter, S. & Buchanan, L. Mercury Exposure in Children: A review. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **198**, 209-230 (2004).
21. Magos, L. & , e.a. The Comparative Toxicology of Ethyl- and Methylmercury. *Archives of Toxicology* **57**, 260-267 (1985).
22. Vahter, M., Mottet, N. & , e.a. Speciation of Mercury in the Primate Blood and Brain Following Long-Term Exposure to Methyl Mercury. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **124**, 221-229 (1994).
23. Berlin, M. & Nordberg, G. *Handbook on the Toxicology of Metals*

(Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1986).

24. Van der Hoeven, J., Van den Keiboom, C. & Shaeke, M. Sulfate-Reducing Bacteria in the Periodontal Pocket. *Oral Microbiol Immunology* **10**, 288-290 (1995).
25. Willis, C. & , e.a. Nutritional Aspects of Dissimilatory Sulfate Reduction in the Human Large Intestine. *Current Microbiology* **35**, 294-298 (1997).
26. Gibson, G., Macfarlan, G. & Cummings, J. Occurrence of Sulfate Reducing Bacteria in Human Feces and the Relationship of Dissimilatory Sulfate Reduction to Methanogenesis in the Large Gut. *J Appl Bacteriol.* **65**, 103-111 (1998).
27. Christl, S., Gibson, G. & Cummings, J. Role of Dietary Sulfate in the Regulation of Methanogenesis in the Large Intestine. *Gut* **33**, 1234-1238 (1992).
28. Siciliano, S. & Lean, D. Methyltransferase: an Enzyme Assay for Microbial Methylmercury Formation in Acidic Soils and Sediments. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry* **21**, 1184-1190 (2002).
29. Clarkson, T. The Three Modern Faces of Mercury. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **110**, 11-21 (2002).
30. Pak, K. & Bartha, R. Mercury Methylation by interspecies hydrogen and acetate tran between sulfidogens and methanogens. *Applied and Environ Microbiol* **64**, 1987-1990 (1998).
31. Pochart, P., Dore, J., Lemann, G., Goderel, I. & Rambaud, J. Interrelations Between Populations of Methanogenic Archaea and Sulfate Reducing Bacteria in the Human Colon. *Fems Microbiology* **77**, 225-228 (1992).
32. Robinson, J.B. & Tuovinen, O.H. Mechanisms of Microbial Resistance and Detoxification of Mercury and Organomercury Compounds: Physiological, Biochemical, and Genetic Analyses. *Microbiological Reviews* **48**, 95-124 (1984).
33. Summers, A., Wireman, J. & , e.a. Mercury Released from Dental Silver Fillings Provokes an Increase in Mercury and Antibiotic Resistant Bacteria in Oral and Intestine Floras of Primates. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 825-834 (1993).
34. Szucs, A. & , e.a. Effects of Inorganic Mercury and Methylmercury on the Ionic Currents of Cultured Rat Hippocampal Neurons. *Cellular and Molecular Neurobiology* **17**, 273-288 (1997).
35. Tarabova, B. & , e.a. Inorganic Mercury and Methylmercury inhibit CaV3.1 Channel Expressed in HEK 293 Cells by Different Mechanism. *American Society for Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* (2005).
36. Yokoo, E., Valente, J. & , e.a. Low Level Methylmercury Exposure Affects Neuropsychological Function in Adults. *Environmental Health* **2**, 8 (2003).
37. Shafer, T. & , e.a. Effects of Prolonged Exposure to Nanomolar Concentrations of Methylmercury on Voltage Sensitive Sodium and Calcium Currents in PC12 Cells. *Developmental Brain Research* **136**, 151-164 (2002).
38. Yoshino, Y. & , e.a. Biochemical Changes in the Brain in Rats Poisoned with an Alkylmercury Compound , With Special Reference to the Inhibition of Protein Synthesis in Brain Cortex Slices. *Journal of Neurochemistry* **13**, 1223-1230 (1966).
39. Fox, J. & , e.a. Comparative Effects of Organic and Inorganic Mercury on Brain Slice Respiration and Metabolism. *Journal of Neurochemistry* **24**, 757-762 (1975).
