

1  
2 **A Prospective Study of Blood Selenium Levels and the Risk of Arsenic-**  
3 **related Premalignant Skin Lesions**

4  
5 Yu Chen <sup>1,2,3</sup>, Marni Hall <sup>4</sup>, Joseph H. Graziano <sup>4</sup>, Vesna Slavkovich <sup>4</sup>, Alexander van  
6 Geen <sup>5</sup>, Faruque Parvez <sup>4</sup>, and Habibul Ahsan <sup>1,6</sup>

7  
8 **Authors' affiliations:**

9 <sup>1</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Mailman School of Public Health, Columbia University

10 <sup>2</sup>Department of Environmental Medicine, New York University School of Medicine

11 <sup>3</sup>New York University Cancer Institute, New York University School of Medicine

12 <sup>4</sup>Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Mailman School of Public Health,  
13 Columbia University

14 <sup>5</sup>Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory of Columbia University

15 <sup>6</sup>Herbert Irving Comprehensive Cancer Center, Columbia University

16  
17 **Address for reprints:**

18 Reprint requests and correspondence should be addressed to:

19 Dr. Habibul Ahsan, Department of Epidemiology, Mailman School of Public Health,

20 Columbia University Medical Center, 722 West 168<sup>th</sup> Street, Room 720G, New York,

21 N.Y. 10032. Phone: (212) 305-7636; Fax: (212) 342-2129; E-mail: [ha37@columbia.edu](mailto:ha37@columbia.edu).

22  
23 **Running head:**

24 Selenium and risk of skin lesions

25  
26 **Grants and acknowledgments:** This research was supported by U.S. National Institute  
27 of Environmental Health Sciences Grants P42ES10349, P30ES09089, and National  
28 Cancer Institute Grants R01CA107431, and R01CA102484. The authors would like to  
29 thank the staff, field workers and study participants in Bangladesh without whom this  
30 work would not have been possible. The authors would also like to thank Dr. Wei-Yann  
31 Tsai for his helpful comments.

32  
33  
34  
35 **Abbreviations:**

36 Health Effects of Arsenic Longitudinal Study (HEALS)

37 Arsenic (As)

38 Selenium (Se)

39 Food frequency questionnaire (FFQ)

40  
41  
42 **Key words:**

43 Arsenic

44 Bangladesh

45 Case-cohort study

46 Premalignant skin lesions

47 Selenium

49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65  
66  
67  
68  
69  
70  
71

**Abstract**

Arsenic exposure from drinking water is considered to be a risk factor for skin and internal cancers. Animal studies suggest a potential antagonism between As and Se in the body. We performed a case-cohort analysis to prospectively evaluate the association between As-related premalignant skin lesions and prediagnostic blood Se levels in 303 cases of skin lesions newly-diagnosed from November 2002 to April 2004 and 849 subcohort members randomly-selected from the 8,092 participants in the Health Effects of As Longitudinal Study with available baseline blood and urine samples collected in 2000. Incidence rate ratios for skin lesions in increasing blood Se quintiles were 1.00 (ref), 0.68 (95% confidence interval (CI): 0.39, 1.18), 0.51 (95% CI: 0.29, 0.87), 0.52 (95% CI: 0.30, 0.91), and 0.53 (95% CI: 0.31, 0.90). Effect estimates remained similar with adjustments for age, sex, BMI, smoking status, excessive sunlight exposure (in men), well water As concentration at baseline, and nutritional intakes of folate, iron, protein, Vitamin E, and B Vitamins. At any given As exposure level, the risk of premalignant skin lesions was consistently greater among participants with blood Se lower than the average level. The findings support the hypothesis that dietary Se intake may reduce the incidence of As-related premalignant skin lesions among populations exposed to As exposure from drinking water.

72

73 **Background**

74         The presence of inorganic arsenic (As) in groundwater has been recognized as a  
75 public health hazard in many countries. The International Agency for Research on  
76 Cancer has classified arsenic as a group 1 human carcinogen. Epidemiologic studies have  
77 documented associations between As exposure from drinking water and elevated risks of  
78 premalignant skin lesions, skin and internal cancers, and cardiovascular diseases (1-3).  
79 In Bangladesh, more than 50 million people have been chronically exposed to drinking  
80 groundwater with As concentrations exceeding the WHO standard (10 µg/L) (4). We  
81 have estimated the cancer burden to be doubling in Bangladesh (5). Clearly, As  
82 mitigation and cancer preventive programs are urgently needed to reduce As toxicity in  
83 the population.

84         Cutaneous abnormalities are well known early signs of chronic inorganic As  
85 poisoning. Melanosis is considered as early-stage skin lesions. Keratosis is the most  
86 frequent manifestation preceding the appearance of As-related skin cancer (6). Unlike  
87 As-related internal cancers that could have long latencies, these premalignant skin lesions  
88 may appear with shorter periods of As exposure (7). They give rise to the majority of As-  
89 induced basal and squamous cell skin cancers (6, 8, 9). In 428 cases of skin cancer in an  
90 As-exposed population in Taiwan, 90% were associated with hyperpigmentation and  
91 72% were associated with keratosis (6). In other historical case series, 81-100% of As-  
92 related skin cancer cases were related to keratosis (10, 11).

93         It has been hypothesized that susceptibility to As toxicity differs by dietary  
94 selenium (Se) intake levels (12, 13). Se is an essential human dietary trace element  
95 required for synthesis of a variety of Se-containing proteins, some of which are  
96 selenoproteins that incorporate Se in the form of the amino acid selenocysteine (SeCys)  
97 during translation (14). Selenoproteins and their metabolites are critical in maintaining  
98 antioxidant/anti-inflammatory homeostasis. In experimental studies, As exposure has  
99 been associated with a greater production of free radicals and increased oxidative stress  
100 (15) that may be reduced by selenoproteins. Additionally, animal studies have  
101 demonstrated an interaction between Se and As, such that uptake of one of these elements  
102 causes release, redistribution, or elimination of the other element by urinary and/or biliary  
103 routes (16, 17). However, findings from epidemiologic studies about the protective effect

104 of Se intake on risks of As-related diseases such as premalignant skin lesions and  
105 blackfoot disease (a unique peripheral vascular disease in lower extremities related to  
106 high levels of As exposure) in populations exposed to As exposure have been  
107 inconclusive (13, 18-21). Limitations of these studies include small sample sizes,  
108 unavailability of prediagnostic Se levels (in observational studies), and methodological  
109 shortcomings such as the lack of blindness in randomization (in intervention studies).

