

## 毒性金属; 尿

毒性金属					
	結果 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Creat	基準値	基準値内   高い		
			基準値内	高い	高い
アルミニウム (Al)	16	< 25	■		
アンチモン (Sb)	0.12	< 0.18	■		
ヒ素 (As)	3.5	< 50	■		
バリウム (Ba)	7.3	< 5	■		
ベリリウム (Be)	<dl	< 0.01			
ビスマス (Bi)	<dl	< 1			
カドミウム (Cd)	0.65	< 0.9	■		
セシウム (Cs)	12	< 10	■		
ガドリニウム (Gd)	0.50	< 0.8	■		
鉛 (Pb)	3.9	< 1.2	■		
水銀 (Hg)	0.12	< 1.3	■		
ニッケル (Ni)	4.2	< 5	■		
パラジウム (Pd)	<dl	< 0.3			
プラチナ (Pt)	<dl	< 0.1			
テルル (Te)	<dl	< 0.5			
タリウム (Tl)	0.50	< 0.5	■		
トリウム (Th)	<dl	< 0.02			
錫 (Sn)	1.1	< 5	■		
タングステン (W)	<dl	< 0.4			
ウラン (U)	<dl	< 0.03			

クレアチニン							
	結果 mg/dL	基準値	-2SD   -1SD   MEAN   +1SD   +2SD				
			-2SD	-1SD	MEAN	+1SD	+2SD
クレアチニン	20.8	30 - 225	■	■	■	■	■

標本データ			
コメント:			
採取日: 2024/02/08	誘発因子: CAEDTA 1 GM	受入時pH: Acceptable	
受領日: 2024/02/12	誘発試験: Post Provocative		
報告日: 2024/02/15	採取期間: 6 hours		
方法論: ICP-MS QQQ, ヤッフエ反応によるクレアチニン			

< dl: less than detection limit  
 測定結果は、尿の希釈による変動に対処する為に、クレアチニン濃度で値が修正されています。基準範囲とそれに対応するグラフ、非負荷試験下の健常者の集団の値表しています。キレーション(負荷)物質によって金属元素の尿中排注が増加する事があります。

## Introduction

This analysis of urinary elements was performed by ICP–Mass Spectroscopy following acid digestion of the specimen. Urine element analysis is intended primarily for: diagnostic assessment of toxic element status, monitoring detoxification therapy, and identifying or quantifying renal wasting conditions. It is difficult and problematic to use urinary elements analysis to assess nutritional status or adequacy for essential elements. Blood, cell, and other elemental assimilation and retention parameters are better indicators of nutritional status.

- 24 Hour Collections  
“Essential and other” elements are reported as mg/24 h; mg element/urine volume (L) is equivalent to ppm. “Potentially Toxic Elements” are reported as  $\mu\text{g}/24\text{ h}$ ;  $\mu\text{g}$  element/urine volume (L) is equivalent to ppb.
- Timed Samples (< 24 hour collections)  
All “Potentially Toxic Elements” are reported as  $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$  creatinine; all other elements are reported as  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$  creatinine. Normalization per creatinine reduces the potentially great margin of error which can be introduced by variation in the sample volume. It should be noted, however, that creatinine excretion can vary significantly within an individual over the course of a day.

If one intends to utilize urinary elements analysis to assess nutritional status or renal wasting of essential elements, it is recommended that unprovoked urine samples be collected for a complete 24 hour period. For provocation (challenge) tests for potentially toxic elements, shorter timed collections can be utilized, based upon the pharmacokinetics of the specific chelating agent. When using EDTA, DMPS or DMSA, urine collections up to 12 hours are sufficient to recover greater than 90% of the mobilized metals. Specifically, we recommend collection times of: 9 – 12 hours post intravenous EDTA, 6 hours post intravenous or oral DMPS and, 6 hours post oral bolus administration of DMSA. What ever collection time is selected by the physician, it is important to maintain consistency for subsequent testing for a given patient.

