

The Association of Blood lead Concentrations and Mortality in Older Women: The Study of Osteoporotic Fractures

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Abstract

Background: Blood lead concentrations have been associated with increased risk of cardiovascular, cancer, and all-cause mortality in adults in general population and occupational cohorts. We aimed to determine the association between blood lead, all cause and cause specific mortality in elderly, community residing women.

Methods: Prospective cohort study of 533 women aged 65-87 years enrolled in the Study of Osteoporotic Fractures at 2 US research centers (Baltimore, MD; Monongahela Valley, PA) from 1986-1988. Blood lead concentrations were determined by atomic absorption spectrometry. Using blood lead concentration in $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ categorized as < 8 , and ≥ 8 , we determined the relative risk of mortality from all cause, and cause-specific mortality, through Cox proportional hazards regression analysis.

Results: Mean blood lead concentration was $5.3 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (range 1-21). After 12.0 ± 3 years of $>95\%$ complete follow-up, 123 (23%) women who died had slightly higher ($\pm\text{SD}$) blood lead $5.56 (\pm 3) \mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ than survivors: $5.17 (\pm 2.0)$ ($p=0.09$). Women with blood lead concentrations $\geq 8 \mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ had 61% increased risk of multivariate adjusted all cause mortality (Hazard Ratio [HR], 1.61; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.03-2.52) ($p=0.037$) especially Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) mortality (HR=3.41[CI], (1.39-8.36)($p=0.007$), compared to women with blood lead concentrations $< 8 \mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$. There was no association of blood lead with stroke, cancer, or non cardiovascular deaths.

Conclusions: Women with blood lead concentrations of $\geq 8 \mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ experienced increased mortality, in particular from CHD as compared to those with lower blood lead concentrations.

Background

Lead is a multitargeted toxicant, affecting cardiovascular, renal and nervous systems, and may contribute to morbidity and mortality through its adverse impacts on these systems [1, 2].

An association between lead and mortality has been observed in both occupational and community based cohorts [3]. Results from the second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II, 1976-1980) showed that blood lead concentration was an important predictor of mortality [4]. Individuals with baseline blood lead concentrations of 20 to 29 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ experienced 46 % increased all cause mortality, relative to those with blood lead concentrations less than 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ [5]. (To convert $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ of blood lead into $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$, multiply by 0.048). In NHANES III (1988-1994) an increased risk of death from all causes, cardiovascular disease, and cancer was associated with much lower blood lead concentrations of 5–9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ as compared to those with <5.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ [6]. Furthermore Menke et al documented a 25% increased all cause and 55% increased cardiovascular mortality in NHANES III (1988-1994) at considerably lower blood lead concentrations: >3.62 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ as compared to those with <1.94 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ [7]. However they did not observe an association between blood lead and cancer mortality in this range of exposure.

Environmental exposures to lead have been associated with hypertension and the incidence of clinical cardiovascular endpoints such as coronary heart disease, stroke, and peripheral artery disease [8]. Cardiac abnormalities such as left ventricular hypertrophy [9] and alteration in cardiac rhythm [10] have also been documented with lead exposure. Higher blood concentrations have been associated with cognitive and neuromuscular decline [11-13], and renal effects [2, 14-16] all of which could contribute to an increased risk of mortality. The effects of blood lead concentrations on cancer mortality however, are poorly understood. In the current analysis we prospectively examined the association of blood lead concentrations and mortality in a cohort of 533 white women with mean age of 72.5 (± 4.4) (range: 68-89) years and mean blood lead concentrations of 5.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (± 2.3 SD) (range: 1-

21). We hypothesized that woman with blood lead concentrations above a threshold will experience higher total and cause specific mortality.

Methods

Study Population:

The Study of Osteoporotic Fractures (SOF) is a longitudinal cohort study that enrolled 9704 white women from 1986 to 1988 using population-based listings in Baltimore, MD; Minneapolis, MN; Portland, OR; and the Monongahela Valley near Pittsburgh, PA. To be eligible to participate, women had to be aged 65 years or older and ambulatory. The lead ancillary study was conducted in 1990-1991 in 533 white women aged 65-87 years enrolled in SOF at either the University of Pittsburgh or University of Maryland clinics. The participants in this study of blood lead concentrations represent a convenience sample obtained from two of the clinical centers of the Study of Osteoporotic Fractures.

Initially, we examined the correlates of blood lead and the association of blood lead concentrations to cognitive function [17]. Analyses were performed by categorizing the study participants into three groups corresponding to the upper and lower 15th percentiles of the distribution of blood lead. Thus, the three groups were: low ($\leq 3 \mu\text{g/dl}$, lower 15th percentile; referent, median $= 3 \mu\text{g/dl}$; $n=122$); medium ($4-7 \mu\text{g/dl}$, median $= 5 \mu\text{g/dl}$; $n=332$); and high ($\geq 8 \mu\text{g/dl}$, upper 15th percentile, median $= 9 \mu\text{g/dl}$ $n=79$). This categorization was determined a priori [17]. We found a relationship between blood lead concentration as low as $8 \mu\text{g/dL}$ and worse cognitive function as measured by the part B of Trailmaking Test, but this association was confined to the rural SOF clinic [17, 18]. In a recent analysis in the same population, we found a significantly higher risk of falls and fractures in older women at blood lead concentration $\geq 4 \mu\text{g/dL}$, and faster rate of bone loss at $\geq 8 \mu\text{g/dL}$, when compared to women with blood lead concentration $< 3 \mu\text{g/dL}$ [19]. In the current paper, we extend the lead study to

mortality outcomes. The protocol and consent forms were approved by the institutional review boards at the participating institutions. All women provided written informed consent.