110 We conducted a case-cohort study nested in the Health Effects of As Longitudinal  
111 Study (HEALS) to prospectively assess the association between prediagnostic levels of  
112 Se in whole blood and the subsequent risk of premalignant skin lesions. We also  
113 evaluated whether the relationship between long-term As exposure from drinking water  
114 and risk of skin lesions is modifiable by blood Se levels.

115

## 116 **Methods**

### 117 The Health Effects of As Longitudinal Study (HEALS)

118 The parent study HEALS is an ongoing prospective cohort study in Araihasar,  
119 Bangladesh. Details of the study methodologies have been presented elsewhere (22, 23).  
120 Briefly, prior to subject recruitment, water samples and geographic positional system data  
121 were collected for 5,966 contiguous wells in a well-defined geographic area of 25 square  
122 km in Araihasar. Between October, 2000 and May, 2002, 11,746 men and women aged  
123 18 years and above were recruited, with a participation rate of 97.5% (22). The cohort is  
124 being followed with in-person visits at two year intervals. Verbal consent was obtained  
125 from study participants. The study procedures were approved by the Columbia  
126 University Institutional Review Board and the Ethical Committee of the Bangladesh  
127 Medical Research Council.

128 At baseline recruitment, venous whole blood samples were collected in 3 ml  
129 Vacutainers containing EDTA as anticoagulant for 91.8% of the overall 11,746 cohort  
130 participants. At baseline and the follow-up visits, a spot urine sample was collected in 50  
131 ml acid-washed tubes for 95.6% and 94.5% of the cohort participants, respectively. Both  
132 blood and urine samples were kept in portable coolers immediately after collection.  
133 Within 2–8 hours, blood and urine samples were processed and transferred to -20° C  
134 freezers in the study office located in Dhaka city. All samples were kept frozen and  
135 shipped to Columbia University on dry ice within 1–2 months.

136 Trained physicians completed a comprehensive physical examination at baseline  
137 and follow-up visits. Details of the clinical examination protocol for premalignant skin  
138 lesion diagnosis were previously described (22). We instituted a structured protocol  
139 adapting the method for quantitative assessment of the extent of body surface  
140 involvement in burn patients. The principle is based on dividing the entire body skin  
141 surface into 11 segments and assigning percentages to each of them based on their size  
142 relative to the whole body surface. This method requires a physician to record  
143 presence/absence, type, size, shape of skin lesions and extent of skin involvement.  
144 Physicians were blind to information on the As level in participants' drinking wells. In  
145 the present study, presence of premalignant skin lesions was defined as existence of any  
146 melanosis and/or keratosis.

147

#### 148 Selection of cases and subcohort

149 A case-cohort study design (24) was used to evaluate the relationship between  
150 blood Se level and risk of skin lesions. The case-cohort study design has been used to  
151 analyze cohort data efficiently when most observations are censored (non-diseased) (24).  
152 It provides the advantages of a cohort study in that it allows the direct calculation of a  
153 rate ratio without the collection and analysis of full information on every member of the  
154 cohort. A random sample of the cohort, or "subcohort," is designated as the comparison  
155 group for the newly-diagnosed cases of skin lesion observed in the overall cohort.

156 Among the 9,727 participants who gave both urine and blood samples and  
157 completed the physical examination at baseline, 712 were prevalent cases of skin lesions.  
158 They were excluded from the current analysis. Additionally excluded from the study  
159 were 923 randomly selected subjects whose blood samples were previously consumed in  
160 a study of genetic susceptibility. The present analysis included a 10.5% random sample  
161 of the remaining 8,092 participants (n=849) and 303 cases of newly-diagnosed skin  
162 lesions. The 303 cases of skin lesions were diagnosed at the first two-year follow up  
163 from the 8,092 participants between November, 2002 and April, 2004; 221 of the cases  
164 had only melanosis, while the remaining 82 had both hyperkeratosis and melanosis.

165 Among the 303 newly-diagnosed cases, 31 were also part of the 849 subcohort members.

166

167 Measurements of As exposure

168 At baseline, water samples from all 5,966 tube wells in the study area were  
169 collected in 50 ml acid-washed tubes following well pumping for 5 minutes (25, 26).  
170 Total As concentration was determined by graphite furnace atomic-absorption  
171 spectrometry (GFAA) with a Hitachi Z-8200 system at the Lamont-Doherty Earth  
172 observatory of Columbia University (25). Samples that fell below the detection limit of  
173 GFAA (5 µg/L) were subsequently analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass  
174 spectrometry (ICP-MS), with a detection limit of 0.1 µg/L (27). Analyses for time-series  
175 samples collected from 20 tube wells in the study area showed that the As concentration  
176 in well water is relatively stable over time (27). Therefore, we derived a time-weighted  
177 As concentration (TWA) as a function of drinking durations and well As concentrations  
178 (28, 29). The TWA represents the average As exposure that accrued for 9 years on  
179 average in the cohort members prior to the time of baseline visits.  
180 Total urinary As concentration in urine samples collected at both baseline and follow-up  
181 visits was measured by GFAA, using a Perkin-Elmer AAnalyst 600 graphite furnace  
182 system, as previously described (30). Urinary creatinine was analyzed using a method  
183 based on the Jaffe reaction for adjustment of urinary total As concentration (31).

184

185 Measurements of Se and As in whole blood

186 Whole blood samples collected at baseline were analyzed for blood Se and As  
187 concentrations using a Perkin-Elmer Elan DRC II ICP-MS equipped with an AS 93+  
188 autosampler. ICP-MS-DRC methods for metals in whole blood were developed (with  
189 modifications) based on published methods (32). Whole blood samples were thawed,  
190 thoroughly mixed, diluted 50 times with diluent containing 1% HNO<sub>3</sub> + 0.2% Triton-X-  
191 100 + 0.5% NH<sub>4</sub>OH, and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 3500 rpm with the supernatant  
192 reserved for analysis. A multi-element standard solution was used for instrument  
193 calibration, with Se and As concentrations chosen to cover the expected ranges of analyte  
194 in the blood samples. We used iridium to correct matrix-induced interferences. A stock  
195 internal standard spiking solution was added to all calibrators and samples in the same  
196 concentration, 10 ng iridium per tube. Polyatomic interferences were suppressed with the  
197 instrument's Dynamic Reaction Cell (DRC) technology feature, utilizing oxygen as a  
198 second gas. Interclass correlation coefficient between the expected and observed

199 concentrations in quality control samples (blood samples with known analyte  
200 concentrations obtained from the Laboratory for ICP-MS Comparison Program in  
201 Quebec), was 0.99 and 0.90 for blood Se and As, respectively.

