Original Article Correlation between bone mineral density and serum trace element contents of elderly males in Beijing urban area

Liang Wang^{1*}, Haotian Yu^{1*}, Guohua Yang¹, Yan Zhang¹, Wenjiao Wang¹, Tianjiao Su¹, Weifeng Ma¹, Fan Yang¹, Liying Chen¹, Li He², Yuanzheng Ma¹, Yan Zhang³

¹Center of Orthopedics, 309 Hospital of PLA, Beijing 100091, China; ²Division of Science and Technology, National Institute for Nutrition and Food Safety, Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Beijing 100050, China; ³Center for Systems Biomedical Sciences, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai 200093, China. ^{*}Equal contributors and co-first authors.

Received May 15, 2015; Accepted July 6, 2015; Epub October 15, 2015; Published October 30, 2015

Abstract: Trace element levels are associated with the incidence of osteoporotic fractures, but related mechanisms remain unknown. Trace elements may interfere with growth, development and maintenance of bones. Therefore, we investigated whether plasma trace element levels are associated with bone mineral density in elderly males in Beijing. After epidemiologically investigating 91 elderly males with age ranging from 50 years to 80 years, we obtained a total of 30 healthy (group 1), 31 osteopoenic (group 2) and 30 osteoporotic (group 3) subjects. Blood was collected, and serum concentrations of trace elements were detected. Elderly males in the three groups were carefully matched in terms of body mass index. Iron, manganese, zinc, copper, selenium, cadmium and lead were analysed by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry. Bone mineral density (BMD) was measured by QDR-2000 dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Correlation between BMD and serum element contents was analysed using SPSS16.0. The plasma levels of manganese, zinc, copper, selenium and lead were similar in all of the groups (P>0.05). Cadmium was significantly and negatively correlated with BMD of the lumbar vertebrae (P<0.05). Moreover, cadmium and iron contents significantly differed in osteoporotic and healthy groups. These elements may directly and correlatively affect BMD in elderly males. Many trace elements may directly and correlatively influence BMD. Future studies should be conducted to evaluate serum and bone levels of these trace elements to determine the relationship of these trace elements with osteoporosis.

Keywords: Osteoporosis, bone mineral density, element

Introduction

Osteoporosis, a common bone disorder, is prevalent in postmenopausal females and elderly males. Osteoporosis is characterised by reduced bone density and altered bone microarchitecture. The primary complication of osteoporosis is fracture, which occurs at almost any site but most commonly on the hip, the vertebral spine and the wrist [1]. Approximately 10% of fractures affect the hip in age group of 60 years to 80 years; this proportion has increased to 41% in the age group of >80 years. An osteoporosis epidemiology study conducted in Dubbo (New South Wales, Australia) has shown that approximately one-half of hip fractures occur before males reach 80 years of age and two-thirds of the same disease occurs before females reach 85 years of age [2]. The incidence of distal forearm, hip and total fractures exponentially increase in both genders as these individuals age [3]. In Europe, osteoporotic fractures account for higher disability adjusted life year (DALY) lost than common cancers except lung cancer [4]. In another research, the economic burden of osteoporotic fractures in Europe will possibly increase from €36.3 billion in 2000 to €76.8 billion in 2050 [5]. The pathogenesis of osteoporosis may also be associated with trace elements [6, 7]. For instance, studies [8] have investigated the relationship between postmenopausal osteoporosis and trace ele-

ments. Trace mineral supplements with or without calcium elicit beneficial effects on the bone density of postmenopausal females [4]. Despite this association, the correlation between trace elements and BMD in males has been rarely analysed. Likewise, individual studies on trace elements, including selenium, zinc and copper, have demonstrated that deficiency in any of these trace elements can increase the risk of bone resorption by inhibiting bone growth; thus, these elements may play a role in the onset and the progression of osteoporosis [9]. However, the association between trace element status and osteoporosis in males has not been investigated. The relationship between elements and bone mineral density (BMD) should be elucidated to provide significant evidence for osteoporosis diagnosis and intervention. Thus, we investigated 91 elderly males in Beijing to further analyse trace element levels. In particular, serum concentrations of trace elements, including iron, manganese, zinc, copper, selenium, cadmium and lead, were determined. BMD was also detected. Furthermore, correlation between these trace elements and BMD was analysed.