Questionnaire and interview

Each participant completed a baseline questionnaire that ascertained her education and health behaviors including smoking, alcohol use, walking for exercise and exercise frequency (total kilocalories expended per week in the past year). They also were asked about physician diagnosed **diabetes**, hypertension (measured blood pressure >160/90 or thiazide use), perceived health status compared with that of women of similar age (fair/poor/very poor vs. excellent /good), and functional limitations in performing one or more activities of daily living. They were asked about current medication/supplements (including **estrogen**, and vitamin D use).

Examinations

At the baseline clinic examination, each participant had her blood pressure measured by manual mercury sphygmomanometer. Pulse was measured in supine position for 30 seconds after at least 5 minutes of rest. Bone mineral density (**BMD**) of the calcaneus was measured by single photon absorptiometry (Osteo Analyzer: Siemens-Osteon, Wahiawa, Hawaii, USA) at baseline visit (1986-1988). BMD of total hip was measured at the second (1988-1990) examination (1993-1994) by **Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA)** using Hologic QDR 1000 scanners (Bedford, Mass). The subjects were asked to rise up from a chair five times and ability to do so without using the arms was noted. Health impairment data included cognitive impairment, assessed as scores on Trailmaking Part B [20]. Height and weight were obtained using a Harpenden stadiometer (Holtain Ltd, Crymych, UK) and a standard balance beam, respectively, and body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight divided by height squared (Kg/m²).

Mortality

The methods of determining deaths in SOF have been published [21, 22]. Briefly, participants were contacted every 4 months by postcard after visit 2 (1991-92) over 12 (± 3) years of follow-up. These contacts are >95% complete. Deaths were confirmed by death certificates. Hospital discharge summaries were obtained for 41 (33%) of deceased participants. The underlying cause of death was coded by a clinical epidemiologist using the *International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification*, and categorized as due to cardiovascular disease (CVD) including all diseases of circulatory system except those involving veins and lymphatics [ICD-9-CM codes 425, 429.2, 440-444, 428, 401-404, 410-414, 430-438, and 798.]; Coronary heart disease (CHD) [ICD-9-CM 410-414]; Stroke [ICD-9-CM 430-438]; cancer [ICD-9-CM codes 140 to 239] and all other deaths.

Blood Lead Measurements

A 5.0 ml sample of whole blood was drawn into Vacutainer tubes (BD Vacutainer Systems, Rutherford, New Jersey). Blood samples were analyzed at the Clinical Chemistry Laboratory of the University of Maryland, certified for the analysis of lead in blood by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, and documents a lower limit of detection for lead of 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$. Blood lead concentrations were determined by graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS model 5100, HGA with Zeeman Effect background correction: Perkin Elmer, Norwalk, Connecticut). To determine intralaboratory measurement variability in lead concentration and the stability of samples over 1 year, 100 samples (50 from each clinic) were drawn from randomly selected women during a clinic visit, one year later. The intraclass correlation coefficient for the duplicates was 0.88. Mean values of 4.76 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (range, 1-13 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$) and 4.67 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (range, 1-12 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$) were obtained for the first and second determinations, respectively [17]

Statistical Analysis

We used Cox proportional hazards regression analysis to estimate the Hazard Ratio (HR) of mortality and 95% confidence intervals (CI). We adjusted for baseline age and the clinic of examination to obtain age and clinic -adjusted relative hazards for all cause mortality. Cox regression was used to estimate multivariate-adjusted HRs, adjusting for confounding covariates. Preliminary analyses were performed by categorizing the study participants into three groups corresponding to the upper and lower 15th percentiles of the distribution of blood lead. Thus, the three groups were: low (≤ 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, lower 15th percentile; referent); medium (4-7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, $n=332$); and high (≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, upper 15th percentile, $n=79$). This categorization was determined a priori based on our previous study of blood lead and cognitive functions [17].

Analysis suggested that mortality outcome was only significant at the highest 15th percentile i.e., ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ of blood lead, when compared to the referent and the medium group, we therefore combined these two categories into a new reference group with lead level <8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$. Furthermore, preliminary analysis by dividing the participants into quintiles, also suggested that only the top quintile (80th percentile i.e., ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ of blood lead) showed elevated risk of death. We therefore dichotomized lead concentrations above and below 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ (80th and 85th percentile was same i.e., ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ of blood lead), thus the two groups were: (<8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, referent, $n=454$), and (≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$, $n=79$).

We compared baseline characteristics by lead and mortality status, using chi-square tests for categorical variables and t-tests for continuous variables. Two-tailed p-values were used for all tests, at 5% statistical significance. Separate models were analyzed for all cause and cause specific mortality. CVD mortality was categorized into two subgroups: deaths due to stroke, and coronary heart disease.

In multivariate models, we analyzed blood lead concentrations and other potential risk factors. We assessed variables for inclusion based on documented association with blood lead concentrations in literature and biological plausibility. We forced age and clinic into all

final multivariable models. Candidate confounders including education, physical activity, self-reported health, body mass index, **diabetes**, hypertension, Trails making B test score, functional status, alcohol intake, **estrogen** and vitamin D use, pulse >80, calcaneal and total hip bone mineral density and ability to stand from a chair 5 times without using arms.