202

### 203 Measurements of Dietary Intakes

204 Dietary intakes were measured at baseline with a validated semi-quantitative food  
205 frequency questionnaire (FFQ) designed for the study population. Detailed information  
206 on the design and the validation of the FFQ has been published elsewhere (33). Briefly,  
207 to assess the validity of the FFQ, two 7-day food diaries (FD) were completed in two  
208 separate seasons by trained interviewers for 189 of the 200 participants randomly selected  
209 from the overall HEALS study population. Correlations for macronutrients and common  
210 micronutrients including total fat, monounsaturated fat, polyunsaturated fat, saturated fat,  
211 protein, carbohydrate, dietary fiber, sodium, potassium, vitamin B6, vitamin B12,  
212 riboflavin, manganese, thiamin, and iron ranged from 0.30 to 0.76 (33). We used both  
213 the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Nutrient Database for Standard  
214 Reference (abbreviated version) (34) and an Indian food nutrient database (35) to convert  
215 food intakes to nutrient intake values (33).

216

### 217 Statistical Analysis

218 Incidence rate ratios (RRs) for skin lesions were estimated using Cox  
219 proportional hazards models with the PROC PHREG procedure in SAS. Standard errors  
220 were estimated using the robust variance estimator proposed by Barlow (36). The  
221 random cohort was weighted by the inverse of the sampling fraction from the source  
222 population. Follow-up time, defined for each person as the time of baseline visit to the  
223 time of the first follow-up visit, was 1.9 years on average with a range of 0.9 to 3.5 years.  
224 Risk sets were created with age at the time of follow-up visit as a matching variable. For  
225 each case, members of the random subcohort whose age at the time of follow-up were  
226 older than that of the case by  $\leq 3$  years were included as the comparison for the case, i.e.  
227 those who had not been diagnosed with skin lesions at the age the case was diagnosed.  
228 Blood Se categories were determined according to quintile values in the subcohort.  
229 Previous studies from our group have suggested that age, sex, body mass index (BMI),  
230 and tobacco smoking may modify the risk of premalignant skin lesions (28, 29). These

231 factors, along with well As concentration, were considered the primary potential  
232 confounders in evaluating the main effect of blood Se level because these factors may  
233 also be related to Se intake level. Other risk factors of premalignant skin lesions  
234 including indicators of short-term changes in As exposure (well switching status since  
235 baseline and total urinary As level at the time of follow-up), excessive sunlight exposure  
236 (in men) (28), and nutrient intakes that have been related to As toxicity in the literature  
237 (37-39) were also considered. These were evaluated in a separate model (model 2)  
238 because values were not available for all the study participants.

239 RRs in relation to joint effects of long-term As exposure and blood Se were also  
240 estimated. Since RRs for the main effect of blood Se did not differ by additional  
241 adjustments, RRs for joint effect of As exposure and Se were adjusted for primary  
242 potential confounders (except for As exposure) only. We further calculated relative  
243 excess risk due to interaction (RERI) to assess the additivity of the joint effects (40).

244 The subcohort is a good representation of the underlying source population.  
245 We performed linear regression models to evaluate the relationships of blood Se with  
246 various socio-demographics, lifestyles, As exposure-related variables, food intakes that  
247 have been shown to be related to blood Se, and nutrient intakes that have been associated  
248 with modification of As toxicity in the literature. In addition, we evaluated the cross-  
249 sectional relationships of blood Se with blood As and total urinary As (all measured at  
250 baseline) in the subcohort. Factors such as well As level and water consumption that may  
251 be related to As intake were additionally adjusted for in this analysis.

252

## 253 **Results**

254 Cases were more likely to be male, older, less educated, and ever to have smoked  
255 at baseline (Table 1). Total urinary As, well water As level, blood As level, and the time-  
256 weighted well As level measured at baseline were all higher in cases than in the  
257 subcohort. Cases were more likely to have switched to another well water source since  
258 baseline. Nevertheless, total urinary As measured two years later was higher in cases.

259 In the subcohort, the proportion of men was higher among participants with  
260 higher levels of blood Se (p-trend <0.01) (Table 1). Average baseline BMI and  
261 educational attainment were higher in higher quintiles of blood Se (p-trend <0.05). There  
262 were no apparent associations of blood Se with age, cigarettes smoking status, and all of



263 the As exposure measures. The proportion of participants who switched to a different  
264 well since baseline was greater among participants with higher levels of blood Se (p-  
265 trend = 0.06). Adjusted average intakes of large fresh water fish, bread, dried beans, and  
266 milk were higher in participants with higher levels of blood Se. No significant  
267 associations were observed between blood Se level and intakes of meats, small fish, eggs,  
268 or any specific vegetables (data not shown). Average intakes of protein, iron, folate, and  
269 Vitamin B2 were positively related to blood Se levels (p-trend  $\leq 0.05$ ); spearman  
270 correlations of blood Se with these nutritional parameters were  $\leq 0.12$ .

271 Blood Se level was inversely related to risk of premalignant skin lesions (Table  
272 2). Comparing the higher four quintiles to the bottom quintile of blood Se, age- and sex-  
273 adjusted RRs ranged from 0.56 to 0.81. The inverse association remained apparent with  
274 additional adjustments for BMI, cigarettes smoking status, and baseline well As level;  
275 RRs were 0.51 (95% confidence interval (CI): 0.29, 0.87), 0.52 (95% CI: 0.30, 0.91), and  
276 0.53 (95% CI: 0.30, 0.91) comparing the third, fourth, and fifth quintile to the bottom  
277 quintile, respectively (model 1). Additional adjustments for well switching status, total  
278 urinary As and urinary creatinine at the time of follow-up, total energy intake, excessive  
279 sunlight exposure in men, and intakes of protein, folate, iron, Vitamins E, B2, B6, and  
280 B12 did not change the estimates appreciably (model 2).