Materials and methos

Subject

In this case-control study, 91 elderly men were divided into three groups based on their BMDs: healthy (group 1, n=30, T score <-1.0); osteopenic (group 2, n=31, -1.0< T score <-2.5); and osteoporotic (group 3, n=30, T score >-2.5). The subjects were carefully matched on the basis of their body mass indices (BMIs). Subjects were included in the study if the following criteria were satisfied: male subjects aged 50 years to 80 years of Chinese Han nationality; subjects who have lived in Beijing urban area for more than three years; subjects who do not suffer from diseases that may influence bone metabolism, severe chronic diseases requiring long-term therapy and diseases that can influence the secretion of male sex hormones; and subjects who do not have history of hormonal drug intake and osteoporosis treatment six months before our study was conducted. This study was conducted in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki. This study was conducted with approval from the Ethics Committee of the 309th Hospital of PLA. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Density determination

Osteoporosis was diagnosed on the basis of WHO criteria [10]. BMDs of the lumbar vertebrae and the left hips of the subjects were determined using a QDR-2000 dual-energy X-ray absorptiometer (Norland Company, USA) controlled by computers with auto-position fixing, auto-detection and auto-data manipulation. The relative error of repeated detection was 0.5%. BMDs of specific body parts, such as the lumbar vertebrae (L2-L4), the femoral neck, Ward's triangle and the greater trochanter of the femur, were calculated by fan-shaped scanning. The following criteria were considered in this study. BMD is considered normal if T-score is within 1 standard deviation of a normal young adult value. Thus. T-score between 0 and -1 is considered normal; T-score <-1 is considered abnormal. BMD corresponds to low bone mass (osteopoenia) if T-score ranges between -1 and -2.5. This result indicates an increased fracture risk but does not satisfy the criteria of osteoporosis. BMD>2.5 standard deviation from the normal (T score \leq -2.5) value corresponds to osteoporosis.

Determination of serum trace elements

Approximately 4 ml of blood was collected from the ulnar vein of males, who lived in urban areas, in the morning after they underwent overnight fasting. Blood samples were collected into evacuated tubes containing lithium heparin and then stored at -70°C until analysis. The samples were analysed by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent Company, USA) with an octopole-based collision/reaction cell. The samples were subjected to microwave digestion with tetrafluoroethylene in a tank; afterward, 6 ml of concentrated nitric acid was added at room temperature. The solution was allowed to stand overnight in a microwave digestion system and optimised using a microwave digestion program. After the solution was cooled, the acid-digested solution was mixed with catch acid at 150°C for 1 h. The digested solution was subjected to 10-fold dilution by adding ultrapure water to determine zinc and iron contents. The digested solution was not diluted when manganese, selenium, copper, cadmium and lead were determined.

		-	-	
Group	Healthy (N=30)	Osteopenia (N=31)	Osteoporosis (N=30)	P value
Age (year)	66.33±10.77	66.56±8.75	63.50±9.74	>0.05 ^{a,b,c}
BMI (kg/m ²)	25.29±2.64	21.22±8.74	22.86±2.30	>0.05 ^{a,b,c}
L2-4 BMD (g/cm ²)	1.068±0.238	1.076±0.143	0.912±0.110	< 0.05 ^b
L2 BMD (g/cm ²)	1.056±0.203	1.044±0.125	0.903±0.112	<0.05 ^{a,b,c}
L3 BMD (g/cm ²)	1.100±0.203	1.051±0.146	0.852±0.187	<0.05 ^{a,b,c}
L4 BMD (g/cm ²)	1.123±0.287	1.059±0.169	0.884±0.259	<0.05 ^{a,b,c}
Neck BMD (g/cm ²)	0.972±0.094	0.838±0.831	0.660±0.100	<0.05 ^{a, b, c}
Troch BMD (g/cm ²)	0.815±0.150	0.727±0.091	0.604±0.081	<0.05 ^{a,b,c}
Ward's BMD (g/cm ²)	0.771±0.114	0.630±0.128	0.484±0.095	< 0.05 ^{a,b,c}