Variables were considered in multivariable modeling if they were significantly related to mortality ($P < 0.15$). Our final multivariable models included only those variables significant at $p < 0.05$ after backward elimination. The final multivariate model for all cause mortality included the following covariates: age increase per five years, clinic, hypertension, smoking, total hip bone mineral density, and inability to rise from the chair 5 times. Additional adjustment for BMI, health compared to others, pulse rate >80 beats per min, Trails making B test score, vitamin D use, functional status, **diabetes, estrogen use**, walk for exercise, total kilocalories used, calcaneal bone density had no significant effect on our results.

The proportionality assumptions of the Cox models were confirmed with Schoenfeld residuals. We plotted cumulative survival in two blood lead concentrations groups over follow-up period by Kaplan-Meier curves. Data were analyzed with Stata (edition 9, StataCorp, College Station, Texas).

Results

The women in lead ancillary study were compared to the rest of SOF study participants. Lead study cohort was younger in age from the rest of the SOF participants (Table 1). A lower proportion of women in lead cohort were hypertensive, used vitamin D, walked for exercise, could do chair stands without using arms, and burned less calories. Proportion of diabetics was higher in the lead study, and they also performed better on the Trails making B test. However, BMI, education, alcohol use, smoking, health status, difficulty in activities of daily living, pulse rate >80 beats per min, use of estrogen, bone density in calcaneus and total hip were comparable.

The mean blood lead concentration was 5.3 µg/dL (\pm 2.3 SD) and ranged from 1-21 µg/dL. A total of 123 (23%) women died over a mean follow up of 12.0 (\pm 3.0) years. Women with \geq 8 µg/dL blood lead concentration had higher alcohol intake, were more likely to smoke, less likely to take vitamin D supplement, and had 9% lower calcaneal and 8% lower total hip BMD (Table 2).

Women who died had 7% higher mean (\pm SD) blood lead concentration 5.6 (3) µg/dL, than survivors: 5.2 (2.0) µg/dL ($p=0.09$, Table 3). As compared to survivors, women who died were older, more likely to smoke and to have hypertension, pulse rate more than 80 beats per minute, poor health status and to be functionally limited. A lower proportion of women who died reported current Vitamin D use and walking for exercise. Compared to women whose blood lead concentrations were <8 µg/dL, survival decreased more rapidly in women with blood lead concentration ≥ 8 µg/dL (Figure 1).

Women with baseline blood lead concentration of ≥ 8 µg/dL had a 73% increased risk of dying. (Age and clinic adjusted hazard ratio [HR], 1.73; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.12-2.68) ($p=0.014$) compared to women in blood lead < 8 µg/dL. With further adjustment for covariates women with ≥ 8 µg/dL still had 61% higher risk of all cause mortality (HR=1.61; 1.0- 2.52) ($p=0.037$), compared to women with < 8 µg/dL of blood lead.

In cause-specific analysis, the higher risk of mortality was predominantly due to cardiovascular disease (CVD). The multivariate adjusted hazards ratio (95% CI) for CVD mortality for women who had ≥ 8 µg/dL versus the < 8 µg/dL blood lead concentrations was 1.85 (95% CI,0.98-3.50), $p=0.058$, and coronary heart disease 3.41(95% CI,1.39- 8.36), $p<0.007$. There was no association of blood lead and mortality from stroke, cancer and other causes (Table 3 and Figure 2). Secondary analysis after adjusting for well established risk factors such as smoking, diabetes, and BMI did not change our results for all cause death [1.61 (95% CI,1.03- 2.52), $p<0.036$]. Furthermore CHD mortality HR was still 3 fold higher and 95% confidence interval became a little narrower [3.08(95% CI,1.24- 7.65), $p<0.016$].

However adding these risk factors to the CHD model decreased the HR and the statistical significance [1.78(95% CI, 0.92- 3.44), p<0.087].

Discussion

Blood lead was an important predictor of all cause mortality in this cohort of community dwelling older women. Mortality was significantly higher in women with blood lead concentrations ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ as compared to those with lower blood lead concentrations. Our results are consistent with earlier studies based on occupational cohorts [3, 23-25] and the general population: NHANES II and III [4-7]. To our knowledge, this is the first study to look at the association between blood lead concentrations and mortality in older women with median age of 71 years (range 65-87).

Despite declines in blood lead concentrations during the past 30 years, environmental lead exposure continues to be a public health concern [2]. The use of organic lead as gasoline additive, initiated during the 1920s, was phased out in the US since 1976. Once released as combustion exhaust, particulate lead persists in air, water, and soil. Mean blood lead concentrations in the U.S. population in the NHANES III Phase 2 collected during 1991 to 1994 ages 20 to 49 years were 2.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ [1]. The mean blood lead concentration for ages >1 year has declined further to 1.45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ as reported from the most recent survey (NHANES IV, 2001-2002) [26].

The skeleton is repository for 95% of absorbed lead and can serve as an endogenous source for many years after exposure [27]. Lead may be mobilized from skeleton during conditions of high bone turn over, such as pregnancy, lactation, menopause and aging [28]. A 25% adjusted increase in median blood lead concentration was reported for post menopausal women, compared to premenopausal women in NHANES II [29]. Furthermore in NHANES III, blood lead concentrations were highest in ages 70 years and older (3.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$) [26].