281 The cross-sectional relationship between baseline blood Se and baseline urinary  
282 As in the subcohort is presented in Table 3. Partial spearman correlation controlling for  
283 age, well As level, BMI, and urinary creatinine was -0.10 ( $p = 0.02$ ) between blood Se  
284 and urinary As and 0.07 ( $p = 0.05$ ) between blood Se and blood As. Participants with  
285 higher blood Se levels had lower urinary As levels, adjusting for urinary creatinine, age,  
286 sex, BMI, smoking status, baseline well As concentration, and daily water consumption.  
287 The inverse association was statistically significant in multiple linear regression ( $p$  for  
288 trend = 0.03). On the other hand, no apparent association was observed between Se and  
289 As concentrations in the blood.

290 Low blood Se was associated with a greater risk for skin lesions at each level of As  
291 exposure (Table 4). The increased risk associated with low blood Se appeared to be  
292 additive to the risk related to higher levels of As exposure. The pattern of effect  
293 estimates was consistent with all four As exposure measurements. Additional adjustment  
294 for well switching status since baseline did not change the pattern of RRs. An RERI

295 estimate significantly greater or lower than zero (perfect additivity) indicates that the  
296 joint effects are significantly greater or lesser than additivity, respectively. All the RERI  
297 estimates were close to zero, ranging from -0.35 to 0.5 (data not shown). For instance,  
298 the RERI for joint effects of low blood Se and well As 25.1-117.0 µg/L is -0.26 (2.56-  
299 1.70-2.12+1). Therefore, there is no evidence that the joint effect of As exposure and low  
300 blood Se departs from additivity.

301

## 302 **Discussion**

303 To our knowledge, this is the first prospective study that evaluates the association  
304 between Se levels and risk of As-related disease in a population exposed to As from  
305 drinking water. Higher *prediagnostic* blood Se level was related to as much as a 50%  
306 reduction in risk of As-related premalignant skin lesions. This estimate did not change  
307 appreciably with adjustments for age, sex, BMI, smoking status, As exposure level, and  
308 dietary intakes related to As toxicity, including dietary folate, iron, protein, Vitamin E,  
309 and B Vitamins (37-39). The pattern of RRs suggests that the effects of As exposure and  
310 Se deprivation on risk of skin lesions are additive. These findings are in line with the  
311 hypothesis that dietary Se intakes may reduce the incidence of skin lesions among  
312 populations with As exposure from drinking water.

313 Findings from previous studies were mostly inconclusive on the relationship  
314 between Se intake and As toxicity. A case-control study in Taiwan found that patients  
315 with blackfoot disease had lower blood Se levels than controls, while a similar case-  
316 control study found that blood Se was higher in patients with late-stage blackfoot disease  
317 compared to that in controls (18, 19). In another case-control study in West Bengal, odds  
318 ratios for As-related skin lesions did not differ by blood Se levels (21). It is unclear,  
319 however, whether the blood Se levels observed in cases were a consequence or a  
320 contributing factor to blackfoot disease or As-related skin lesions in these case-control  
321 analyses. A placebo-controlled trial in Inner Mongolia found that Se supplementation  
322 significantly improved skin lesions (20). However, the trial was neither randomized nor  
323 double-blind, and the drop-out rates in both the placebo and the treatment groups were  
324 high. A pilot randomized, placebo-controlled trial conducted by our group found that Se  
325 supplementation slightly improved skin lesion status; however the sample size of the  
326 study was small and the improvement was not significant (13).

327 Our findings are consistent with several observational studies that found a  
328 protective association between plasma selenium level and the risk of nonmelanoma skin  
329 cancer (41-43). A large randomized clinical trial in patients who previously had  
330 nonmelanoma skin cancer, on the other hand, found that selenium supplementation  
331 increased the risk of skin cancer (44). There are several possible explanations. First,  
332 selenium supplementation may not offer benefits for secondary prevention of skin cancer  
333 in an older population (median age 65) (44). Second, the observed inverse association  
334 between blood Se and risk of skin lesions in the present analysis is likely due to both the  
335 chemopreventive effect of Se and the interaction between Se and As; the latter is absent  
336 in populations not exposed to As exposure. Third, it has been postulated that sub-clinical  
337 health effects of Se deficiency may be manifest at the low-end of “adequate” Se intake  
338 (45) and that physiological stressors may exert additional demand on Se-dependent  
339 systems. Indeed, the negative effects of selenium supplementation for secondary  
340 prevention of nonmelanoma skin cancer appear to be greater in those with high baseline  
341 plasma selenium (44). We observed that the risk associated with any given level of As  
342 exposure was consistently greater among persons with blood Se lower than the average  
343 level. Using the equation suggested by Yang et al (46), we estimated the average Se  
344 daily intake for participants with blood Se lower than the average level (150.2 µg/L) to be  
345 61 µg/day, close to the low-end of the recommended daily intake (RDI) of Se (55  
346 µg/day), which are established to maintain adequate levels of selenoenzymes. When the  
347 level of As exposure was statistically held constant, the reduced RRs associated with the  
348 higher three quintiles of blood Se were significant with similar magnitude, indicating that  
349 the Se dose-response curve may have a threshold above which no additional benefit  
350 occurs. Future As mitigation programs or randomized trials of Se supplementation may  
351 consider this finding. It should be noted that Se toxicity, although rare in human  
352 populations, has been observed at selenium intakes above 600 µg/day (47).

353 The primary interaction between Se and As is thought to be via a Se-As-  
354 glutathione conjugate formed in the liver and excreted into bile. In recent studies in  
355 rabbits, Gailer et al identified the compound excreted into bile as a seleno-bis (S-  
356 glutathionyl) arsinium ion, [(GS)<sub>2</sub>AsSe]<sup>-</sup> (17, 48). Our observation of an inverse  
357 association between blood Se level and urinary As is consistent with the hypothesis that  
358 Se-induced biliary excretion may occur in human. The association of blood As and blood

359 Se, on the other hand, was not apparent. These findings require further investigation.  
360 Other direct Se/As interactions exist. Berry et al reported that Se decreased As toxicity  
361 via the formation of a selenide precipitate ( $As_2Se$ ) that is deposited into tissues (49).  
362 Oxidative stress reducing effects of selenoenzymes including glutathione peroxidases  
363 (GPx), iodothyronine deiodinases (ID) and thioredoxine reductases (TR) (50) may also  
364 reduce As toxicity. In the mouse model, a significant reduction in the formation of 8-  
365 oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine, an oxidative DNA damage biomarker, was observed in  
366 ultraviolet radiation (UVR) and As treated mice that were supplemented with Se,  
367 compared with those treated with UVR or As alone (51). The initiation of UVR-induced  
368 skin tumors has been shown to vary with the activity of GPx and TR (52).