Table 1. Clinical characteristics of the subjects in the three groups

Values are expressed as mean \pm SD. *P*<0.05 was considered statistically significant between groups. ^aosteopoenia versus healthy; ^bosteoporosis versus healthy; and ^costeoporosis versus osteopoenia.

Table 2.	Trace element	contents	of the three groups
----------	---------------	----------	---------------------

Group	Healthy (Group 1) (N=30)	Osteopenia (Group 2) (N=31)	Osteoporosis (Group3) (N=30)	P value
Fe (ppm)	454.61±59.98	502.43±40.43	525.03±65.54	<0.05ª
Mn (ppb)	7.45±10.95	9.86±11.24	5.34±10.45	>0.05
Zn (ppm)	5.23±0.67	5.68±0.67	5.51±0.60	>0.05
Cu (ppb)	833.42±166.84	783.29±107.46	764.40±70.41	>0.05
Se (ppb)	133.97±29.03	144.88±26.81	125.53±22.84	>0.05
Cd (ppb)	0.357±0.509	0.642±0.779	1.239±1.260	<0.05ª
Pb (ppb)	129.90±121.77	95.60±119.23	116.45±86.51	>0.05

Data are reported as mean \pm standard deviation values and compared between groups. *n* total number of subjects. ^aGroup 1 vs. 3, *P*<0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Statistical analyses

Data were analysed using SPSS for Windows version 16.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). One-way ANOVA was performed to determine statistical significance of differences in variables among groups, and Bonferroni test was conducted as a post-hoc test for multiple comparisons when a significant result was obtained. Correlations between variables were evaluated by Pearson's correlation test. Data were presented as mean \pm SD. Statistical significance was set at P<0.05.

Results

Demographic and clinical characteristics of elderly males

A healthy elderly population was selected by excluding subjects with the following: glucocorticoid medication (n=16); renal disease (n=7); cancer (n=8); overt thyroid disease (n=6); and

the three groups

Plasma iron, manganese, zinc, copper, selenium, cadmium and lead contents among the groups are shown in **Table 2**. Plasma manganese, zinc, copper, selenium and lead contents were similar among the groups (P>0.05). Iron and cadmium significantly increased in the osteoporosis group compared with those in the healthy group (**Table 2**, P<0.05).

possible rheumatoid arthri-

tis, bone disease other than osteoarthritis, psoriasis or asthma (n=6). Nine subjects who provided insufficient sample volume were also excluded because trace elements could not be measured. Several subjects satisfied two or more criteria, resulting in exclusion of 52 subjects from the initial group of 143 elderly males. A total of 91

elderly males were obtain-

ed, and their characteristics are listed in **Table 1**. Age and BMI did not differ

among healthy, osteopoenic and osteoporotic groups; by contrast, lumbar and hip BMD significantly differed. The BMDs of the lumbar vertebrae and the femoral neck were lower in osteopoenic and osteoporotic groups than in the healthy group; likewise, BMD of the osteoporotic group was lo-

wer than that of the osteo-

Trace element contents of

poenic group (P<0.05).

