

Review article

Selenium in global food systems

Gerald F. Combs Jr*

Division of Nutritional Sciences, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853, USA

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Food systems need to produce enough of the essential trace element Se to provide regular adult intakes of at least 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ to support the maximal expression of the Se enzymes, and perhaps as much as 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ to reduce risks of cancer. Deprivation of Se is associated with impairments in antioxidant protection, redox regulation and energy production as consequences of suboptimal expression of one or more of the Se-containing enzymes. These impairments may not cause deficiency signs in the classical sense, but instead contribute to health problems caused by physiological and environmental oxidative stresses and infections. At the same time, supranutritional intakes of Se, i.e. intakes greater than those required for selenocysteine enzyme expression, appear to reduce cancer risk. The lower, nutritional, level is greater than the typical intakes of many people in several parts of the world, and few populations have intakes approaching the latter, supranutritional, level. Accordingly, low Se status is likely to contribute to morbidity and mortality due to infectious as well as chronic diseases, and increasing Se intakes in all parts of the world can be expected to reduce cancer rates.

Selenium: Cardiomyopathy: Cancer: Food systems: Chemoprevention

Introduction

Se was recognized as an essential nutrient in the late 1950s when it was found to be the active principle in liver that could replace vitamin E in the diets of rats and chicks for the prevention of vascular, muscular and/or hepatic lesions (Schwarz & Foltz, 1957; Schwarz *et al.* 1957). Since that time, Se has emerged as an essential trace element important in human health, both for averting morbidity associated with deficiency as well as for reducing cancer risks at supranutritional intakes. The immediate health significance of Se may vary among countries, as the regular intakes of the element appear to vary considerably between various populations. With that in mind, this present review undertakes to summarize present knowledge of human Se status in the context of that global variation.

Metabolic roles of selenium

In the early 1970s, Se was found to be an essential

component of the enzyme glutathione peroxidase (GPX) (Rotruck *et al.* 1972). Since that enzyme was known to participate in the antioxidant protection of cells by reducing hydroperoxides, this finding was taken to explain the nutritional 'sparing' by Se of vitamin E, a known lipid-soluble antioxidant. At present, several Se-containing enzymes are recognized: at least five GPX isoforms, three iodothyronine 5'-deiodinases, three thioredoxin reductases, selenophosphate synthetase (Allan *et al.* 1999). In addition, at least four other proteins are recognized as specifically incorporating Se, although their metabolic functions remain unclear: plasma selenoprotein P (Hill *et al.* 1991), muscle selenoprotein W (Vendeland *et al.* 1995) and selenoproteins in prostate and placenta (Behne *et al.* 1996; Gladyshev *et al.* 1998; Allan *et al.* 1999). In each of these proteins, Se is incorporated into the amino acid selenocysteine (SeCys) by the co-translational modification of tRNA-bound serinyl residues (Fig. 1) at certain loci encoded by UGA codons containing SeCys-insertion sequences in their 3'-untranslated regions (Berry *et al.*

Abbreviations: GPX, glutathione peroxidase; SeCys, selenocysteine; SeMet, selenomethionine.

* **Corresponding author:** Dr Gerald F. Combs Jr, fax +1 607 255 1033, email gfc2@cornell.edu