369 The underlying source population represents those who gave both blood and urine  
370 samples, who underwent the baseline clinical examination, and who did not have skin  
371 lesions at baseline and thus had a lower level of As exposure. Donation of blood and  
372 urine samples and consent to physical examination were weakly associated with a higher  
373 educational attainment (22). While these differences do not affect the internal validity of  
374 our findings, compared to the study population, the overall cohort may have a somewhat  
375 higher As level and a lower blood Se level given the positive association between blood  
376 Se level and educational attainment. The risk difference associated with Se intake thus  
377 may be more significant in the overall cohort. Consistent with findings from another  
378 study (53), we found that the average blood Se in Bangladeshi population (150  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ) was  
379 not particularly lower than those reported from populations in developed countries (54),  
380 ranging from 87-107  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in Germany, 134-138  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in England, and 166 to 200  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in  
381 non-seleniferous areas in the US.

382 Se levels measured in whole blood are considered as a useful measure for ranking  
383 subjects for long-term Se intake (55). The calculation of TWA was based on self-  
384 reported use of wells. However, validity of self-reported well use history was good since  
385 the correlation between arsenic concentration in the baseline well and baseline urinary  
386 arsenic was 0.70 (22). In addition, the patterns of RRs for the joint effects of As  
387 exposure and low blood Se were similar using multiple biologic measures of As  
388 exposure, which further strengthen the findings. In a separate analysis, we have also  
389 shown consistent dose-response relationships of the risk of skin lesions with TWA,  
390 baseline blood As, and baseline urinary As, and we demonstrated that blood As is a good

391 biomarker of As exposure in this population (56). The three measures were highly  
392 correlated with one another (pairwise spearman correlation = 0.8) (56). Dietary intakes  
393 of other nutrients relevant to As toxicity were measured by FFQ, and therefore  
394 measurement errors are expected. The fact that RRs for skin lesions in relation to blood  
395 Se levels remained the same after controlling for dietary folate, iron, protein, Vitamin E,  
396 and B Vitamins excludes the possibility of strong confounding effect due to these dietary  
397 factors. Sharing of the wells in the study population was minimal; the 1121 subjects  
398 included in the present analysis were users of 908 wells at baseline. Therefore, the  
399 findings are not likely to have been affected by correlated As exposure among subjects.  
400 After the completion of baseline interviews, participants with well As > 50 µg/L were  
401 advised to change their drinking well, leading to the changes in As exposure during the  
402 1.9 years period of time from baseline to the follow-up visit. However, the short-term  
403 changes in As exposure are less relevant to the risk of skin lesions, compared to the  
404 TWA, which is based on an average of 9 years of well use history. In addition,  
405 adjustments for switching status and urinary As at the time of follow-up did not change  
406 RR estimates for skin lesions in relation to blood Se.

407         In conclusion, our results are consistent with the notions that 1) higher dietary Se  
408 intake may reduce the risk of As-related skin lesions, and 2) Se RDI may not be adequate  
409 in the presence of physiological stressors such as chronic As exposure from drinking  
410 water. Future studies should continue to evaluate the effect of Se in treating As-related  
411 skin lesions and skin cancers, as well as the influence of Se on relationships between As  
412 exposure and other As-related disorders.

413  
414

415 **References**

416

417 1. Tseng WP. Blackfoot disease in Taiwan: a 30-year follow-up study. *Angiology*  
418 1989;40:547-558.

419 2. Chen CJ, Kuo TL, Wu MM. Arsenic and cancers. *Lancet* 1988;1:414-415.

420 3. Chiou HY, Huang WI, Su CL, et al. Dose-response relationship between prevalence  
421 of cerebrovascular disease and ingested inorganic arsenic. *Stroke* 1997;28:1717-  
422 1723.

423 4. The British Geological Survey. Groundwater studies for arsenic contamination in  
424 Bangladesh-Phase 1 findings. Available: <http://www.bgs.ac.uk/arsenic/> [accessed  
425 March 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2006].

426 5. Chen Y, Ahsan H. Cancer burden from arsenic in drinking water in Bangladesh.  
427 *Am J Public Health* 2004;94:741-744.

428 6. Tseng WP, Chu HM, How SW, et al. Prevalence of skin cancer in an endemic area  
429 of chronic arsenicism in Taiwan. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1968;40:453-463.

430 7. Saha KC. Diagnosis of arsenicosis. *J Environ Sci Health Part A Tox Hazard Subst*  
431 *Environ Eng* 2003;38:255-272.

432 8. Alain G, Tousignant J, Rozenfarb E. Chronic arsenic toxicity. *Int J Dermatol*  
433 1993;32:899-901.

434 9. Centeno JA, Mullick FG, Martinez L, et al. Pathology related to chronic arsenic  
435 exposure. *Environ Health Perspect* 2002;110 Suppl 5:883-886.

436 10. Neubauer O. Arsenical cancer; a review. *Br J Cancer* 1947;1:192-251.

437 11. Arguello RA, Conget DD, Tello EE. Cancer and endemic arsenism in the Cordoba  
438 Region. *Rev Argent Dermatol* 1939;22:461-487.

439 12. Spallholz JE, Mallory BL, Rhaman MM. Environmental hypothesis: is poor dietary  
440 selenium intake an underlying factor for arsenicosis and cancer in Bangladesh and  
441 West Bengal, India? *Sci Total Environ* 2004;323:21-32.

442 13. Verret WJ, Chen Y, Ahmed A, et al. A randomized, double-blind placebo-  
443 controlled trial evaluating the effects of vitamin E and selenium on arsenic-induced  
444 skin lesions in Bangladesh. *J Occup Environ Med* 2005;47:1026-1035.

445 14. Behne D, Kyriakopoulos A. Mammalian selenium-containing proteins. *Annu Rev*  
446 *Nutr* 2001;21:453-473.

447 15. Shi H, Shi X, Liu KJ. Oxidative mechanism of arsenic toxicity and carcinogenesis.  
448 *Mol Cell Biochem* 2004;255:67-78.