40. Verity, M., Brown, W. & Cheung, M. Organic Mercurial Encephalopathy: In Vivo and In Vitro Effects of Methyl Mercury on Synaptosomal Respiration. *Journal of Neurochemistry* **25**, 759-766 (1975).
41. Parran, D. & , e.a. Methylmercury Decreases NGF-Induced TrkA Autophosphorylation and Neurite Outgrowth in PC12 cells. *Developmental Brain Research* **141**, 71-81 (2003).

42. Jellinger, K. General Aspects of Neurodegeneration. *J Neural Transm(Suppl)* **65**, 101-144 (2003).
43. Budtz-Jorgensen, E., Grandjea, P. & , e.a. Association Between Mercury Concentrations in Blood and Hair in Methylmercury-exposed Subjects at Different at Different Ages. *Environmental Research* **95**, 385-393 (2004).
44. Magos, L. & Clarkson, T. Atomic Absorption Determination of Total, Inorganic, and Organic Mercury in Blood. *Journal of the AAOAC* **55**, 966-971 (1972).
45. Guo, T. & Baasner, J. Determination of Mercury in Urine by Flow-Injection Cold Vapour Atomic Absorption Spectrometry. *Analytica Chimica Acta* **278**, 189-196 (1993).
46. Bettinelli, M. & , e.a. Determination of Total Urinary Mercury by on-line Sample Microwave Digestion Followed by Flow Injection Cold Vapour Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry or Atomic Absorption Spectrometry. *Rapid Commun. Mass Spectrom* **16**, 1432-1439 (2002).
47. Christopher, S. Development of Isotope Dilution Cold Vapor Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry and its Application to the Certification of Mercury in NIST Standard Reference Materials. *Anal. Chem* **73**, 2190-2199 (2001).
48. Bornhorst, J. & , e.a. Comparison of Sample Preservation Methods for Clinical Trace Element Analysis by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry. *Am. J. Clin. Pathol* **123**, 578-583 (2005).
49. Hock, C., Drasch, S. & , e.a. Increased Blood Mercury Levels in Patients with Alzheimer's Disease. *J Neural Transm* **105**, 59-68 (1998).
50. Nolan, E. & , e.a. Selective Hg(II) Detection in Aqueous Solution with Thiol Derivatized Fluoresceins. *Inorganic Chemistry* **45**, 2742-2749 (2006).
51. Qin, J. & , e.a. Hg(II) Sequestration and Protection by the MerR metal-binding domain (MBD). *Microbiology* **152**, 709-719 (2006).
52. Debes, F. & , e.a. Impact of Prenatal Methylmercury Exposure on Neurobehavioural Function at Age 14 years. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology* **28**, 363-375 (2006).
53. Axelrad, D., et al. Dose-Response Relationship of Prenatal Mercury Exposure and IQ: An Integrative Analysis of Epidemiologic Data. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **115**, 6 (2007).
54. Takeuchi, T. & , e.a. Pathological Observation of the Minamata Disease. *Act Pathol. Jpn.* **9 (supplemental)**, 768-783 (1959).
55. Burbacher, T. & , e.a. Methylmercury Developmental Neurotoxicity: A Comparison of Effects in Humans and Animals. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology* **12**, 191-202 (1990).
56. Bernard, S. & , e.a. Autism: A Novel Form of Mercury Poisoning. *Medical Hypothesis* **56**, 462-471.
57. Calne, D., Eisen, A. & al., e. Alzheimer's Disease, Parkinson's Disease and Motoneurone Disease: Abiotropic Interaction Between Ageing and Environment? *The Lancet*, 1067-1070 (1986).
58. Henry, G., , J., BM, Steinhoff, M. & , e.a. Mercury Induced Autoimmunity in the Maxx Rat. *Clin Immunol Immunopathol* **49**, 187-203 (1988).