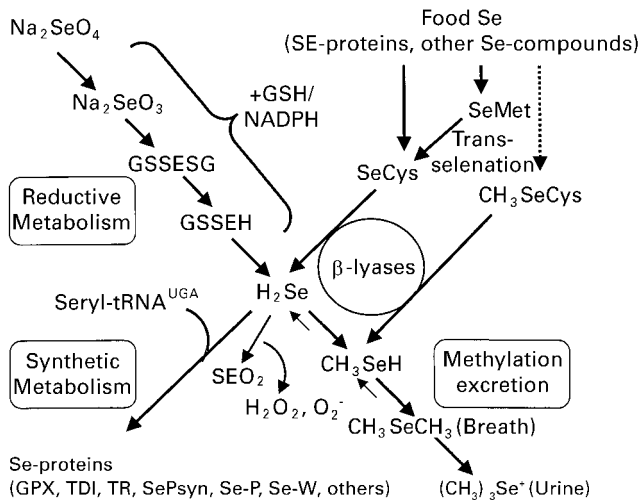


Fig. 1. Pathways of Se metabolism. Oxidized inorganic Se forms (selenate, selenite) undergo reductive metabolism yielding hydrogen selenide (H_2Se), which is incorporated into selenoproteins (the glutathione peroxidases (GPX), iodothyronine 5'-deiodinases (TDI), thioredoxin reductases (TR), selenophosphate synthetase (SePsyn), selenoprotein P (Se-P) and W (Se-W) and others) co-translationally through modification of tRNA-bound serinyl residues at certain loci encoded by specific UGA codons. Successive methylation of H_2Se detoxifies excess Se, yielding methylselenol (CH_3SeH), dimethylselenide ($[\text{CH}_3]_2\text{Se}$) and trimethylselenonium ($(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{Se}^+$); the latter two metabolites are excreted in breath and urine respectively. Food proteins can contain selenomethionine (SeMet) which can be incorporated non-specifically into proteins in place of methionine, and selenocysteine (SeCys) which is a product of SeMet catabolism and is itself catabolized to H_2Se pool by a β -lyase. Another lyase releases CH_3SeH from Se-methylselenocysteine (CH_3SeCys) present in some foods (e.g. *Allium* vegetables). Oxidation of excess H_2Se leads to production of superoxide and other reactive oxygen species. SeCys, selenocysteine; SeMet, Selenomethionine.

1993; Stadtman, 1996). This enables the decoding of UGA as SeCys rather than as a stop signal, which is its usual function. The nutritional essentiality of Se, therefore, appears to be due to the functions of SeCys proteins: antioxidant protection by the GPX, energy metabolism affected by the iodothyronine 5'-deiodinases, and redox regulation of transcriptional factors and gene expression by the thioredoxin reductases.

Nève (1995) reviewed several studies of human subjects and concluded that the minimum concentration of Se that might be expected in plasma under conditions of maximal expression of plasma GPX is at least 70 ng Se/ml. This level may be taken as a criterion of nutritional adequacy as it corresponds to the amount of Se contained in maximally expressed plasma selenoproteins (Hill *et al.* 1996). Plasma Se concentrations at this level appear to be supported by dietary Se intakes as little as 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ (Yang *et al.* 1989b). Current dietary recommendations meet or exceed this level. For example, the recently revised US Recommended Dietary Allowance for Se is 55 μg for both women and men (Panel on Dietary Antioxidants and Related Compounds, 2000), and the World Health Organization (1996) identified 40 μg Se/d as the average intake level indicated as needed to ensure meeting that normative requirements of most healthy adults.

Selenium in food systems

Fundamental importance of soil selenium

Most of the Se in any food system resides in the soil at any particular time, primarily as a result of the weathering of Se-containing rocks, although volcanic activity, dusts (e.g. in the vicinity of coal burning), Se-containing fertilizers, and some waters can also be sources of Se for soils. Most soils contain 0.1–2 μg Se/kg (Swaine, 1955; Rosenfeld & Beath, 1964). Some parts of the world (e.g. Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, eastern and central Siberia (Russia) and a long belt extending from north-east to south-central China including parts of Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning, Hebei, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Sichuan and Zhejiang Provinces and Inner Mongolia) are notable for having very low amounts of Se in their soils and, therefore, their food systems. In contrast, other areas (e.g. the Great Plains of the USA and Canada; Enshi County, Hubei Province, China; and parts of Ireland, Colombia and Venezuela) are seleniferous. For example, soils derived from the Se-rich Niobara and Pierre shales of ND, USA, contain as much as 90 mg Se/kg, while most non-seleniferous soils based on low-Se granites and metamorphic sandstone contain appreciably less than 2 mg Se/kg (Trelease, 1945; Ermakov, 1992). The biogeochemical mapping of Se has been accomplished for the USA and parts of Canada (National Research Council, 1983), China (Liu *et al.* 1987), Europe (Gissel-Nielsen, 1998), Denmark (Gissel-Nielsen, 1975), Norway (Lag, 1998), Finland (Sippola, 1979; Lahermo *et al.* 1998), New Zealand (Wells, 1967), parts of Australia (McCray & Hurwood, 1963; Noble & Berry, 1982; Judson & Reuter, 1998), the countries of the former Soviet Union (Ermakov, 1992; Golubkina & Alfthan, 1999), Greece (Bratakos & Ioannou, 1989), the former Yugoslavia (Maksimovic *et al.* 1992), and a few countries in Africa (Waiyaki, 2000). Soil Se has also been studied in the UK (Fleming & Walsh, 1957; Fleming, 1962), Spain (Torra *et al.* 1996) and Turkey (Orack & Yanardag, 1996); but very little is known about the Se status of soils in most of the rest of the world. A brief compilation of this work has been presented recently by Oldfield (1999).