A multitargeted toxicant, lead affects cardiovascular, renal and nervous systems and may contribute to morbidity and mortality through its adverse impacts on these systems. The increased cardiovascular mortality risk may reflect an effect on sub-clinical risk factors for disease. The evidence for this association is supportive [30]. As part of NHANES III, an increased risk of peripheral arterial disease, hypertension and renal dysfunction was observed in populations with an average blood lead concentration of 2 µg/dL [2, 14, 31]. For example, the odds ratio of diastolic hypertension was 8.1 comparing women with a blood lead concentration of 4.0-31.1 µg/dL to women with lower blood lead concentrations of 0.5-1.6 µg/dL. Other analyses support an association between blood lead and renal function impairment [14, 32-34], and increased blood pressure [35, 36], a biologically plausible relationship [37-40].

Lead contributes to nephrotoxicity, even at blood concentration below 5 ug/ dL[34]. Increase in blood pressure and an association with renal damage have also been observed after lead exposure in rodent models also [37-41]. Alterations in signal transduction that involve renal pathways (eg, angiotensin and vasopressin) were reported in rat models [42-44]. Other mechanisms by which lead may increase cardiovascular risk include effects on neuromuscular and neuro-humoral regulation of vascular function, alteration in sodium transport, and alterations in calcium regulation [7, 11, 31, 45-51].

Blood lead was associated with almost twofold increased risk for cardiovascular death (HR=1.85) and more than three fold risk in coronary heart disease (CHD) mortality (HR=3.41) in our study. Our results are consistent with findings in which bone lead, a more accurate biomarker of chronic lead exposure than blood lead was associated with ischemic heart disease mortality [52]. A one standard deviation increase in patella and tibia lead concentrations was associated with greater risk for ischemic heart disease (Hazard Ratio for patella lead = 1.29; 95% CI, 1.02-1.62).

The pathogenesis of CHD is multifactorial; lead may be one of the mediators by two causal pathways; i.e., mediation through higher blood pressure [8] and by atherogenic process [53]. Lead-related atherosclerosis could be explained by several mechanisms, impairment of renal function [34], induction of oxidative stress [54] and endothelial dysfunction [54].

Previous studies have linked lead as low as 3.62 µg/dL with an increased risk of stroke mortality [7, 8]. In our study, we found no significant association with stroke, although the mean lead concentration in participants who died due to stroke was 22% higher as compared to the rest of the cohort (6.33µg/ dL vs. 5.21µg/dL, $p < 0.028$) perhaps reflecting the small number of stroke deaths in this cohort.

Lead is a toxic metal and categorized as probably carcinogenic to humans (Group 2A IARC 2004)[55Monograph]. Associations between occupational lead exposure and cancers of brain, stomach, kidney and lung have been reported [56-58]. However among non occupational cohorts, there has been inconsistent evidence of an association between blood lead and cancer [5]. Individuals with mean blood lead concentrations 10-19 µg/dL in the NHANES II cohort (1976-1980) did not have increased risk of cancer mortality, when compared to those with blood lead concentrations <10 µg/dL.

Our results are consistent with this observation as the median value in the “≥ 8 µg/dL” lead group was 9µg/dL. A higher risk of cancer deaths was only observed in with blood lead concentration > 20µg/dL [4]. Similarly, individuals with blood lead concentrations ≥ 3.62µg/dL in the NHANES III (1988-1994) did not have increased risk of cancer mortality when compared to those with <1.94 µg/dL [7]. In contrast, another analysis from the same population survey reported 44% increased risk of cancer death at blood lead concentrations ≥ 5 µg/dL when compared to those with <5 µg/dL [6].

A negative correlation has been observed between lead and vitamin D. Three genetic polymorphisms in vitamin D receptor gene (VDR) have been identified that can influence

blood lead concentrations[59]. Low vitamin D has been linked to 26% higher risk of all cause mortality in the NHANES III in US general population, more pronounced in women and older individuals [60] and increased risk of CVD mortality in another study [61]. In our study, women with ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ and those who died were less likely to take vitamin D supplements at baseline in comparison with women with lower blood lead concentrations and those who survived. We had also reported a significant inverse association in blood lead concentrations and the number of years women took vitamin D supplements [62]. Further observational studies may advance our understanding of association between lead concentrations and vitamin D intake.

Bone loss accelerates after menopause and bone demineralization may release bone lead into circulation [28]. Inverse association has been reported between mortality, (predominantly stroke deaths) and bone density [63]. In our study women with ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ blood lead had 9% lower calcaneal and 8% lower total hip bone mineral density at baseline as compared to women with lower lead concentrations. We also observed that women who died had 7% higher blood lead concentration than survivors. In another analysis older women each SD increase in BMD loss at the hip was associated with a 1.3-fold increase in total mortality, adjusted for age, baseline BMD, diabetes, hypertension, incident fractures, smoking, physical activity, health status, weight loss, and calcium use. In particular, hip BMD loss was associated with increased mortality from coronary heart disease (relative hazard [RH] = 1.3 per SD; 95% CI, 1.0-1.8) [64].

Alternatively, osteoporosis and atherosclerosis may result from elevated concentrations of homocysteine, an amino acid whose normal metabolism depends on folate and vitamin B₁₂ as cofactors. Lead and homocysteine both are associated with cardiovascular disease and cognitive dysfunction[65]. In subjects 50-70 years of age, blood lead and homocysteine concentrations were correlated (Pearson's $r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$), homocysteine concentration increased 0.35 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ per 1.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{dL}$ increase in blood lead ($p < 0.01$).