If an essential element is sufficiently abnormal per urine measurement, a descriptive text is included with the report. Because renal excretion is a minor route of excretion for some elements, (Cu, Fe, Mn Zn), urinary excretion may not influence or reflect body stores. Also, renal excretion for many elements reflects homeostasis and the loss of quantities that may be at higher dietary levels than is needed temporarily. For these reasons, descriptive texts are provided for specific elements when deviations are clinically significant. For potentially toxic elements, a descriptive text is provided whenever levels are measured to be higher than expected. If no descriptive texts follow this introduction, then all essential element levels are within acceptable range and all potentially toxic elements are within expected limits.

Reference intervals and corresponding graphs shown in this report are representative of a healthy population under non–provoked conditions. Descriptive texts appear in this report on the basis of measured results and correspond to non–challenge, non–provoked conditions.

Chelation (provocation) agents can increase urinary excretion of metals/elements. Provoked reference intervals have not been established therefore non–provoked reference intervals shown are not recommended for comparison purposes with provoked test results. Provoked results can be compared with non–provoked results (not reference intervals) to assess body burden of metals and to distinguish between transient exposure and net retention of metals. Provoked results can also be compared to previous provoked results to monitor therapies implemented by the treating physician. Additionally, Ca–EDTA provoked results can be used to calculate the EDTA/Lead Excretion Ratio (LER) in patients with elevated blood levels.

**CAUTION:** Even the most sensitive instruments have some detection limit below which a measurement cannot be made reliably. Any value below the method detection limit is simply reported as “< dl.” If an individual excretes an abnormally high volume of urine, urinary components are likely to be extremely dilute. It is possible for an individual to excrete a relatively large amount of an element per day that is so diluted by the large urine volume that the value measured is near the dl. This cannot automatically be assumed to be within the reference range.

This analysis of urinary metals was performed by ICP–Mass Spectroscopy. Urine metal analysis is traditionally used for evaluation of very recent or ongoing exposure to potentially toxic metals. The urinary excretion of certain metals is known to be increased (provoked) to a variable extent after administration of specific chelating agents. Reference values and corresponding graphs are representative of a healthy population under non–provoked conditions; reference values have not been established for provoked urine samples. Reference values are age and sex specific.

For timed, random or first morning urine collections, metals are reported as  $\mu\text{g}/\text{gram}$  creatinine. Normalization per creatinine reduces the potentially great margin of error that can be introduced by variation in the sample volume (concentration). It should be noted that creatinine excretion for an individual may vary to some extent over the course of a day, and from day to day. For 24 hour (h) urine collections elements are reported as  $\mu\text{g}/24\text{ h}$ . Results are also reported as  $\mu\text{g}$  element/gram creatinine to ensure clinically useful information in the event that an inaccurate 24 h urine volume was reported to the laboratory.

Descriptive texts appear in this report if detected levels of specific elements are abnormally high by comparison to the unprovoked reference values. If no descriptive texts follow this introduction, potentially toxic metals are within reference limits.

## Barium High

Barium (Ba) has not been established to be an essential element. Elevated levels of Ba often are observed after exposure to Ba (a contrast agent) during diagnostic medical tests (e.g. “barium swallow”, “upper GI series”, “barium enema”, etc.). Elevated levels of Ba may interfere with calcium metabolism and potassium retention. Acutely high intake of soluble Ba–salts (nitrates, sulfides, chlorides) can be toxic. Chronic exposure to Ba may be manifested by muscular and myocardial stimulation, tingling in the extremities, and loss of tendon reflexes.

Brazil nuts and peanuts/peanut butter are very high in Ba so urine Ba may be elevated shortly after consumption of these foods; toxic effects would not be anticipated under such conditions. Although Ba is poorly absorbed orally (<5%) it can be very high in peanuts and peanut butter (about 3,000 nanograms/gram), frozen and fast foods such as burgers, fries, and hot dogs (400–500 nanograms/gram). It is noteworthy that Ba intake is much higher in children than adults (Health Canada 2005, [www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp24-c6.pdf](http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/toxprofiles/tp24-c6.pdf)).