59. Pelletier, L. & Druet, P. *Immunotoxicology of metals* (Springer-Verlag, Heidleberg, Germany, 1995).
60. Webster, W. & , e.a. Neuroendocrine Regulation of Immunity. *Annu. Rev. Immunol.* **20**, 125-163 (2002).
61. Alzheimer, A. *A Characteristic Disease of the Cerebral Cortex* (1907).
62. McKhann, G. & , e.a. Clinical Diagnosis of Alzheimer's Disease: Report of the NINCDS-ADRDA work group under the Auspices of Department of Health and Human Services Task Force on Alzheimer's Disease. *Neurology* **34**, 939-944 (1984).

63. National Institute on Aging and Reagan Institute Working Group on Diagnosis Criteria for the Neuropathological Assessment of Alzheimer's Disease. *Neurobiol. Aging* **18** (1997).
64. Whitehouse, P. & , e.a. Alzheimer's Disease and Senile Dementia: Loss of Neurons in the Basal Forebrain. *Science* **298**, 789-791 (2002).
65. Ye, C. & Hartley, D. Protofibrils of Amyloid Beta-protein inhibit specific Potassium currents in Neocortical Cultures. *Neurobiology of Disease* **13**, 177-190 (2003).
66. Gallagher, J., Noelle, R. & McCann, F. Mercury Suppression of a Potassium Current in Human B Lymphocytes. *Cellular Signaling* **7**, 331-338 (1995).
67. Basu, N. & , e.a. An Interspecies Comparison of Mercury Inhibition on Muscarinic Acetylcholine Receptor Binding in the Cerebral Cortex and Cerebellum. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **205**, 71-76 (2005).
68. Gallowitsch-Puerta, M. & Tracey, K. Immunologic Role of the Cholinergic Anti-Inflammatory Pathway and the Nicotinic Acetylcholine alpha7 Receptor. *Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci.* **1062**, 209-219 (2005).
69. Mutter, J. & , e.a. Alzheimer Disease: Mercury as Pathogenetic Factor and Apolipoprotein E as a Moderator. *Neuroendocrinology Letters* **5**, 331-339 (2004).
70. DB, C. & Langston, J. Aetiology of Parkinson's Disease. *The Lancet*, 1457-1459 (1983).
71. Khan, A., Ashcroft, A. & , e.a. Metal Accelerate the Formation and Direct the Structure of Amyloid Fibrils of NAC. *J Inorg Biochem* **99**, 1920-1927 (2005).
72. Bush, A. The Metalobiology of Alzheimer's Disease. *Trends in Neuroscience* **26**, 207-214 (2003).
73. Richarz, A. & Bratter, P. Speciation analysis of Trace Elements in the Brains of Individuals with Alzheimer's Disease with Special Emphasis on Metallothioneins. *Anal Bioanal Chem* **372**, 412-417 (2002).
74. Cornett, C. & , e.a. Trace Elements in Alzheimer's Disease Pituitary Glands. *Biological Trace Element Research* **62**, 107-114 (1998).
75. Yu, W. & , e.a. Metallothionein III is Reduced in Alzheimer's Disease. *Brain Research* **894**, 37-45 (2001).
76. Thompson, C. & , e.a. Regional Brain Trace-Element Studies in Alzheimer's Disease. **9 1**, 1-8 (1988).
77. Hyman, B. & , e.a. Perforant Pathway Changes and the Memory Impairment of Alzheimer's Disease. *Annan. Neurol* **20**, 472-481 (1986).
78. Danuta, W. Neural-Immune Interactions: An Integrative View of the Bidirectional Relationship Between the Brain and the Immune Systems. *Journal of Neuroimmunology* **172**, 38-58 (2006).
79. DeKosky, S. & Scheff, S. Synapse Loss in Frontal Cortex Biopsies in Alzheimer's Disease: Correlation with Cognitive Severity. *Annals of Neurology* **27**, 457-464 (1990).
80. Abedi-Valugerdi, M. & Moller, G. Contribution of H-2 and non-h-2 Genes in the Control of Mercury Induced Autoimmunity. *International Immunology* **12**, 1425-1430 (2000).
81. Nielson, J. & Hultman, P. Mercury Induced Autoimmunity in Mice. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **110**, 877-881 (2002).