Homocysteine is an example of plausible mechanism that may mediate the affect of lead on the cardiovascular [66] and central nervous systems [67]. Taken together, more research is clearly needed to further our understanding of the mechanism of lead toxicity and these multisystem outcomes.

Compared to the rest of SOF participants, the lead study cohort was of comparatively younger age, had lower proportion with hypertension, and a lower proportion with limitation on physical performance as measured by chair stands [68]. The proportion of women with type 2 diabetes was higher in the lead cohort, we adjusted for diabetes in secondary analysis and the association of lead, and mortality remained significant. The number of women who are older and at risk is growing. Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of mortality worldwide [69] and in the United States [8]. It kills nearly half a million women in the United States every year, more than the next five causes of death combined and nearly twice as many as all forms of cancer, including breast cancer [70]. Environmental toxicants such as lead may explain part of the burden of CVD.

There are several strengths to our study: our follow up was more than 95% complete and we adjudicated all mortality events. We followed women for more than 12 years after the blood lead measures were obtained. We controlled for a number of covariates and cardiovascular risk factors. However, this study has several limitations; participation was limited to older Caucasian women, and the findings may not apply to men or nonwhite women. We did not determine co-contaminants such as cadmium that might be associated with cardiovascular disease through its known effects on kidney function [71, 72]. There are factors that differ by lead concentrations and we could not measure may have confounded our results. For example we had no measure of renal function, homocysteine or lipid concentrations and thus we could not examine whether these measures influenced the association between lead and mortality. We relied on death certificates and discharge summaries were only available for 33% of participants which may result in some

misclassification of cause of death [73]. Use of death certificates may be problematic for assigning a single cause of death, especially among the oldest women who often have multiple medical problems.

Conclusions:

Our study extends the findings of higher mortality associated with blood lead concentrations from NHANES III surveys to community dwelling older women. An increased mortality risk, especially cardiovascular disease was found at blood lead concentrations ≥ 8 $\mu\text{g/dL}$. Our results add to the existing evidence that adverse health affects of lead are seen at levels below current level of concern.

Competing Interests

JAC has received research support from Merck & Company, Eli Lilly & Company, Pfizer Pharmaceuticals, and Novartis Pharmaceuticals. She has also received consulting fees from Eli Lilly & Company, and Novartis Pharmaceuticals. She is on the speaker's bureau for Merck and Company. SRC receives research support from Amgen, Pfizer, Novartis, Eli Lilly and Co. and consulting fees or honoraria from Eli Lilly and Co., Zelos, Merck and Co., Novartis, GlaxoSmithKline, Procter & Gamble, and Aventis. NK, JWW, EOT, LAM, MCH, TAH, and SBM had no conflicts.

Authors' contributions

NK carried out the analysis and drafted the manuscript; JAC participated in the conceptual design, draft of the manuscript. SBM conceived the study and performed data acquisition; JWW participated in the analysis plan, and design of the study. EOT, LAM, SRC, MCH, TAH, participated in its design, coordination, and review of the study. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Abbreviations

SOF: Study of Osteoporotic Fractures, HR: Hazard Ratio, NHANES: National Health and Nutritional Examination Survey, $\mu\text{g/dL}$: microgram per deciliter, CHD: Coronary Heart Disease, BMD: Bone mineral density, DXA: Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry, ICD: International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification, CVD: Cardiovascular Disease, VDR: vitamin D receptor gene.

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Figure 1. Cumulative survival with blood lead concentrations $<8\mu\text{g/ dL}$, and $\geq 8\mu\text{g/ dL}$ in women in SOF.

Figure legend text

Cumulative survival associated with blood lead concentrations $<8\mu\text{g/ dL}$, and $\geq 8\mu\text{g/ dL}$ in women in SOF lead ancillary study and number of women at risk at each time point. (Log rank test $P<0.007$)

B-Pb ($\mu\text{g/ dL}$)	Number at risk at each time point in years			
	3.0	6.0	9.0	12.0
< 8	454	433	402	365
≥ 8	79	73	61	54

Figure 2. Adjusted hazard ratios and 95% confidence interval of mortality in SOF participants with blood lead concentrations $\geq 8 \mu\text{g/dL}$

Figure legend text

Adjusted hazard ratios and 95% confidence interval of all cause mortality and cause specific mortality in SOF lead ancillary study participants with blood lead concentrations $\geq 8 \mu\text{g/dL}$ compared to referent $< 8 \mu\text{g/dL}$

Table 1. Comparison of baseline characteristics in lead ancillary study and SOF participants.