Se cycles through food systems, being removed from soils by plants and micro-organisms which can take up the element into their tissue proteins and convert some of it to volatile metabolites (e.g. dimethylselenide) that enter the atmosphere ultimately to be brought down with precipitation and airborne particulates (Shrift, 1964; Allaway *et al.* 1967; Stork *et al.* 1999). Mobilization of Se from soils is influenced by soil pH: alkaline conditions favour the conversion of inorganic Se to selenate (Se^{+6}) which is not fixed in the soils, whereas acidic conditions favour selenite (Se^{+4}) which adsorbs to clays and is strongly fixed by iron hydroxides. The availability of Se to plants is also affected by soil moisture: the element is most available to plants under conditions of low precipitation and low soil leaching. This means that the availability of soil Se to crops can be affected by such soil management procedures as irrigation, aeration, liming and Se fertilization (Gissel-Nielsen, 1998).

Selenium in plant materials

The Se contents of plants vary according to the amounts of the element available in soils. For example, wholewheat grain may contain more than 2 mg Se/kg (air-dry basis) if produced in the ND and SD, USA, but as little as 0.11 mg Se/kg if produced in New Zealand, and only 0.005 mg Se/kg if produced in Shaanxi Province, China (Combs & Combs, 1986a). On a global basis, foods with the lowest Se contents are found in the low-Se regions of China: Heilongjiang, northern Shaanxi and Sichuan Provinces. Ironically, foods containing the greatest concentrations of Se have also been found in the same country, although only in a few discrete locales (e.g. Enshi County, Hubei Province) with extraordinarily high soil Se levels. Se is not considered an essential nutrient for higher plants (Terry *et al.* 2000), although Se deprivation has been reported to reduce the growth of rice (Zhou, 1990) and wheat (Peng *et al.* 2000), and increase sensitivities of ryegrass and lettuce to u.v. light (Xue & Hartikainen, 2000).

Selenium in animal products

Food animals raised using low-Se feedstuffs deposit relatively low concentrations of the mineral in their tissues and edible products (e.g. milk, eggs), while animals raised with relatively high Se nutriture yield food products with much greater Se concentrations. Due to the needs of livestock for Se to prevent debilitating deficiency syndromes, Se (usually in the form of Na_2SeO_3) is commonly used as a feed supplement in commercial animal agriculture in many parts of the world. This practice became widespread in North America and Europe within the last 25 years and has reduced what would otherwise be a stronger geographic variation in the Se contents of animal food products. Within the normal ranges of Se-supplementation of livestock diets (0.1–0.3 mg/kg, air-dry basis), muscle meats from most species tend to contain 0.3–0.4 mg Se/kg (fresh weight basis) (Combs & Combs, 1986b). Organ meats usually accumulate greater concentrations of Se; the livers of most species generally contain about four times as much Se as skeletal muscle, and the kidneys of steers, lambs and swine have been found to accumulate 10–16-fold the amounts in muscle (Combs & Combs, 1986b).

Selenium in human diets

In most diets, the dominant food sources of Se are cereals, meats and fish. Dairy products and eggs contribute small amounts of Se to the total intakes in most countries, although these can represent large percentages of the total Se intakes in countries where their consumption is relatively great and/or where the rest of the diet provides little Se (e.g. New Zealand). Vegetables and fruits are uniformly low in Se (when expressed on a fresh weight basis), and provide only small amounts (<8 % total intake) of the mineral in most human diets. An analysis of US diets (Schubert *et al.* 1987) revealed that five foods (beef, white bread, pork, chicken and eggs) contributed about 50 % total Se in the 'typical' diet, and that 80 % total dietary Se was provided by only twenty-two core foods.

The dominance of cereal-based foods as core sources of Se means that, in many countries, Se intakes can be affected by factors (e.g. domestic harvests, international grain prices, national agricultural and trade policies) that affect the importation of grain from the world market, most of which comes from the relatively Se-rich areas of the USA, Canada and Australia. Indeed, changes in wheat importation have been linked to corresponding changes in Se intakes in Finland (Mutanen, 1984; Mäkelä *et al.* 1993), New Zealand (Thomson & Robinson, 1996) Scotland, UK (MacPherson *et al.* 1997) and Russia (Golubkina, 1997), and several investigators (MacPherson *et al.* 1997; Rayman, 1997; Zimmerli *et al.* 1998; Golubkina & Alfthan, 1999) have cited reductions of North American wheat imports as having caused general reductions in Se intakes in Europe in recent years.