Correlation analysis between serum trace element contents and BMD of elderly males

The results of Pearson correlation analysis between serum trace element contents and BMD of elderly males are presented in **Table 3**. Cadmium exhibited a significantly negative correlation with the BMD of the lumbar vertebra (P<0.05), particularly L2-4 (r=-0.224), L2 (r=-0.143), L3 (r=-0.237) and L4 (r=-0.242). Manganese contents were positively correlated

					()		
	L2-4 BMD r value	L2 BMD r value	L3 BMD r value	L4 BMD r value	Neck BMD r value	Torch BMD r value	Ward's BMD r value
Fe	-0.089	-0.039	-0.068	-0.122	-0.129	-0.076	-0.107
Mn	0.116	0.150	0.127	0.073	0.082	-0.092	-0.135
Zn	-0.097	-0.014	-0.081	-0.145	-0.172	-0.110	-0.174
Cu	-0.013	0.029	-0.021	-0.018	0.019	0.028	0.165
Se	0.011	0.067	0.030	-0.031	-0.038	-0.008	-0.085
Cd	-0.224*	-0.143	-0.237*	-0.242*	-0.051	-0.179	-0.159
Pb	0.051	0.060	0.070	0.027	0.023	0.164	0.190

Table 3. Pearson correlation analysis between serum elements and BMD (r)

r Pearson's correlation coefficient; *P<0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Table 4. Pearson correlation analysis of serum elements (r)

	· · ·	,				
	Fe	Mn	Zn	Cu	Se	Cd
Mn	0.378*					
Zn	0.715*	0.422*				
Cu	-0.309*	-0.16	-0.122			
Se	0.477*	0.393*	0.563*	0.016		
Cd	0.155	0.134	0.085	-0.031	0.002	
Pb	-0.185	-0.347*	-0.153	0.245*	-0.177	0.106
*P<0.05 was considered statistically significant						

P<0.05 was considered statistically significant.</p>

with the BMD of the lumbar vertebrae and the proximal femora; by contrast, iron was negatively correlated with BMD. However, this correlation was not statistically significant (P>0.05).

Correlation analysis between serum element contents of elderly males

The results of Pearson correlation analysis between serum trace element contents of elderly males are shown in Table 4. Serum iron was significantly correlated with manganese, zinc, copper and selenium (P<0.05); likewise, serum manganese was significantly correlated with iron, zinc, selenium and lead (P<0.05). Serum zinc was also significantly correlated with iron, manganese and selenium (P<0.05). Similarly, serum copper was significantly correlated with serum iron and lead (P<0.05). Furthermore, serum selenium was significantly correlated with serum iron, zinc and manganese (P<0.05). Serum lead was also significantly correlated with serum manganese and copper (P<0.05).

Discussion

The causes of osteopenia and osteoporosis are multifactorial, including genetics, endocrine

function and exercise and nutritional considerations [11, 12]. Bone formation and metabolism are also modulated by trace elements, such as iron, zinc and copper, in addition to macroelements, such as calcium, phosphorus and magnesium. Trace elements are essential for bone growth and development because these elements interact with bone matrix and affect bone metabolism [6]. These minerals are also implicated in pathology, diagnosis and treatment of osteoporosis [13]. To further clarify the relationship between trace elements and their effect on BMD, we measured serum iron. manganese, zinc, copper, selenium, cadmium and lead contents and analysed their correlation with BMD.

Seven serum trace elements, particularly iron, manganese, zinc, copper, selenium, cadmium and lead, were determined in this study. Iron is involved in the synthesis of collagen and in the conversion of 25-hydroxy vitamin D into an active form [14, 15]. Few studies have shown that iron is essential for proper functioning of osteoblasts and for osteogenic processes [16]. Few studies have also revealed the effect of excess iron on osteoblast dysfunction and metabolic bone disorders, including osteopoenia, osteoporosis and osteomalacia in humans [17, 18]. In our study, iron content was significantly increased in the osteoporosis group compared with that in the healthy group; thus, excess iron in serum may lead to bone mass loss.

Manganese, a component of various enzymes involved in cartilage and bone metabolism [19], is involved in ossification and mucopolysaccharide synthesis in cartilage [20]. Bone disorders caused by manganese deficiency directly result from enzymatic defects in glycosaminoglycan synthesis. However, excess manganese may cause disturbances in the metabolism of other elements, such as iron, thereby inhibiting haemoglobin formation; this condition causes neurotoxic and osteotoxic effects and disrupts functions of tissues and organs [21, 22]. In our study, serum manganese contents were similar among the groups; thus, our population exhibited normal manganese content.