	Lead cohort	SOF participants	P value
Characteristics (N total=9704)	N=533	N=9171	
Age (years), mean SD	70 ±4	72 ±5	<0.001
Body mass index (kg/m ²), mean SD	27 ±5	26 ±4	0.147
Education (years), mean SD	12 ±3	13 ±3	0.135
Alcohol (drinks /wk), mean SD	1.9 ± 4	1.8 ±4	0.737
Current smoker, n (%)	65 (12)	902 (10)	0.079
Hypertension, n (%)	153 (29)	3594 (39)	<0.001
Diabetes, n (%)	55 (10)	652 (7)	0.006
Pulse rate >80 beats per min, n (%)	57 (11)	1085 (12)	0.429
Current vitamin D use, n (%)	192 (36)	4259 (46)	<0.001
Current estrogen use, n (%)	67 (13)	1400 (15)	0.091
Self reported health, n (%)	86 (16)	1548 (17)	0.655
(Fair/poor/very poor vs. excellent /good)			
Inability to rise from chair, n (%)	11 (2)	397 (4)	0.011
Walk for exercise (yes/no), n (%)	213 (40)	4653 (51)	<0.001
Trailmaking B, sec to complete, mean SD*	131 (64)	144 (162)	0.077
Difficulty in ≥1 activities of daily living, n (%)	188 (35)	3379 (37)	0.464
Kcal/wk burned in past yr, mean SD	1174 ± 1282	1459 ±1703	<0.001
Calcaneus, bone density (g/cm ²), mean SD	0.41 ±0.09	0.40 ±0.09	0.084
Total hip, bone density (g/cm ²), mean SD	0.77 ±0.13	0.76 ±0.13	0.536

*An increase in score indicates decline in function

Table 2. Baseline characteristics in women in SOF lead ancillary study by blood lead concentrations

	<8 µg/dL	≥8 µg/dL	P value
Characteristics by blood lead concentration	N=453	N=79	
All cause mortality, n (col %)	96 (21)	27 (34)	0.011
Age (years), mean ±SD	70 ± 4	70 ±5	0.196
Body mass index(kg/m ²), mean ±SD	27 ±5	26 ±4	0.075
Education (years), mean ±SD	12 ±3	13 ±3	0.415
Alcohol (drinks /wk), mean ±SD	1.5 ±3	2.9 ±5	0.003
Current smoker, n (%)	46 (10)	20 (25)	0.001
Hypertension, n (%)	128 (28)	25 (32)	0.539
Diabetes, n (%)	48 (11)	7 (9)	0.644
Pulse rate >80 beats per min, n (%)	47 (10)	10 (13)	0.541
Current vitamin D use, n (%)	173 (38)	19 (24)	0.016
Current estrogen use, n (%)	60 (13)	7 (9)	0.281
Self reported health, n (%)	73 (16)	13 (17)	0.933
(Fair/poor/very poor vs. excellent /good)			
Inability to rise from chair, n (%)	9 (2)	0 (0)	0.209
Walk for exercise (yes/no), n (%)	183 (40)	30 (38)	0.696
Trailmaking B, sec to complete, mean ±SD*	119 (38)	125 (44)	0.200
Difficulty in ≥1 activities of daily living, n (%)	135 (33)	25 (32)	0.465
Kcal/wk burned in past yr , mean ±SD	1186 ±1291	1103 ±1234	0.596
Calcaneus, bone density (g/cm ²), mean ±SD	0.41 ±0.004	0.39 ± 0.01	0.050
Total hip, bone density (g/cm ²), mean ±SD	0.77 ±0.13	0.72 ±0.12	<0.006

* An increase in score indicates decline in function

Table 3. Baseline characteristics in women in SOF lead ancillary study by survival /mortality status

	Died	Survived	P value
Characteristic	N=123	N=410	
Age (years), mean \pm SD	72 \pm 5	70 \pm 4	0.001
Education (years), mean \pm SD	12 \pm 3	12 \pm 3	0.811
Body mass index(kg/m ²), mean \pm SD	26 \pm 5	27 \pm 5	0.164
Alcohol (drinks /wk), mean \pm SD	1.9 \pm 5	1.8 \pm 4	0.840
Current smoker, n (%)	25 (20)	41(10)	0.002
Hypertension, n (%)	47 (39)	106 (26)	0.007
Diabetes, n (%)	15 (12)	40 (10)	0.435
Pulse rate >80 beats per min, n (%)	22 (18)	35 (9)	0.003
Current vitamin D use, n (%)	36 (29)	156 (38)	0.075
Current estrogen use, n (%)	12 (10)	55 (13)	0.283
Self reported health, n (%) (fair/poor/very poor vs excellent /good))	27 (22)	59 (14)	0.046
Walk for exercise (yes/no), n (%)	41 (33)	172 (42)	0.087
Inability to rise from chair, n (%)	5 (4)	4 (1)	0.019
Trailmaking B, sec to complete, mean SD†	134 (36)	116 (39)	0.001
Difficulty in \geq 1 activities of daily living, n (%)	53 (43)	135 (34)	0.039
Kcal/wk burned past yr , mean \pm SD	1120 \pm 1277	1022 \pm 1290	0.134
Calcaneus, bone density (g/cm ²), mean \pm SD	0.39 \pm 0.008	0.42 \pm 0.004	0.008
Total hip, bone density (g/cm ²), mean \pm SD	0.71 \pm 0.13	0.77 \pm 0.13	<0.001
All cause death, B-Pb (μ g/dL), mean \pm SD	5.56 \pm 3	5.17 \pm 2	0.093
CVD death, B-Pb (μg/dL), mean \pmSD	5.81 \pm3	5.19 \pm3	0.059

CHD death, B-Pb ($\mu\text{g/dL}$), mean \pm SD	5.61 \pm 2	5.19 \pm 2	0.373
Stroke death, B-Pb ($\mu\text{g/dL}$), mean \pm SD	6.33 \pm 3	5.21 \pm 2	0.028
Cancer death, B-Pb ($\mu\text{g/dL}$), mean \pm SD	5.34 \pm 2	5.25 \pm 2	0.812
Other death, B-Pb ($\mu\text{g/dL}$), mean \pm SD	5.39 \pm 4	5.25 \pm 2	0.745