Inter-individual differences in patterns of food consumption can significantly affect both the amount and quality of Se intake. In a study of free-living adults in MD, USA, the mean daily Se intake was 81 μg /person; however, 17 % of diets provided <50 μg Se/person per d, while 5 % of diets provided >150 μg Se/person per d (Levander & Morris, 1984). Marine coastal populations (e.g. Japan, Norway) tend to have greater Se intakes than inland ones due to their higher intakes of fish, which tend to be good sources of the element (Table 1). Individuals with the low intakes of animal products can be expected, in general, to consume relatively low amounts of Se. However, as Burk (1986) pointed out, because plant-based diets tend to provide mostly selenomethionine (SeMet) (which is incorporated non-specifically into plasma and erythrocyte proteins), the blood Se levels of such individuals can still be relatively high. Accordingly, several studies (Srikumar *et al.* 1992; Kračovičová-Kudláčková *et al.* 1995; Drobner *et al.* 1997) have shown that vegetarians can have greater blood Se levels than non-vegetarians within the same food system.

Selenium bioavailability

In general, the apparent absorption of the organic Se compounds in foods appears to be good (about 70–95 %) (Combs & Combs, 1986b). However, it can vary according to the digestibilities of the various Se-containing food proteins and to the pattern of Se compounds present in a particular food. For example, SeMet enters the general protein metabolic pool as a mimic for methionine and is, thus, well retained; however, it cannot support SeCys-enzyme expression without first being released from the protein pool and then being catabolised through SeCys, ultimately to hydrogen selenide (H_2Se) (Fig. 1). In contrast, SeCys cannot be incorporated directly into proteins. Instead, it is catabolized to H_2Se and is, therefore, better utilized for the SeCys-enzymes but less well retained in tissues. The intermediate, H_2Se , necessary for SeCys-enzyme expression and, therefore, nutritional action, can also be methylated to forms that are readily excreted across the lung (dimethyl selenide, $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{Se}$) or kidney (trimethyl selenonium ion, $(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{Se}^+$). This pattern of metabolism produces differences in the bioavailabilities of Se in foods. In general, the bioavailability of the Se in SeMet, SeCys and most plant materials appears to be reasonably good,

Table 1. Estimated selenium intakes of adults in several countries

Country	Se intake ($\mu\text{g}/\text{person per d}$)	Reference
Austria	48†	Sima & Pfannhauser, 1998
Belgium	45†	Robberecht <i>et al.</i> 1994
Canada	98–224	Gissel-Nielsen, 1998
China		
Keshan disease area	7–11*†	Combs & Combs, 1986c
Moderate Se area	40*†–120	Combs & Combs, 1986c; Xian <i>et al.</i> 1997
Selenosis area	750–4990	Yang <i>et al.</i> 1989b
Croatia	27*†	Klapec <i>et al.</i> 1998
Denmark	40†	Gissel-Nielsen, 1998
Egypt	49†	Hussein & Bruggeman, 1999
England	12*†–43†	Barclay <i>et al.</i> 1995; Drobner <i>et al.</i> 1997 Joint Food Safety and Standards Group (1997)
Finland		
Before 1984	25*†	Aro <i>et al.</i> 1995
After 1984	67–110	Aro <i>et al.</i> 1995; Anttolainen <i>et al.</i> 1996
France	29–43*†	Lamand <i>et al.</i> 1994; Ducros <i>et al.</i> 1997
Germany	35*†	Kumpulainen & Salonen (cited by Rayman, 2000)
Greece	110	Bratakos <i>et al.</i> 1990a
Hungary	41†–92	Alfthan <i>et al.</i> 1992
Japan	104–127	Suzuki <i>et al.</i> 1988; Yoshita <i>et al.</i> 1998
Netherlands	67	Kumpulainen (cited by Rayman, 2000)
New Zealand	19*†–80	Robinson & Thomson, 1987; Duffield & Thomson, 1999
Poland	11*†–94	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1995; Marzec, 1999
Russia	54†–80	Golubkina, 1994; Aro & Alfthan, 1998
Scotland	30*†–60	MacPherson <i>et al.</i> 1997; Shortt <i>et al.</i> 1997
Serbia	30*†	Djujic <i>et al.</i> 1995
Slovakia	27*†–43†	Kadrabová <i>et al.</i> 1998
Sweden	38*†	Kumpulainen (cited by Rayman, 2000)
Switzerland	70	Kumpulainen (cited by Rayman, 2000)
USA	60–220	Combs & Combs, 1986c
Uzbekistan	60–93	Kavas-Ogly <i>et al.</i> 1995
Venezuela	200–350	Combs & Combs, 1986c

* This level does not meet the WHO normative requirement (World Health Organization, 1996).

† This level does not meet the recommended dietary allowance (Panel on Dietary Antioxidants and Related Compounds, 2000).

while that of the Se in many animal products appears to be moderate and, in some cases (e.g. some fish) low.