Ba is surprisingly abundant in the Earth’s crust, being the 14th most abundant element. High amounts of Ba may be found in soils and in food, such as nuts (e.g. brazil nuts), seaweed, fish and certain plants. Because of the extensive use of barium in industry, human activities add greatly to the release of barium in the environment. As a result barium concentrations in air, water and soil may be higher than naturally occurring concentrations in many locations. It can also enter the air during coal and oil combustion. Barium compounds are used by the oil and gas industries to make drilling mud. Drilling mud simplifies drilling through rocks by lubricating the drill. Barium compounds are also used to make paint, bricks, tiles, glass, and rubber. Soluble Ba compounds are highly toxic and may be used as insecticides. Ba–aluminates are utilized for water purification, acceleration of concrete solidification, production of synthetic zeolites, and in the paper and enamel industries.

Ba levels (and the levels of 16 other elements) in water can be assessed with water testing as provided by DDI. A possible confirmatory test for excessive Ba is measurement of blood electrolytes as hypokalemia may be associated with excessive Ba in the body. Hair elements analysis may provide further evidence of exposure to Ba.

#### Cesium High

This individual's urine Cesium (Cs) level is higher than expected, reflecting exposure to Cs but symptoms may not be evident. Very high levels of Cs in urine are often associated with the use of cesium chloride as a questionable anti-cancer treatment. Cesium is a naturally-occurring element found in rocks, soil and dust at low concentrations. It is present in the environment only in the stable form of Cs133; the radioactive isotopes 134Cs and 137Cs are not measured or reported by Doctor's Data. Natural deposits of Cs ores occur in Main, South Dakota and Manitoba (Bernic Lake), Canada. Cesium may bio-accumulate in aquatic food chains; higher levels of cesium have been found in Pacific deep-sea fish and local shellfish since the 2011 Fukushima reactor accident. Cesium may be used in high-density drilling fluids (oil and gas industry) and may contaminate local water and vegetation; Cs has been found in cow's milk. Cesium may occur naturally in mineral waters; one study analyzed the Cs concentration in 163 mineral and thermal waters and found the level ranged from 4.5 to 148 µg per liter.

Cesium can be absorbed after oral ingestion, upon breathing contaminated air and through contact with the skin. Cesium is readily absorbed across the brush border of the intestines in a manner similar to potassium and most is eventually excreted through the urine and feces. The biological half-life of Cs in humans ranges from 15 days in infants to 100-150 days in adults.

The cesium-137 isotope is used in cancer treatments, for ventricular function and pulmonary imaging studies, industrial radiology, and for food and instrument sterilization; Cs137 agents may contain small amounts of Cs133. Non-radioactive cesium chloride may be advertised on the internet as "high pH therapy." Currently there is no support in the scientific literature for that purpose as advertised. Radioactive Cs isotopes may contaminate soil at nuclear waste sites. Cesium may be used in industry for the production of photoelectric cells, vacuum tubes, spectrographic instruments, scintillation counters, DNA biochemistry, in various optical or detecting devices.

Target organs of potential toxic effects of Cs are the liver, intestine, heart, and kidneys. Physiological effects of excessive Cs include ventricular arrhythmias and displacement of potassium from muscle cells and erythrocytes. Cesium can have significant effects on both the central and peripheral nervous systems. Cesium may cause epileptic seizures because it can share the same receptor as the excitatory bioamine glycine. Cesium can interfere with active ion transport by blocking potassium channels and also can interfere with lipid metabolism. Excessive Cs may modify plasma membrane integrity, alter cytoplasmic components and cause cytogenetic damage.

It is unlikely that children or adults would be exposed to enough Cs133 to experience any health effects that could be related to the stable Cs itself. Animals given very large doses of Cs compounds have shown changes in behavior, such as increased activity or decreased activity, but it is unlikely that a human would be exposed to enough stable Cs to cause similar effects.

The isotope Cs137 is used in radiation therapy for certain types of cancer. Other medical uses of Cs are monitoring left ventricular function with Cs137 iodide probes and monitoring pulmonary endothelial permeability with Cs137 iodide crystal mini-detectors. Again, it is emphasized that Cs measured at Doctor's Data is Cs133, not Cs137. Environmental contamination by Cs137 as a result of radioactive fallout could be a concern. Exposure to Cs may be assessed by hair elemental analysis.

Commonly used chelating agents are not effective binders of Cs.

#### Lead High

This individual's urine lead (Pb) is higher than expected which means that Pb exposure is higher than that of the general population. A percentage of assimilated Pb is excreted in urine. Therefore the urine Pb level reflects recent or ongoing exposure to Pb and the degree of excretion or endogenous detoxification processes.