- 449 16. Levander OA, Baumann CA. Selenium metabolism. VI. Effect of arsenic on the  
450 excretion of selenium in the bile. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 1966;9:106-115.
- 451 17. Gailer J, George GN, Pickering IJ, et al. Biliary excretion of [(GS)(2)AsSe](-) after  
452 intravenous injection of rabbits with arsenite and selenate. *Chem Res Toxicol*  
453 2002;15:1466-1471.
- 454 18. Wang CT. Concentration of arsenic, selenium, zinc, iron and copper in the urine of  
455 blackfoot disease patients at different clinical stages. *Eur J Clin Chem Clin*  
456 *Biochem* 1996;34:493-497.
- 457 19. Lin SM, Yang MH. Arsenic, selenium, and zinc in patients with Blackfoot disease.  
458 *Biol Trace Elem Res* 1988;15:213-221.
- 459 20. Yang L, Wang W, Hou S, Peterson PJ, Williams WP. Effects of Selenium  
460 Supplementation on Arsenism: An Intervention Trial in Inner Mongolia.  
461 *Environmental Geochemistry and Health* 2002;24:359-374.
- 462 21. Chung JS, Haque R, Guha Mazumder DN, et al. Blood concentrations of  
463 methionine, selenium, beta-carotene, and other micronutrients in a case-control  
464 study of arsenic-induced skin lesions in West Bengal, India. *Environ Res* 2005.
- 465 22. Ahsan H, Chen Y, Parvez F, et al. Health Effects of Arsenic Longitudinal Study  
466 (HEALS): description of a multidisciplinary epidemiologic investigation. *J Expo*  
467 *Sci Environ Epidemiol* 2006;16:191-205.
- 468 23. Parvez F, Chen Y, Argos M, et al. Prevalence of arsenic exposure from drinking  
469 water and awareness of its health risks in a Bangladeshi population: results from a  
470 large population-based study. *Environ Health Perspect* 2006;114:355-359.
- 471 24. Prentice RL. A Case-Cohort Design for Epidemiologic Cohort Studies and Disease  
472 Prevention Trials. *Biometrika* 1986;73:1-11.
- 473 25. van Geen A, Ahsan H, Horneman AH, et al. Promotion of well-switching to  
474 mitigate the current arsenic crisis in Bangladesh. *Bull World Health Organ*  
475 2002;80:732-737.
- 476 26. van Geen A, Zheng Y, Versteeg R, et al. Spatial variability of arsenic in 6000 tube  
477 wells in a 25 km<sup>2</sup> area of Bangladesh. *Water Resour Res* 2003;39:1140.
- 478 27. Cheng Z, van Geen A, Seddique AA, Ahmed KM. Limited temporal variability of  
479 arsenic concentrations in 20 wells monitored for 3 years in Araihasar, Bangladesh.  
480 *Environ Sci Technol* 2005;39:4759-4766.
- 481 28. Chen Y, Graziano JH, Parvez F, et al. Modification of Risk of Arsenic-Induced  
482 Skin Lesions by Sunlight Exposure, Smoking, and Occupational Exposures in  
483 Bangladesh. *Epidemiology* 2006;17:459-467.

- 484 29. Ahsan H, Chen Y, Parvez F, et al. Arsenic exposure from drinking water and risk of  
485 premalignant skin lesions in Bangladesh: baseline results from the health effects of  
486 arsenic longitudinal study. *Am J Epidemiol* 2006;163:1138-1148.
- 487 30. Nixon DE, Mussmann GV, Eckdahl SJ, Moyer TP. Total arsenic in urine:  
488 palladium-persulfate vs nickel as a matrix modifier for graphite furnace atomic  
489 absorption spectrophotometry. *Clin Chem* 1991;37:1575-1579.
- 490 31. Slot C. Plasma creatinine determination. A new and specific Jaffe reaction method.  
491 *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 1965;17:381-387.
- 492 32. Stroh A. Determination of Pb and Cd in Whole Blood Using Isotope Dilution ICP-  
493 MS. *Atomic Spectroscopy* 1993;37:1575-1579.
- 494 33. Chen Y, Ahsan H, Parvez F, Howe GR. Validity of a food-frequency questionnaire  
495 for a large prospective cohort study in Bangladesh. *Br J Nutr* 2004;92:851-859.
- 496 34. U.S.Department of Agriculture ARS, Nutrient Data Laboratory Home Page. USDA  
497 Nutrient Database for Standard Reference, Release 15. Available:  
498 <http://www.nal.usda.gov/fnic/foodcomp/Data/SR14/dnload/sr14dnld.html> [accessed  
499 June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2006].
- 500 35. Gopalan C, Rama Sastri BV, Balasubramanian SC: Nutritive value of indian foods.  
501 Hyderabad, India, Indian Council of Medical Research, National Institute of  
502 Nutrition, 1989.
- 503 36. Barlow WE, Ichikawa L, Rosner D, Izumi S. Analysis of case-cohort designs. *J*  
504 *Clin Epidemiol* 1999;52:1165-1172.
- 505 37. Gamble MV, Liu X, Ahsan H, et al. Folate, Homocysteine, and Arsenic Metabolism  
506 in Arsenic-Exposed Individuals in Bangladesh. *E* 2005;113:1683-1688.
- 507 38. Steinmaus C, Carrigan K, Kalman D, et al. Dietary intake and arsenic methylation  
508 in a U.S. population. *Environ Health Perspect* 2005;113:1153-1159.
- 509 39. Mitra SR, Mazumder DN, Basu A, et al. Nutritional factors and susceptibility to  
510 arsenic-caused skin lesions in West Bengal, India. *Environ Health Perspect*  
511 2004;112:1104-1109.
- 512 40. Rothman KJ: *Modern Epidemiology*. Boston/Toronto, Little Brown, 1986.
- 513 41. Clark LC, Graham GF, Crounse RG, et al. Plasma selenium and skin neoplasms: a  
514 case-control study. *Nutr Cancer* 1984;6:13-21.
- 515 42. Breslow RA, Alberg AJ, Helzlsouer KJ, et al. Serological precursors of cancer:  
516 malignant melanoma, basal and squamous cell skin cancer, and prediagnostic levels  
517 of retinol. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1995;4:837-842.
- 518 43. Karagas MR, Greenberg ER, Nierenberg D, et al. Risk of squamous cell carcinoma  
519 of the skin in relation to plasma selenium, alpha-tocopherol, beta-carotene, and



520 retinol: a nested case-control study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1997;6:25-  
521 29.

522 44. Duffield-Lillico AJ, Slate EH, Reid ME, et al. Selenium supplementation and  
523 secondary prevention of nonmelanoma skin cancer in a randomized trial. *J Natl*  
524 *Cancer Inst* 2003;95:1477-1481.

525 45. Rayman MP. The importance of selenium to human health. *Lancet* 2000;356:233-  
526 241.