Global variation in selenium status

Due to differences in geography, agronomic practices, food availability and preferences, most of which are difficult to quantify, evaluations of Se intakes of specific human population groups are seldom precise. General comparisons can be made, however, of the Se contents of different food supplies by using the average Se concentrations determined within specific major classes of foods in different locales. Table 2 presents the typical Se contents of the major classes of foods from several countries. Estimates of per capita dietary Se intakes vary widely among different countries (Table 1), the lowest being only 7–11 $\mu\text{g Se}/\text{person per d}$ in parts of China where human diseases have been associated with severe endemic Se deficiency. In other countries with histories of Se-deficiency disorders in livestock (i.e. Finland and New Zealand) the Se intakes of people are estimated to be at least 3-fold those of the Se-deficient regions of China. Residents of the USA (e.g. OH, Pacific north-west, south-eastern seaboard) have estimated Se intakes two to five-fold those of Finns or New Zealanders.

These estimates suggest that millions of people may be unable to consume enough of the element to support their

maximal expressions of the SeCys-enzymes, i.e. at least 40 $\mu\text{g Se}/\text{d}$ (Yang *et al.* 1987). The best described Se-deficient areas are New Zealand, Finland (prior to 1984), and a long belt of mountainous terrain extending from the north-east to south-central portions of mainland China (Combs & Combs, 1986c). In each case, low amounts of Se in soils results in a generalized deficiency of the element throughout the food system, being low in the plants grown on those soils as well as the livestock and people fed those plant foods. Low Se intakes have also been reported in parts of eastern Europe (Kasperak *et al.* 1982; Gondi *et al.* 1992; Djujic *et al.* 1995; Dastych *et al.* 1997; Drobner *et al.* 1997; Bergmann *et al.* 1998; Klapec *et al.* 1998), Russia (Aro *et al.* 1994; Golubkina, 1994; Golubkina & Sokolov, 1997), and Africa (Benemariya *et al.* 1993).

The inter-regional differences in food system Se contents suggested above appear to be manifest as differences in nutritional Se status. Table 3 is a compilation of reported concentrations of Se in whole blood, or serum or plasma, from some sixty-nine countries. While this table is a more comprehensive collation of such data than has heretofore been presented, it is by no means an exhaustive summary of reported variables of Se status. For the most part, it cites studies that have reported plasma or serum Se levels for healthy adults, giving means and estimates of variance or sufficient data to allow the calculation of those statistics. Some exceptions were made for countries for which few

Table 2. Typical selenium contents ($\mu\text{g/g}$ as consumed) reported for major classes of foods from several countries

Food Class	China, by Se-area									
	USA [†]	England [‡]	Germany*	Finland	Post-1984 [§]	New Zealand*	Low	Moderate*	High [¶]	Venezuela*
Cereal products	0.06-0.66	0.02-0.53	0.03-0.88	0.005-0.12	0.01-0.27	0.004-0.09	0.005-0.02	0.017-0.11	1.06-6.9	0.123-0.51
Vegetables	0.001-0.14	0.01-0.09	0.04-0.10	0.001-0.02	0.01-0.02	0.001-0.02	0.002-0.02	0.002-0.09	0.34-45.7	0.002-2.98
Fruits	0.005-0.06	0.005-0.01	0.002-0.04	0.002-0.03	-	0.001-0.004	0.001-0.003	0.005-0.04	-	0.005-0.06
Red meats	0.08-0.50	0.05-0.14	0.13-0.28	0.05-0.10	0.27-0.91	0.01-0.04	0.01-0.03	0.05-0.25	-	0.17-0.83
Poultry	0.01-0.26	0.05-0.15	0.05-0.15	0.05-0.10	-	0.05-0.10	0.02-0.06	0.05-0.10	-	0.10-0.70
Fish	0.13-1.48	0.10-0.61	0.24-0.53	0.18-0.98	-	0.03-0.31	0.03-0.20	0.10-0.60	-	0.32-0.93
Milk products	0.01-0.26	0.01-0.08	0.01-0.10	0.01-0.09	0.01-0.25	0.003-0.025	0.002-0.01	0.01-0.03	-	0.11-0.43
Eggs	0.06-0.20	0.05-0.2	0.05-0.20	0.05-0.20	0.02-0.15	0.24-0.98	0.02-0.06	0.05-0.15	-	0.50-1.5

* Combs & Combs, 1986c.

† United States Department of Agriculture, 1999.

‡ Barclay *et al.* (1995).

§ Aro & Alfthan, 1998.

|| Keshan disease-endemic areas.