Zinc, as an activator of numerous metal enzymes, can stimulate activities of bone metabolic enzymes, such as alkaline phosphatase, collagenase and sulfuricoylase; zinc also influences 1,25-OH vitamin D3 and calcitonin concentrations [23, 24]. Zinc can stimulate gene expressions of transcription factors, such as runt-related transcription factor 2, which is related to differentiation forming osteoblastic cells: zinc can inhibit osteoclastic bone resorption by inhibiting osteoclast-like cell formation from bone marrow cells and by stimulating apoptotic cell death of mature osteoclasts [25]. Bone growth retardation is common in various conditions associated with dietary zinc deficiency, suggesting that zinc compounds may be a novel supplement factor in prevention and therapy of osteoporosis [25]. Arikan et al. [26] found that zinc is positively correlated with the BMD of the lumbar vertebrae (total T score). Likewise, we observed that zinc levels were similar in all of the groups; this result indicated that dietary zinc was sufficient.

Copper plays an important role in metabolism in the nervous system, haematogenesis, construction of skeleton, connective tissues and cross-linking of elastin and collagen proteins; thus, copper is implicated in bone development and repair [27]. Rodríguez et al. [27, 28] concluded that copper stimulates MSC differentiation preferentially toward the osteogenic lineage. Copper deficiency may influence the synthesis and the stability of bone collagen and may induce skeleton development disorders, resulting in osteoporosis. Copper supplementation may be a potential strategy to treat and prevent involutional osteoporosis [29]. In this study, copper concentrations were similar among healthy, osteopoenic and osteoporotic groups.

A group of paediatric patients with low BMD present low selenium status caused by low-selenium formula diets [30]; this condition has also been observed in residents of Tibet where selenium content in soils is low [31]. These find-

ings are possibly related to the functions of selenoproteins. Many, if not all, selenoproteins are antioxidant enzymes necessary to maintain cell redox balance, which is essential for the regulation of inflammation and bone cell pro-liferation/differentiation [32]. Osteoclasts are activated by inflammatory cytokines released by osteoblasts at low levels [33]. Thus, selenium can alleviate NF- κ B-dependent regulation of inflammatory responses; this result suggests that selenium may mediate osteoblast-osteoclast crosstalk [34]. In this study, selenium was not related to BMD in normal and osteoporotic groups.

Bone is one of the target organs of cadmium toxicity [35]. Cadmium exposure can induce bone loss, lead to osteoporosis and increase the risk of bone fractures in humans and experimental animals [36-42]. In our study, cadmium concentrations were higher in the osteoporotic group than in the healthy group; cadmium concentrations also differed between normal BMD and osteoporosis. Cadmium exposure exhibited a significantly inverse association with BMD. Our results also showed a significant inverse association between cadmium exposure and BMD; cadmium levels were higher in the osteoporotic group than in the healthy group. Moreover, cadmium levels differed between normal BMD and osteoporosis.

Cadmium and lead levels of individuals living in polluted areas are significantly higher than those living in controlled areas; this result suggested that these elements may affect bones and interactively affect BMD [43]. Lead may also interact with other factors in the course of postmenopausal osteoporosis; lead further inhibits vitamin D activation, dietary calcium uptake and several regulatory aspects of cell function, thereby aggravating the course of this disease [44]. Animal studies have demonstrated that increased lead exposure is associated with decreased bone density [45-47] and bone strength [48]. Moreover, in vitro studies have revealed that lead exposure inhibits the function of chondrocytes and osteoblasts in bone development [48, 49]. In another study, a significant inverse association has been observed between lead exposure and BMD among white subjects [50]. In our study, BMD was similar among healthy, osteopoenic and osteoporosis groups; thus, these factors may have not been influenced by lead.