*B-Pb: blood lead concentration

† An increase in score indicates decline in function

Table 4. Hazard Ratio (HR) and 95% confidence interval of mortality by blood lead concentrations

Cause of death	Deaths	Blood lead concentration		<i>P</i> _{value}
		(µg/dL)		
		(<8)	(≥8)	
All cause death, n (Col %)	123	96 (21%)	27 (34%)	0.018*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	1.73 (1.12, 2.68)	0.014
Multivariate adjusted ^a		1.0	1.61 (1.03, 2.52)	0.037
Cardiovascular disease ^b , n(%)	54	41(9)	13 (16)	0.044*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	1.90 (1.00, 3.63)	0.054
Multivariate adjusted ^c		1.0	1.85 (0.98, 3.50)	0.058
Coronary heart disease ^d , n (%)	23	15 (4)	8 (11)	0.006*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	3.54 (1.48, 8.45)	0.004
Multivariate adjusted ^e		1.0	3.41 (1.39, 8.36)	0.007
Stroke ^f , n(%)	21	17 (4)	4 (5)	0.578*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	1.16 (0.34, 4.00)	0.816
Multivariate adjusted ^g		1.0	1.00 (0.32, 3.13)	0.995
Cancer ^h , n(%)	38	30 (7)	8 (10)	0.262*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	1.70 (0.77, 3.75)	0.185
Multivariate adjusted ⁱ		1.0	1.47 (0.66, 3.29)	0.345
All other deaths ^j , n(%)	31	25 (7)	6 (10)	0.289*
Age, clinic adjusted		1.0	1.51 (0.61, 3.72)	0.370
Multivariate adjusted ^k		1.0	1.19 (0.48, 3.00)	0.708

* Chi –square p-value only for percentage of deaths in two blood lead strata, the rest are Hazard Ratio p values.

^a The multivariate model included the following: age per 5 years, clinic, smoking, hypertension, total hip bone mineral density, ability to do chair stands.

^b ICD9 Code: All deaths due to CVD, including all diseases of circulatory system except those involving veins and lymphatics: 425,429.2, 440-444,428,401-404,410-414,430-438, and 798.

^c Age per 5 years, clinic, functional status, smoking, and hypertension.

^d ICD9 Code: deaths due to coronary heart disease: 410-414.

^e Age per 5 years, clinic, calcium supplement use, total hip bone mineral density, hypertension.

^f ICD9 Code: Deaths due to stroke: 430-438.

^g Age per 5 years, clinic, smoking, health status, total hip bone mineral density.

^h ICD9 Code: Deaths due to cancer: 140-239.

ⁱ Age per 5 years, clinic, total hip bone mineral density and smoking.

^j ICD9 Code: All other Deaths: Non CVD and non cancer deaths

^k Age per 5 years, clinic, hypertension, vitamin D use, total hip bone mineral density.