¶ Endemic selenosis areas.

data were available, and some reports of whole blood Se concentrations were included to facilitate the interpretation of cases (e.g. Georgia, Greenland, Guatemala, Libya, Vietnam) for which only that variable is available. (Direct comparisons of the Se contents of plasma and whole blood drawn from the same subjects has revealed that the Se concentrations (ng/ml) of plasma are about 81 % those of whole blood (Burk *et al.* 1967; Robinson *et al.* 1979, 1983b; Thomson *et al.* 1982; Verlinden *et al.* 1983; Vernie *et al.* 1983; Zachara *et al.* 1988) and about 94 % those of serum (Harrison *et al.* 1996).) While blood Se levels can be affected by such factors as sex, age, smoking status and environmental exposures, these effects tend to be small and the effect of dietary Se intake being the major determinant of the level plasma or serum level of the element (Robberecht & Deelstra, 1994).

These country-level data can be evaluated using as a criterion of nutritional Se adequacy the serum or plasma Se concentration of 70 ng/ml, which is the minimum reported level for which further Se supplementation has been found to produce no detectable increases in plasma or serum GPX activities (Nève, 1995). (This criterion may be a bit conservative; Rayman (1997) has suggested using the value of 100 ng Se/ml serum as a criterion of nutritional adequacy, based on the studies of Thomson *et al.* (1993).) Using that criterion and assuming normal distributions of plasma or serum Se values (In Americans, whose Se intakes are typically above recommended dietary allowance levels including some degree of Se supplement use (Clark *et al.* 1996; A Nafsiger and GF Combs Jr, unpublished results; Nomura *et al.* 2000), the distribution of plasma or serum Se values tends to be slightly skewed; one might expect more normal distributions for populations with lower intakes of the element.), such an analysis indicates that nutritional Se deficiency would appear to affect substantial numbers of people (>10 %) in most countries for which data are available, and to be highly prevalent (affecting >50 % of the population) in almost half of those countries (Table 4). This does not imply that any disease in those populations may necessarily be related to such low plasma or serum Se concentrations; indeed, the only direct evidence of such causal relationships to date are those involving Keshan Disease in China (Keshan Disease Research Group, 1979; Xu *et al.* 1997a,b) and I-deficiency disorders in Zaire (Vanderpas *et al.* 1990, 1993; Thilly *et al.* 1992, 1993). Instead, this implies the limited expression of one or more selenoenzymes, which would constitute at least a sub-clinical deficiency of the element. Only in Canada, Japan, Norway and the USA does low Se status not appear to affect many people. This classification must be considered provisional, as the database is of varying quality, is sparse for most of the countries listed, and includes little or no information for several large and populous areas of the world (e.g. most of Africa, South America, central and south Asia). Even with those caveats, available data suggest that hundreds of millions of people may be Se deficient.

Selenium and human disease

The wide apparent variation in global Se status raises

Table 3. Selected reports of blood selenium concentrations ($\mu\text{g/l}$) of healthy adults worldwide*

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Austria			67	24	Tiran <i>et al.</i> 1992
Australia	110				Pearn & McCay, 1979
	101	19			Cumming <i>et al.</i> 1992
			91	12	McOrist & Fardy, 1989
			101	10	Lux & Naidoo, 1995
			92	15	Dhindsa <i>et al.</i> 1998
Azerbaijan	110				Abdullev, 1976
Belgium			97	12	Verlinden <i>et al.</i> 1983
			96	21	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1983a
			99	18	Vertongen <i>et al.</i> 1984
			79	44	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1984
			130	21	Wallaeys <i>et al.</i> 1986
			100	9	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			84	15	Peretz <i>et al.</i> 1988
			100	20	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1988b
			97	35	Beguín <i>et al.</i> 1989
			88	25	Peretz <i>et al.</i> 1991
			83	11	Van Gossum & Nève, 1995
			87	11	Van Gossum <i>et al.</i> 1996
Bolivia	132	20	87	13	Imai <i>et al.</i> 1995
Bulgaria			45	6	Marinov <i>et al.</i> 1998
Burundi			15	2	Benemariya <i>et al.</i> 1993
Canada	180				Iyengar, 1984
			144	29	Dickson & Tomlinson, 1967
			115	3	Gibson <i>et al.</i> 1985
			132	8	Lemoyne <i>et al.</i> 1988
			135	13	Burk <i>et al.</i> 1992
			146	27	Vézina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			67	7	Allard <i>et al.</i> 1998
Chile			66	2	Ribalta <i>et al.</i> 1995
China					
Eastern urban areas	136	48			Wang <i>et al.</i> 1979
	93	8			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1982
	123	20	88	10	Chu <i>et al.</i> 1984
			94	6	Luo <i>et al.</i> 1985
			102	25	Yang <i>et al.</i> 1989a
			111	11	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1989
			96	11	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1992
			80	10	Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1994
Rural non-Keshan disease areas					
	76	24			Yu <i>et al.</i> 1999
	110	14	98	30	Chu <i>et al.</i> 1984
			39	7	Yang <i>et al.</i> 1987
			96	29	Huang <i>et al.</i> 1997
			52	9	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1992
			42	11	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1992
Keshan disease areas	17	2			Wang <i>et al.</i> 1979
	18	1			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1982
	9	23			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1983
	29	1			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1987
	19	1			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1987
	22	7			Xia <i>et al.</i> 1992a
			24	1	Luo <i>et al.</i> 1985
			16	4	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1989
			17	6	Xia <i>et al.</i> 1992b
			21	6	Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1994
Kaschin-Beck disease area	23	2			Jiang & Xu, 1989
Selenosis area	3480	1320			Liu & Li, 1987
	1510	50			Yang <i>et al.</i> 1989a,b
	896	86			Yang & Zhou, 1994
			494	140	Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1994
Other areas			357	36	Janghorbani <i>et al.</i> 1999
			94	30	Chu <i>et al.</i> 1984
			39	7	Yang <i>et al.</i> 1987
			51	8	Yu <i>et al.</i> 1990
Colombia			112	29	P Correa and GF Combs Jr, unpublished results
Cuba	90		69		Prieto <i>et al.</i> 1994
Czech Republic			72		Koranová <i>et al.</i> 1993