This study demonstrated that iron and cadmium were significantly increased in the osteoporosis group compared with those in the healthy group. Our results further revealed that serum iron and cadmium contents may directly and mutually influence BMD; these trace elements may affect the pathogenesis of osteoporosis. Serum cadmium content was also significantly and negatively correlated with BMD; this result suggested that cadmium could be involved in the development of osteoporosis. Furthermore, our results demonstrated that these trace elements directly and correlatively influenced BMD; indeed, these elements may affect the pathogenesis of osteoporosis. However, the relationship of these trace elements with BMD and osteoporosis remains unclear. As such, future studies should be conducted to evaluate serum and bone levels of these trace elements to determine the relationship of these trace elements with osteoporosis.

Disclosure of conflict of interest

None.

Address correspondence to: Dr. Yuanzheng Ma, Center of Orthopedics, 309 Hospital of PLA, 17 Heishanhu Road Haidian District, Beijing 100091, China. Tel: +86 10 5547 3203; Fax: +86 10 6676 7722; E-mail: yuanzhengmacn@126.com; Dr. Yan Zhang, Center for Systems Biomedical Sciences, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, 516 Jungong Road Yangpu District, Shanghai 200093, China. Tel: +86 138 1796 8563; E-mail: medicineyan@aliyun.com

References

- [1] Willson T, Nelson SD, Newbold J, Nelson RE and LaFleur J. The clinical epidemiology of male osteoporosis: a review of the recent literature. Clin Epidemiol 2015; 7: 65-76.
- [2] Chang KP, Center JR, Nguyen TV and Eisman JA. Incidence of hip and other osteoporotic fractures in elderly men and women: Dubbo Osteoporosis Epidemiology Study. J Bone Miner Res 2004; 19: 532-536.
- [3] Andersen S and Laurberg P. Age impact on clinical risk factors does not justify the age related change in referral pattern for osteoporosisassessment-Data from the Aalborg University Hospital Record for Osteoporosis Risk Assessment (AURORA). Maturitas 2015; 80: 302-307.
- [4] Johnell O and Kanis JA. An estimate of the worldwide prevalence and disability associat-

ed with osteoporotic fractures. Osteoporos Int 2006; 17: 1726-1733.

- [5] Kanis JA and Johnell O. Requirements for DXA for the management of osteoporosis in Europe. Osteoporos Int 2005; 16: 229-238.
- [6] Zofková I, Nemcikova P and Matucha P. Trace elements and bone health. Clin Chem Lab Med 2013; 51: 1555-1561.
- [7] Aaseth J, Boivin G and Andersen O. Osteoporosis and trace elements-an overview. J Trace Elem Med Biol 2012; 26: 149-152.
- [8] Sadeghi N, Oveisi MR, Jannat B, Hajimahmoodi M, Behzad M, Behfar A, Sadeghi F and Saadatmand S. The relationship between bone health and plasma zinc, copper lead and cadmium concentration in osteoporotic women. J Environ Health Sci Eng 2014; 12: 125.
- [9] Strain JJ. A reassessment of diet and osteoporosis-possible role for copper. Med Hypotheses 1988; 27: 333-338.
- [10] Miller PD. Guidelines for the diagnosis of osteoporosis: T-scores vs fractures. Rev Endocr Metab Disord 2006; 7: 75-89.
- [11] Parsons LC. Osteoporosis: incidence, prevention, and treatment of the silent killer. Nurs Clin North Am 2005; 40: 119-133.
- [12] Kirk D and Fish SA. Medical management of osteoporosis. Am J Manag Care 2004; 10: 445-455.
- [13] Gür A, Colpan L, Nas K, Cevik R, Saraç J, Erdoğan F and Düz MZ. The role of trace minerals in the pathogenesis of postmenopausal osteoporosis and a new effect of calcitonin. J Bone Miner Metab 2002; 20: 39-43.
- [14] Ganz T and Nemeth E. Hepcidin and disorders of iron metabolism. Annu Rev Med 2011; 62: 347-360.
- [15] Blanco-Rojo R, Pérez-Granados AM, Toxqui L, Zazo P, de la Piedra C and Vaquero MP. Relationship between vitamin D deficiency, bone remodelling and iron status in iron-deficient young men consuming an iron-fortified food. Eur J Nutr 2013; 52: 695-703.
- [16] Diamond T, Pojer R, Stiel D, Alfrey A and Posen S. Does iron affect osteoblast function? Studies in vitro and in patients with chronic liver disease. Calcif Tissue Int 1991; 48: 373-379.
- [17] Mahachoklertwattana P, Sirikulchayanonta V, Chuansumrit A, Karnsombat P, Choubtum L, Sriphrapradang A, Domrongkitchaiporn S, Sirisriro R and Rajatanavin R. Bone histomorphometry in children and adolescents with beta-thalassemia disease: iron-associated focal osteomalacia. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2003; 88: 3966-3972.
- [18] Schnitzler CM, Macphail AP, Shires R, Schnaid E, Mesquita JM and Robson HJ. Osteoporosis in African hemosiderosis: role of alcohol and iron. J Bone Miner Res 1994; 9: 1865-1873.