82. Hultman, P. & Hansson-Georgiadi, H. Methyl Mercury Induced Autoimmunity in Mice. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **154**, 203-211 (1999).
83. Uyama, N. & , e.a. Neural Connections Between the Hypothalamus and the Liver. *The Anatomical Record Part A* **280a**, 808-820 (2003).
84. Aisen, P. & , e.a. Effects of Rofecoxib or Naproxen vs Placebo on Alzheimer Disease Progression. *JAMA* **289**, 2819-2826 (2004).

85. Hartmann, A. & , e.a. Twenty Four Hour Cortisol Release Profiles in Patients with Alzheimer's and Parkinson's Disease Compared to Normal Controls: Ultradian Secretory Pulsatility and Diurnal Variation. *Neurobiol Aging* **18**, 285-289. (1997).
86. Rasmussen, B. & Thorlacius-Ussing, O. Ultrastructural Localization of Mercury in Adrenals from Rats Exposed to Methyl Mercury. *Virchows Arch(Cell Pathology)* **52**, 529-538. (1987).
87. Burbacher, T. & , e.a. Comparison of Blood and Brain Mercury Levels in Infant Monkeys Exposed to Methylmercury or Vaccines Containing Thimerosal. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **21** (2005).
88. De Bellis, A. & , e.a. Prolactin and Autoimmunity. *Pituitary* **8**, 25-30 (2005).
89. Smith, I., Green, K. & Laferla, F. Calcium Disregulation in Alzheimer's Disease: Recent Advances Gained from Genetically Modified Animals. *Cell Calcium* **38**, 427-437. (2005).
90. Casadesus, G. & , e.a. Evidence for the role of Gonadotropin hormones in the development of Alzheimer Disease. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* **62**, 293-298 (2005).
91. Barron, A. & , e.a. Reproductive Hormones Modulate Oxidative Stress in Alzheimer's Disease. *Antioxidants and Redox Signaling* **8**, 2047-2059 (2006).
92. Shepherd, C. & , e.a. Novel Inflammatory Plaque Pathology in Presenilin-1 Alzheimer's Disease. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* **31**, 503-511. (2005).
93. Veld, B. & , e.a. Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs and the Risk of Alzheimer's Disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **345**, 1515-1521 (2001).
94. Hemdan, N., et al. Immunomodulation by Mercuric Chloride in Vitro: Application of Different Cell Activation Pathways. *Clinical and Experimental Immunology* **148**, 6 (2007).
95. Snowdon, D. & , e.a. Linguistic Ability in Early Life and Cognitive Function and Alzheimer's Disease in Later Life. *JAMA* **275**, 528-532 (1996).
96. Fombonne, E. The Prevalence of Autism. *JAMA* **289**, 3 (2003).
97. Yeargin-Allsopp, M., et al. Prevalence of Autism in a US Metropolitan Area. *JAMA* **289**, 4 (289).
98. Newschafer, C. National Autism Prevalence Trends From United States Special Education Data. *Pediatrics* **115**, 6 (2005).
99. Mandell, D., et al. Trends in Diagnosis Rates for Autism and ADHD at Hospital Discharge in the Context of Other Psychiatric Diagnoses. *Psychiatric Services* **56**, 6 (2005).
100. CDC. Prevalence of Autism Spectrum Disorders. *MMWR* **56**, 40 (2007).
101. Meadows, M. IOM Report: No Link Between Vaccines and Autism. *FDA Consumer Magazine* (2004).
102. Hornig, M., Chian, D. & Lipkin, W. Neurotoxic Effects of Postnatal Thimerosal Are Mouse Strain Dependent. *Molecular Psychiatry* **9**, 833-845 (2004).
103. Risch, N. & , e.a. A Genomic Screen of Autism: Evidence for a Multilocus Etiology. *Am J Hum Genet.* **65**, 493-507 (1999).
104. Daniels, W. & , e.a. Increased Frequency of the Extended or Ancestral Haplotype B44-SC30-DR4 in Autism. *Neuropsychobiology* **32**, 120-123 (1995).