Table 3. continued

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Denmark	111	24	76		Koranová <i>et al.</i> 1993			
			56	9	Madaric <i>et al.</i> 1994			
			65	17	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1994			
			61	12	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1994			
			63	16	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1995			
			51	16	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1995			
			46	14	Kvičala <i>et al.</i> 1995			
			64	19	Dastyč <i>et al.</i> 1997			
			78	3	Zima <i>et al.</i> 1998			
					Tarp <i>et al.</i> 1990			
					Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1985			
					Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986			
					Tarp <i>et al.</i> 1986			
					Bro <i>et al.</i> 1988			
			Egypt	68		108	31	Clausen <i>et al.</i> 1989
88	13	Clausen <i>et al.</i> 1989						
97	28	Clausen <i>et al.</i> 1989						
94	19	Suadican <i>et al.</i> 1992						
84	20	Grandjean <i>et al.</i> 1992						
England	134 138	20 23	52		Maxia <i>et al.</i> 1972			
			117	16	Samir & el-Awady, 1998			
Finland					Ellis <i>et al.</i> 1984			
					Ellis <i>et al.</i> 1984			
				5	Lloyd <i>et al.</i> 1983a			
				15	Lloyd <i>et al.</i> 1983b			
				13	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986			
				13	Tanner <i>et al.</i> 1986			
				23	Damyanova <i>et al.</i> 1987			
				17	Foot <i>et al.</i> 1987			
				15	Hinks <i>et al.</i> 1988			
				17	Yadav <i>et al.</i> 1991			
				21	Overvad <i>et al.</i> 1991			
				21	Thuluvath & Triger, 1992			
					Kantola <i>et al.</i> 1997			
					Kantola <i>et al.</i> 1997			
			Finland Before 1984†	62 67 73 85	14 16 13 17			Wikström <i>et al.</i> 1976
		Westermarck, 1977						
		Korpela <i>et al.</i> 1984						
		Tolonen <i>et al.</i> 1988						
		Westermarck, 1977						
	11	T Westermarck, T Rahola, M Suomela and A Salmi, unpublished results						
	15	Salonen <i>et al.</i> 1982						
	16	Välimäki <i>et al.</i> 1983						
	10	Levander <i>et al.</i> 1983						
	9	Arvilommi <i>et al.</i> 1983						
	6	Kaupilla <i>et al.</i> 1984						
	14	Luoma <i>et al.</i> 1985						
	10	Kaupilla <i>et al.</i> 1987						
	18	Virtamo <i>et al.</i> 1987						
Finland After 1984†	162	20				66	6	Marklund <i>et al.</i> 1987
			70	12	Alfthan, 1988			
			70	3	Aro <i>et al.</i> 1989			
			63	15	Knekt <i>et al.</i> 1990			
					Tolonen <i>et al.</i> 1988			
				3	Sundström <i>et al.</i> 1986			
				12	Välimäki <i>et al.</i> 1987			
				17	Korpela <i>et al.</i> 1989			
				18	Kivelä <i>et al.</i> 1989			
				20	Salonen <i>et al.</i> 1988			
				5	Mutanen <i>et al.</i> 1989			
				8	Alfthan <i>et al.</i> 1991			
			France			96	21	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1983a
						122	27	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1983b
						92	21	Sinet <i>et al.</i> 1984
82	11	Thuong <i>et al.</i> 1986						
80	14	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986						