- [19] Erikson KM, Syversen T, Aschner JL and Aschner M. Interactions between excessive manganese exposure and dietary iron-deficiency in neurodegeneration. Environ Toxicol Pharmacol 2005; 19: 415-421.
- [20] Smrcka V. Trace elements in bone tissue Charles University in Prague. The Karolinum Press, Prague, 2005.
- [21] Dobson AW, Erikson KM and Aschner M. Manganese neurotoxicity. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2004; 1012: 115-128.
- [22] Karki P, Lee E and Aschner M. Manganese neurotoxicity: a focus on glutamate transporters. Ann Occup Environ Med 2013; 25: 4.
- [23] Tapiero H and Tew KD. Trace elements in human physiology and pathology: zinc and metallothioneins. Biomed Pharmacother 2003; 57: 399-411.
- [24] Drzazga Z, Michalik K, Maciejewska K, Trzeciak H and Kaszuba M. Role of endogenous zinc in bones of newborn rats. Biofactors 2007; 30: 243-248.
- [25] Bhardwaj P, Rai DV and Garg ML. Zinc as a nutritional approach to bone loss prevention in an ovariectomized rat model. Menopause 2013; 20: 1184-1193.
- [26] Arikan DC, Coskun A, Ozer A, Kilinc M, Atalay F and Arikan T. Plasma selenium, zinc, copper and lipid levels in postmenopausal Turkish men and their relation with osteoporosis. Biol Trace Elem Res 2011; 144: 407-417.
- [27] Arredondo M and Núñez MT. Iron and copper metabolism. Mol Aspects Med 2005; 26: 313-327.
- [28] Rodríguez JP, Ríos S and González M. Modulation of the proliferation and differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells by copper. J Cell Biochem 2002; 85: 92-100.
- [29] Rico H, Roca-Botran C, Hernández ER, Seco C, Paez E, Valencia MJ and Villa LF. The effect of supplemental copper on osteopenia induced by ovariectomy in rats. Menopause 2000; 7: 413-416.
- [30] Allen JR, Humphries IR, Waters DL, Roberts DC, Lipson AH, Howman-Giles RG and Gaskin KJ. Decreased bone mineral density in children with phenylketonuria. Am J Clin Nutr 1994; 59: 419-422.
- [31] Wu J and Xu GL. Plasma selenium content, platelet glutathione peroxidase and superoxide dismutase activity of residents in Kashin-Beck disease affected area in China. J Trace Elem Electrolytes Health Dis 1987; 1: 39-43.
- [32] Zeng H, Cao JJ and Combs GF Jr. Selenium in bone health: roles in antioxidant protection and cell proliferation. Nutrients 2013; 5: 97-110.
- [33] Chen YC, Sosnoski DM, Gandhi UH, Novinger LJ, Prabhu KS and Mastro AM. Selenium modi-

fies the osteoblast inflammatory stress response to bone metastatic breast cancer. Carcinogenesis 2009; 30: 1941-1948.