527 46. Yang G, Zhou R, Yin S, et al. Studies of safe maximal daily dietary selenium intake  
528 in a seleniferous area in China. I. Selenium intake and tissue selenium levels of the  
529 inhabitants. *J Trace Elem Electrolytes Health Dis* 1989;3:77-87.

530 47. Yang GQ, Xia YM. Studies on human dietary requirements and safe range of  
531 dietary intakes of selenium in China and their application in the prevention of  
532 related endemic diseases. *Biomed Environ Sci* 1995;8:187-201.

533 48. Gailer J, George GN, Pickering IJ, et al. Structural basis of the antagonism between  
534 inorganic mercury and selenium in mammals. *Chem Res Toxicol* 2000;13:1135-  
535 1142.

536 49. Berry JP, Galle P. Selenium-arsenic interaction in renal cells: role of lysosomes.  
537 Electron microprobe study. *J Submicrosc Cytol Pathol* 1994;26:203-210.

538 50. Morton WE, Dunnette DA: Health Effects of Environmental Arsenic; in: Nriagu J  
539 O (ed): *Arsenic in the Environment, Part II: Human Health and Ecosystem Effects*.  
540 New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1994.

541 51. Uddin AN, Burns FJ, Rossman TG. Vitamin E and organoselenium prevent the  
542 cocarcinogenic activity of arsenite with solar UVR in mouse skin. *Carcinogenesis*  
543 2005;26:2179-2186.

544 52. Burke KE, Combs GF, Jr., Gross EG, Bhuyan KC, Abu-Libdeh H. The effects of  
545 topical and oral L-selenomethionine on pigmentation and skin cancer induced by  
546 ultraviolet irradiation. *Nutr Cancer* 1992;17:123-137.

547 53. Iyengar GV, Kawamura H, Parr RM, et al. Dietary intake of essential minor and  
548 trace elements from Asian diets. *Food Nutr Bull* 2002;23:124-128.

549 54. Combs GF, Jr. Selenium in global food systems. *Br J Nutr* 2001;85:517-547.

550 55. Longnecker MP, Stram DO, Taylor PR, et al. Use of selenium concentration in  
551 whole blood, serum, toenails, or urine as a surrogate measure of selenium intake.  
552 *Epidemiology* 1996;7:384-390.

553 56. Hall M, Chen Y, Ahsan H, et al. Blood arsenic as a biomarker of arsenic exposure:  
554 Results from a prospective study. *Toxicology* 2006;225:225-233.

555

**Table 1. Characteristics of the 849 Subcohort Members and 303 Newly Diagnosed Skin Lesion Cases in the HEALS Cohort**

Characteristic*	Skin lesion cases	Subcohort	Quintile of blood selenium levels in the Subcohort					p-value for trend
			Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	
No. of participants	303	849	170	173	167	171	168	
Range of blood Se levels, µg/L	88.5-258.8	69.8-262.6	69.8-132.4	132.3-145.0	145.1-156.6	156.7-169.8	169.9-262.6	
Mean blood Se, µg/L	150.1	152.3	120.9	139.3	150.5	163.4	188.1	
Baseline characteristic								
Males, %	70.3	37.0	26.5	35.8	37.7	39.8	45.2	<0.01
Mean Age	45.0	36.6	36.4	35.7	37.2	35.7	37.8	0.27
Mean BMI	19.4	19.9	19.2	19.6	20.1	20.2	20.5	<0.01
Cigarettes smoking status								
Ever-smokers in men, %	81.7	70.7	62.2	72.3	65.1	73.4	76.3	0.12
Ever-smokers in women, %	11.1	5.6	5.6	9.0	4.8	2.9	5.4	0.36
Excessive sunlight exposure in men, % †	8.5	5.1	8.9	3.2	7.9	1.5	5.3	0.32
Mean educational level, years	2.9	3.7	3.0	3.7	3.6	3.6	4.6	<0.01
Mean baseline well As, µg/L	157.4	103.1	96.7	103.1	93.0	117.4	104.9	0.27
Mean time-weighted well As, µg/L	147.4	101.8	93.8	106.6	95.9	109.2	103.2	0.44
Mean baseline total urinary As, µg/L	172.0	137.3	137.0	134.1	132.9	142.2	140.0	0.71
Mean urinary creatinine, g/L	60.6	58.1	54.7	55.9	54.6	60.2	65.1	0.02
Mean blood As, µg/L	14.3	10.8	10.2	10.7	10.7	11.1	11.1	0.20
Follow-up characteristic								
Mean total urinary As, µg/L	139.1	119.9	115.5	122.7	126.2	111.3	123.9	0.89
Mean urinary creatinine, g/L	67.8	63.8	58.1	62.0	68.1	61.6	69.1	0.05
Switched to other well since baseline, %	52.2	40.5	34.7	39.8	40.1	43.3	44.5	0.06
Mean daily food or nutrient intake ‡								
No. of participants	292	824	162	167	161	164	164	
Protein, g/day	91.6	86.9	84.9	85.7	86.4	89.6	88.7	0.02

Iron, mg/day	26.7	25.1	24.3	24.2	25.0	26.8	25.2	<0.01
Folate, µg/day	137.2	131.7	126.2	129.7	129.7	139.7	134.5	0.05
Vitamin B2, mg/day	1.1	1.1	1.02	1.05	1.05	1.10	1.07	0.01
Vitamin B12, mg/day	1.9	1.9	1.92	1.89	1.77	1.98	1.92	0.82
Vitamin B6, mg/day	3.7	3.5	3.56	3.54	3.55	3.48	3.49	0.12
Vitamin E, mg/day	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.5	0.36
Big fish, g/day	23.5	22.5	21.5	21.6	19.8	23.0	27.9	0.02
Small fish, g/day	34.5	32.2	34.7	36.0	27.7	29.6	30.5	0.18
Bread, g/day	25.5	14.5	7.0	10.5	17.2	15.0	22.8	<0.01
Dried Beans, g/day	86.7	81.0	69.8	74.8	80.0	89.4	89.8	<0.01
Beans, g/day	42.8	37.1	33.8	40.4	36.1	39.6	35.1	0.80
Beef lamb, g/day	13.6	15.4	14.2	13.5	16.9	19.5	13.5	0.51
Poultry, g/day	3.4	4.0	3.2	5.0	4.7	3.3	4.3	0.89
Milk, g/day	32.3	25.7	21.6	22.6	22.2	31.1	30.1	0.01
Eggs, g/day	6.7	8.5	7.6	8.9	8.4	8.4	8.7	0.72

\* Data on body mass index were missing for 4 cases skin lesions and 7 subcohort members. Data were also missing on time-weighted As for, respectively, 18 and 36 subjects; on follow-up total urinary As for 0 and 27 subjects; and on switching status for 0 and 26 subjects.