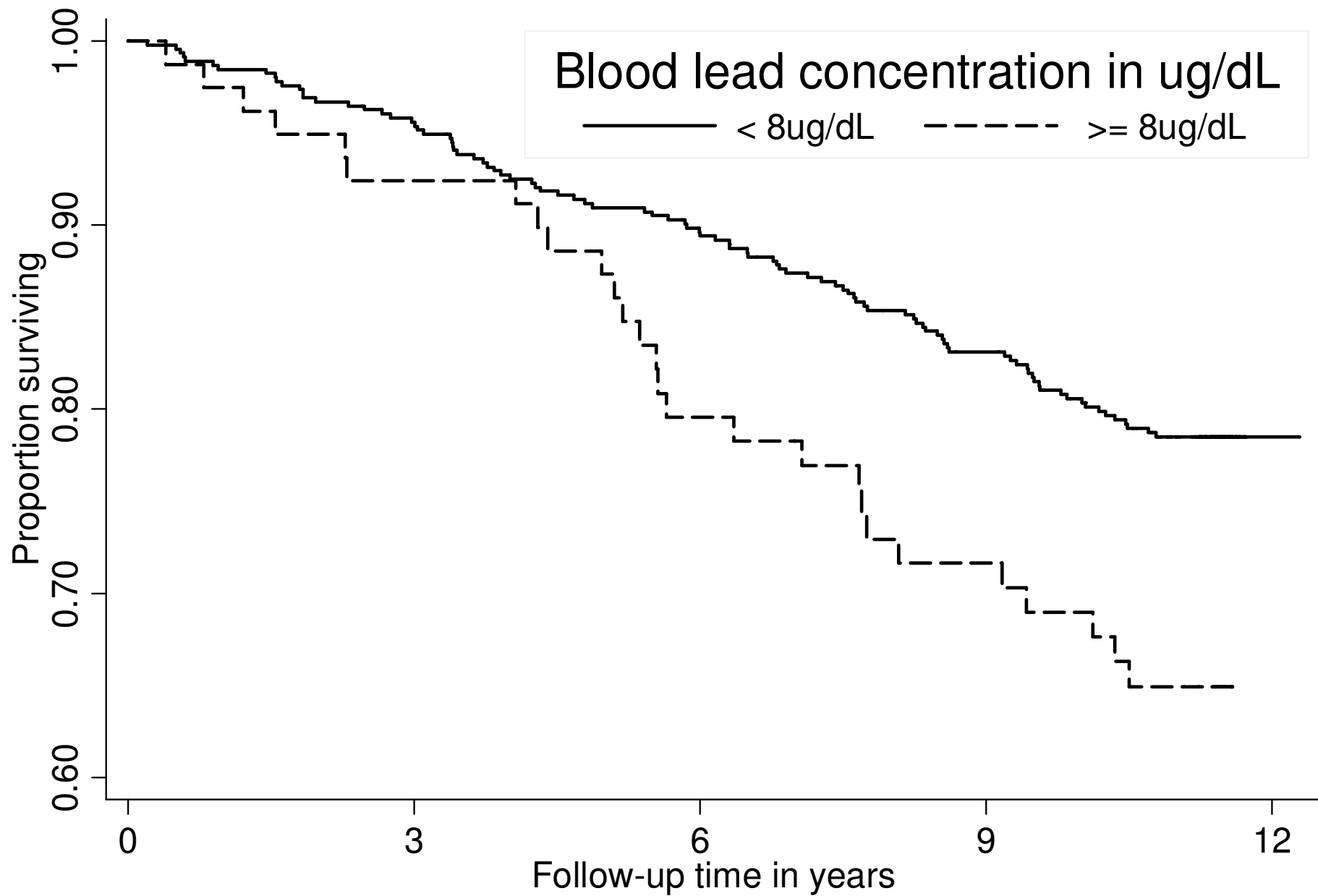


Figure 1

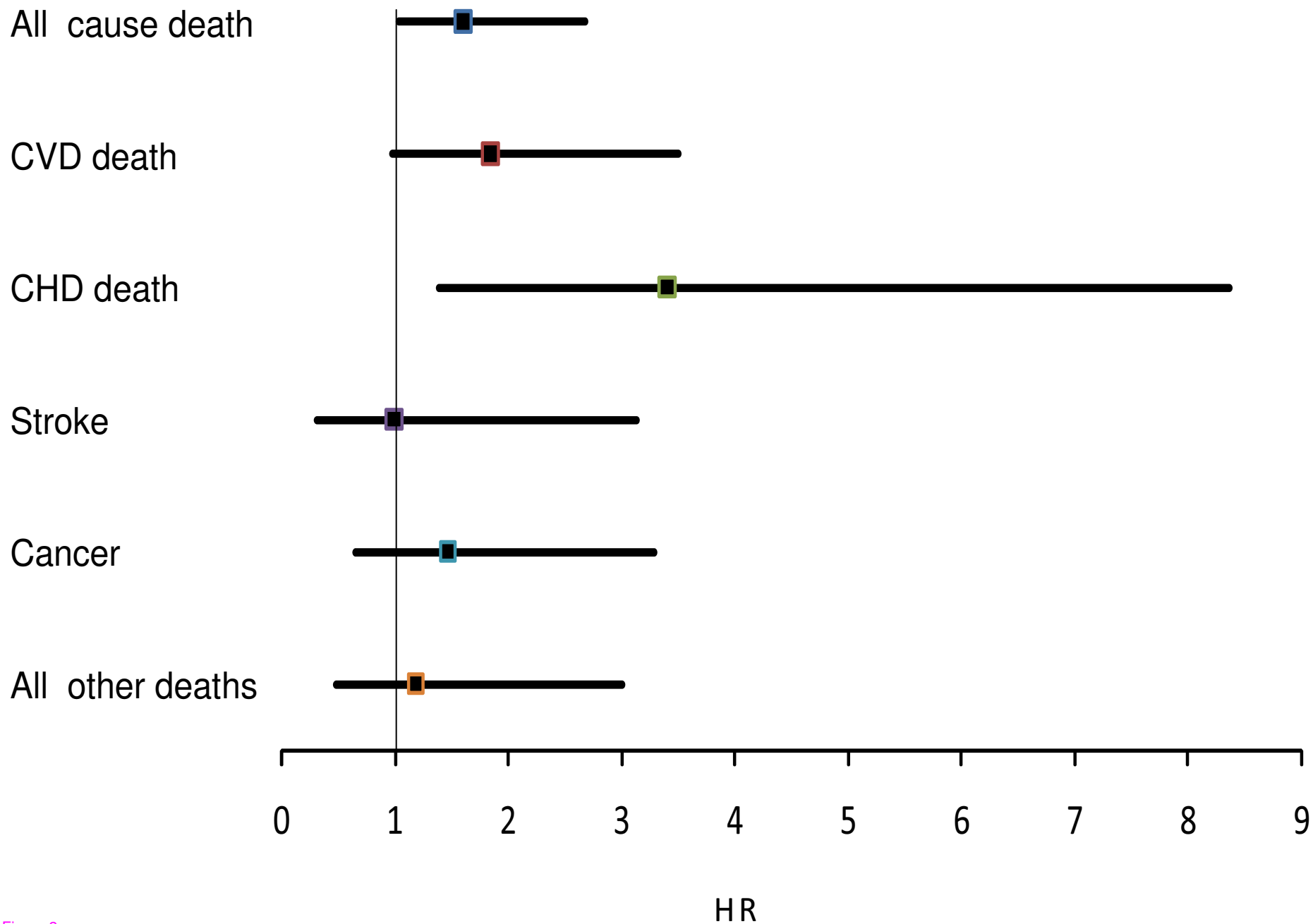


Figure 2