- [34] Christensen MJ, Nartey ET, Hada AL, Legg RL and Barzee BR. High selenium reduces NFkappaB-regulated gene expression in uninduced human prostate cancer cells. Nutr Cancer 2007; 58: 197-204.
- [35] Åkesson A, Barregard L, Bergdahl IA, Nordberg GF, Nordberg M and Skerfving S. Non-renal effects and the risk assessment of environmental cadmium exposure. Environ Health Perspect 2014; 122: 431-438.
- [36] Wang H, Zhu G, Shi Y, Weng S, Jin T, Kong Q and Nordberg GF. Influence of environmental cadmium exposure on forearm bone density. J Bone Miner 2003; 18: 553-560.
- [37] Dahl C, Søgaard AJ, Tell GS, Flaten TP, Hongve D, Omsland TK, Holvik K, Meyer HE and Aamodt G. Do cadmium, lead, and aluminum in drinking water increase the risk of hip fractures? A NOREPOS study. Biol Trace Elem Res 2014; 157: 14-23.
- [38] Sommar JN, Pettersson-Kymmer U, Lundh T, Svensson O, Hallmans G and Bergdahl IA. Hip fracture risk and cadmium in erythrocytes: a nested case-control study with prospectively collected samples. Calcif Tissue Int 2014; 94: 183-190.
- [39] Kido S. Secondary osteoporosis or secondary contributors to bone loss in fracture. Bone metabolism and heavy metals (cadmium and iron). Clin Calcium 2013; 23: 1299-1306.
- [40] James KA and Meliker JR. Environmental cadmium exposure and osteoporosis: a review. Int J Public Health 2013; 58: 737-745.
- [41] Chakraborty S, Dutta AR, Sural S, Gupta D and Sen S. Ailing bones and failing kidneys: a case of chronic cadmium toxicity. Ann Clin Biochem 2013; 50: 492-495.
- [42] Nawrot T, Geusens P, Nulens TS and Nemery B. Occupational cadmium exposure and calcium excretion, bone density, and osteoporosis in men. J Bone Miner Res 2010; 25: 1441-1445.
- [43] Chen X, Wang K, Wang Z, Gan C, He P, Liang Y, Jin T and Zhu G. Effects of lead and cadmium co-exposure on bone mineral density in a Chinese population. Bone 2014; 63: 76-80.
- [44] Khalil N, Faulkner KA, Greenspan SL and Cauley JA. Associations between bone mineral density, grip strength, and lead body burden in older men. J Am Geriatr Soc 2014; 62: 141-146.
- [45] Escribano A, Revilla M, Hernández ER, Seco C, González-Riola J, Villa LF and Rico H. Effect of lead on bone development and bone mass: a morphometric, densitometric, and histomorphometric study in growing rats. Calcif Tissue Int 1997; 60: 200-203.

- [46] Gruber HE, Gonick HC, Khalil-Manesh F, Sanchez TV, Motsinger S, Meyer M and Sharp CF. Osteopenia induced by long-term, low- and high-level exposure of the adult rat to lead. Miner Electrolyte Metab 1997; 23: 65-73.
- [47] Puzas JE, Cory-Slecta DA, Rosier R, O'Keefe R, Cushing J and Pounds JG. Chronic lead intoxication may contribute to osteoporosis. Toxicologist 1999; 48: 328.
- [48] Ronis MJ, Aronson J, Gao GG, Hogue W, Skinner RA, Badger TM and Lumpkin CK Jr. Skeletal effects of developmental lead exposure in rats. Toxicol Sci 2001; 62: 321-329.
- [49] Hicks DG, O'Keefe RJ, Reynolds KJ, Cory-Slechta DA, Puzas JE, Judkins A and Rosier RN. Effects of lead on growth plate chondrocyte phenotype. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 1996; 140: 164-172.
- [50] Campbell JR and Auinger P. The association between blood lead levels and osteoporosis among adults-results from the third national health and nutrition examination survey (NHANES III). Environ Health Perspect 2007; 115: 1018-1022.