105. Geier, D. & Geier, M. A Comparative Evaluation of the Effects of MMR Immunization and Mercury Doses From Thimerosal-Containing Childhood Vaccines on the Population Prevalence of Autism. *Med Sci Monit* **10**, PI33-39 (2004).
106. Palmer, R. & , e.a. Environmental Mercury Release, Special Education Rates, and Autism Disorder: AN Ecological Study of Texas. *J. Health and Place*, 1-7 (2005).
107. Knezevic, I. & , e.a.: Thiomersal in Vaccines: A Regulatory Perspective Who Consultation, Geneva 15-16 April 2002. *Vaccine* **22**, 1836-1841 (2004).

108. Pichichero, M. & , e.a. Mercury Concetrations and Metabolism in Infants Receiving Vaccines Containing Thiomersal: A Descriptive Study. *The Lancet* **360**, 1737-1741 (2002).
109. Kandel, E. & , e.a. *Principles of Neuroscience*, 3rd edition (Elsevier, New York, 1991).
110. Institute of Medicine. Immunization Safety Review. <http://books.nap.edu/catalog/10997.html> (2004).
111. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Thimerosal in Vaccines. <http://www.fda.gov/cber/vaccine/thimerosal.htm> (2007).
112. Madsen, K., et al. A Population Based Study of Measles, Mumps, and Rubella Vaccination and Autism. *The New England Journal of Medicine* **347**, 6 (2002).
113. Madsen, K., et al. Thimerosal and the Occurrence of Autism: Negative Ecological Evidence From Danish Population Based Data. *Pediatrics* **112**, 3 (2003).
114. Fombonne, E., et al. Pervasive Developmental Disorders in Montreal, Quebec, Canada: Prevalence and Links with Immunizations. *Pediatrics* **118**, 12 (2006).
115. Fombonne, E. Epidemiology of Autistic Disorder amd Other Pervasive Developmental Disorders. *J Clin Psychiatry* **66**, 6 (2005).
116. Courchesne, E. & , e.a. Unusual Brain Growth Patterns in Early Life in Patients with Autistic Disorder. *Neurology* **57**, 245-254 (2001).
117. Warren, R. & , e.a. Immunogenetic Studies in Autism and Related Disorders. *Mol. Chem Neuropathol* **28**, 77-81 (1996).
118. Comi, A. & , e.a. Familial Clustering of Autoimmune Disorders and Evaluation of Medical Risk Factors in Autism. *J Child Neurol* **14**, 388-394 (1999).
119. Kelley, J. & , e.a. IRIS: A Database Surveying Known Human Immune System Genes. *Genomics* **85**, 503-511 (2005).
120. Havarinasab, S. & , e.a. Dose and Hg Species Determine T-Helper Cell Activation in Murine Autoimmunity. *Toxicology* (2006).
121. Agrawal, A. & , e.a. Thimerosal Induces TH2 Responses Via Influencing Cytokine Secretion by Human Dendritic Cells. *Journal of Leukocyte Biology* **81** (2007).
122. Warren, R. & , e.a. Strong association of the third Hypervariable Region of HLA-DR beta 1 with Autism. *J Neuroimmunol* **67**, 96-102. (1996).
123. Rice, D. Brain and Tissue Levels of Methylmercury after Chronic Methylmercury Exposure in the Monkey. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health* **27**, 189-198. (1989).
124. Schaefer, J. & , e.a. Role of the Bacterial Organomercury Lyase(MerB) in Controlling Methylmercury Accumulation in Mercury-Contaminated Natural Waters. *Environmental Science Technology* **38**, 4304-4311. (2004).
125. Friberg, L. & Mottet, N. Accumulation of Methylmercury and Inorganic Mercury in the Brain. *Biological Trace Element Research* **21**, 201-206. (1989).
126. Rice, D. & , e.a. Pharmacokinetics of Methylmercury in the Blood of Monkeys. *Fundamental and Applied Toxicology* **12**, 23-33(1989). (1989).
127. Croen, L., et al. The Changing Prevalence of Autism in California. *J Autism Dev Disord* **32**, 9 (2002).
128. Hillman, R., et al. Prevalence of Autism in Missouri. *Mo Med.* **97**, 4 (2000).