Sources of Pb include: old lead-based paints, batteries, industrial smelting and alloying, some types of solders, Ayurvedic herbs, some toys and products from China and Mexico, glazes on (foreign) ceramics, leaded (anti-knock compound) fuels, bullets and fishing sinkers, artist paints with Pb pigments, and leaded joints in municipal water systems. Most Pb contamination occurs via oral ingestion of contaminated food or water or by children mouthing or eating Pb-containing substances. The degree of absorption of oral Pb depends upon stomach contents (empty stomach increases uptake) and upon the essential element intake and Pb status. Deficiency of zinc, calcium or iron increases Pb uptake. Transdermal exposure is significant for Pb-acetate (hair blackening products). Inhalation has decreased significantly with almost universal use of non-leaded automobile fuel.

Lead accumulates extensively in bone and can inhibit formation of heme and hemoglobin in erythroid precursor cells. Bone Pb is released to soft tissues with bone remodeling that can be accelerated with growth, menopausal hormonal changes, osteoporosis, or skeletal injury. Low levels of Pb may cause impaired vitamin D metabolism, decreased nerve conduction, and developmental problems for children including: decreased IQ, hearing impairment, delayed growth, behavior disorders, and decreased glomerular function. Transplacental transfer of Pb to the fetus can occur at very low Pb concentrations in the body. At relatively low levels, Pb can participate in synergistic toxicity with other toxic elements (e.g. cadmium, mercury).

Excessive Pb exposure can be assessed by comparing urine Pb levels before and after provocation with Ca-EDTA (iv) or oral DMSA. Urine Pb is higher post-provocation to some extent in almost everyone. Whole blood analysis reflects only recent ongoing exposure and does not correlate well with total body retention of Pb. However, elevated blood Pb is the standard of care for diagnosis of Pb poisoning (toxicity).

#### Thallium High

This individual's urine thallium (Tl) is higher than expected, but associated symptoms or toxic effects may or may not be presented. Presentation of symptoms can depend upon several factors including: chemical form of the Tl, mode of assimilation, severity and duration of exposure, and organ levels of metabolites and nutrients that effect the action of Tl in the body.

Thallium can be assimilated transdermally, by inhalation, or by oral ingestion. Both valence states can have harmful effects: Tl+1 may displace potassium from binding sites and influences enzyme activities; Tl+3 affects RNA and protein synthesis. Tl is rapidly cleared from blood and is readily taken up by tissues. It can be deposited in kidneys, pancreas, spleen, liver, lungs, muscles, neurons and the brain. Blood is not a reliable indicator of Tl exposure.

---

Symptoms that may be associated with excessive Tl exposure are often delayed. Early signs of chronic, low-level Tl exposure and retention may include: mental confusion, fatigue, and peripheral neurological signs: paresthesias, myalgias, tremor and ataxia. After 3 to 4 weeks, diffuse hair loss with sparing of pubic and body hair and a lateral fraction of eye-brows usually occurs. Increased salivation occurs less commonly. Longer term or residual symptoms may include: alopecia, ataxia, tremor, memory loss, weight loss, proteinuria (albuminuria), and possibly psychoses. Ophthalmologic neuritis and strabismus may be presented.

Environmental and occupational sources of Tl include: contaminated drinking water, airborne plumes or waste streams from lead and zinc smelting, photoelectric, electrochemical and electronic components (photoelectric cells, semiconductors, infrared detectors, switches), pigments and paints, colored glass and synthetic gem manufacture, and industrial catalysts used in some polymer chemistry processes. Thallium is present in some "weight loss" supplements (e.g. Active 8) at undisclosed levels ("trade secret").

Hair (pubic or scalp) element analysis may be used to test for suspected Tl exposure. Although urine is the primary natural route for excretion of thallium, the biliary/fecal route also contributes. Therefore, fecal metals analysis provides a confirmatory test for chronic ongoing exposure to Tl. Clinical findings that might be associated with excessive Tl are: albuminuria, EEG with diffuse abnormalities, hypertension, and elevated urine creatinine phosphokinase (CPK). No provocation agents are currently available to estimate Tl retention by means of urinalysis.