† Men who worked outside with a bare upper body were categorized as having excessive sun exposure (28). As women in Bangladesh universally wear traditional dresses that almost completely cover the skin of their trunk, sunlight exposure of female respondents was considered minimal and therefore was not assessed in the study.

\* Dietary intakes were measured with a validated FFQ at baseline. A total of 824 subcohort members and 292 cases completed the FFQ. Mean values shown by quintile of blood Se in the subcohort were adjusted for age, sex, BMI, and total energy intake.

**Table 2. Adjusted Rate Ratios for Skin Lesions by Quintile of Blood Selenium Level**

Blood Se Quintile (µg/L)	Mean Blood Se Level (µg/L)	No. of subcohort (%)	No. of cases (%)	Age- & Sex-adjusted Rate Ratios (95% CI) *	Model 1		Model 2	
					No. of subcohort/cases	Multivariate Adjusted Rate Ratios (95% CI) †	No. of subcohort/cases	Multivariate Adjusted Rate Ratios (95% CI) ‡
68.8-132.4	121.0	170 (20.0)	72 (23.8)	1.00	168/72	1.00	158/68	1.00
132.5-145.0	139.0	173 (20.4)	62 (20.5)	0.81 (0.49-1.34)	172/60	0.68 (0.39-1.18)	160/58	0.60 (0.33-1.10)
145.1-156.6	150.7	167 (19.7)	52 (17.2)	0.58 (0.35-0.96)	166/51	0.51 (0.29-0.87)	156/50	0.52 (0.30-0.89)
156.7-169.8	163.4	171 (20.1)	59 (19.5)	0.62 (0.37-1.04)	169/58	0.52 (0.30-0.91)	157/57	0.53 (0.30-0.96)
169.9-262.6	187.3	168 (19.8)	58 (19.0)	0.56 (0.33-0.93)	167/58	0.53 (0.31-0.90)	160/55	0.51 (0.29-0.89)

\*Rate Ratios were adjusted for age and sex

† Rate Ratios were adjusted for age, sex, BMI, smoking status, and baseline well As. A total of 11 subjects with unknown BMI were excluded from the analysis

‡ Rate Ratios were adjusted for age, sex, BMI, smoking status, baseline well As, well switching status at follow-up, urinary As at follow-up, excessive sunlight exposure in men, total energy intake, and dietary intakes of folate, iron, protein, Vitamin E, B2, B12, and B6. A total of 83 subjects with unknown information on BMI, well switching status since baseline, urinary As level at the time of follow-up, or dietary intakes of As-related nutrients were excluded from the analysis

**Table 3. Relationships of blood Se with Urinary and Blood As in the Subcohort at Baseline**

Blood Se Quintile (µg/L)	n	Adjusted means of baseline urinary As (µg/L) *		Adjusted means of baseline blood As (µg/L) †	
		Means (SD)	p-value for trend	Means (SD)	p-value for trend
68.8-132.4	170	142.94 (9.03)	0.03	10.81 (0.48)	0.66
132.5-145.0	173	135.58 (8.88)		10.68 (0.48)	
145.1-156.6	167	142.37 (8.96)		11.22 (0.48)	
156.7-169.8	171	126.08 (8.88)		10.57 (0.48)	
169.9-262.6	168	125.41 (8.95)		11.06 (0.48)	

\* Adjustments were made for baseline age, sex, smoking status, BMI, well As concentration, daily water consumption, and urinary creatinine.

† Adjustments were made for baseline age, sex, smoking status, BMI, well As concentration, daily water consumption.

**Table 4. Joint Effect of As Exposure and Low Blood Se on Risk of Skin Lesion**

As exposure measures § (Tertiles)	Blood Se > 150.2 µg/L†			Blood Se ≤ 150.2 µg/L†		
	N (Cases/ Subcohort)	Median As level‡	Rate Ratios (95% CI)*	N (Cases/ Subcohort)	Median As level‡	Rate Ratios (95% CI)*
Baseline well As levels (µg/L)						
0.1-25.0	25/129	7.2	1.00	37/153	7.2	2.12 (1.09-4.10)
25.1-117.0	36/140	67.7	1.70 (0.86-3.36)	45/140	62.1	2.56 (1.33-4.94)
117.1-564.0	87/157	231.7	3.38 (1.86-6.17)	69/130	237.8	4.15 (2.24-7.67)
Time-weighted water As levels (TWA) (µg/L)						
0.1-29.0	24/123	8.4	1.00	34/146	9.0	2.11 (1.01-4.34)
29.1-116.0	35/138	68.2	1.85 (0.92-3.74)	45/131	63.9	2.62 (1.30-5.28)
116.1-564.0	79/148	223.8	3.40 (1.75-6.63)	64/127	232.2	4.58 (2.33-8.99)
Baseline blood As (µg/L)						
1.6-6.8	25/118	5.0	1.00	36/171	4.9	1.55 (0.82-2.92)
6.9-11.3	39/146	8.9	1.36 (0.71-2.59)	45/127	8.9	2.18 (1.16-4.09)
11.4-63.9	84/162	17.8	2.50 (1.40-4.46)	70/125	19.2	3.55 (1.94-6.50)
Baseline total urinary As (µg/L) ††						
3-54	27/142	30.6	1.00	38/141	30.1	1.68 (0.89-3.16)
55-138	44/125	88.0	1.46 (0.78-2.71)	49/154	88.7	2.15 (1.16-3.96)
139-1220	77/159	281.2	2.67 (1.42-5.03)	64/128	301.3	3.12 (1.66-5.84)

\*RRs were adjusted for age, BMI, sex, and smoking status. RRs in relation to urinary As were additionally adjusted for urinary creatinine. A total of 11 subjects with unknown information on BMI were excluded from the analysis. A total of 51 subjects with unknown information on the TWA were also excluded from the calculation of RRs in relation to TWA.

‡ Category-specific median values in the subcohort for each of the four As exposure measures in the left column.

† Cut point was determined based on median value in the subcohort.

§ Cut points were determined based on tertile values in the subcohort.

†† RRs associated with total urinary arsenic were additionally adjusted for urinary creatinine level.