Table 3. continued

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
			85	13	Wilke <i>et al.</i> 1988
			123	4	Thérond <i>et al.</i> 1988a
			136	40	Thérond <i>et al.</i> 1988b
			77	9	Nève <i>et al.</i> 1988a
			88	17	Saint-Georges <i>et al.</i> 1988
			76	13	Arnaud <i>et al.</i> 1988
			69	12	Dubois <i>et al.</i> 1988
			105	13	Richard <i>et al.</i> 1988
			88	21	Gerber <i>et al.</i> 1998
			81	9	Pucheu <i>et al.</i> 1995
			76	8	Terrier <i>et al.</i> 1995
			69	11	Lee <i>et al.</i> 1995
			87	16	Coudry <i>et al.</i> 1997
			57	16	Monget <i>et al.</i> 1996
			50	10	Ceballos-Picot <i>et al.</i> 1996
			83	4	Ducros <i>et al.</i> 1997
Georgia	123	45			Mosulishvili <i>et al.</i> 1985
Germany	87	25			Lombeck <i>et al.</i> 1987a
	92	18			Oster <i>et al.</i> 1988b
	80	24			Schramel <i>et al.</i> 1988
	93	18			Oster & Prellwitz, 1990a
	107	20	63	28	Rukgauer <i>et al.</i> 1997
			88	11	Behne & Wolters, 1979
			81	14	Oster & Prellwitz, 1982
			48	30	Kasperek <i>et al.</i> 1982
			80	11	Oster <i>et al.</i> 1983
			71	10	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			78	11	Oster <i>et al.</i> 1986
			72	13	Oster <i>et al.</i> 1988a
			77	16	Koehler <i>et al.</i> 1988
			81	2	Reinhold <i>et al.</i> 1989
			66	11	Oster & Prellwitz, 1990b
			79	13	Theile <i>et al.</i> 1995
			65	13	Bononmini <i>et al.</i> 1995
			86	13	Meissner, 1997
			94	27	Bergmann <i>et al.</i> 1998
Greece	151	33			Bratakos <i>et al.</i> 1990a
	174	26			Bratakos <i>et al.</i> 1990b
			63	14	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			68	16	Van Cauwenbergh <i>et al.</i> 1994
Greenland	151				Hansen <i>et al.</i> 1984
Guatemala	240				Burk <i>et al.</i> 1967
Hungary	64	11	50	11	Cser <i>et al.</i> 1996
			69	10	Gondi <i>et al.</i> 1992
			54	7	Cser <i>et al.</i> 1992
India	150	10			Lal <i>et al.</i> 1991
	165	43	133	39	Gambhir & Lali, 1996
			117	16	Yadav <i>et al.</i> 1991
			125	19	Srikumar <i>et al.</i> 1992
			74	12	Srikumar <i>et al.</i> 1992
			72	4	Mahalingam <i>et al.</i> 1997
Republic of Ireland			94		Darling <i>et al.</i> 1992
			112		Darling <i>et al.</i> 1992
Israel			119	23	Chaitchik <i>et al.</i> 1988
Italy			75	20	Perona <i>et al.</i> 1979
			79	10	Calautti <i>et al.</i> 1980
			61	18	Mazzella <i>et al.</i> 1983
			90	15	Morisi <i>et al.</i> 1988
			86	19	Bortoli <i>et al.</i> 1990
			119	2	Sesama <i>et al.</i> 1992
			65	13	Bellisola <i>et al.</i> 1993
			79	17	Burrini <i>et al.</i> 1993
			93	15	Olivieri <i>et al.</i> 1994
			88	15	Olivieri <i>et al.</i> 1995
			92	13	Menditto <i>et al.</i> 1995
			94	19	Azzini <i>et al.</i> 1995
			78	10	Bonomini <i>et al.</i> 1995
			87	17	Casari <i>et al.</i> 1995

Table 3. continued

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
			82	23	Piccinni <i>et al.</i> 1996
			58		Ravaglia <i>et al.</i> 2000
			64		Ravaglia <i>et al.</i> 2000
Jamaica			86		Murphy <i>et al.</i> 1988
Japan	206	21			Kurashi <i>et al.</i> 1980
	286	21			Schrauzer <i>et al.</i> 1985
			196	71	Nakamura <i>et al.</i> 1980
			87	7	Aihara <i>et al.</i> 1984
			142	16	Koyama <i>et al.</i> 1995
			99	13	Hatano <i>et al.</i> 1985
			132	14	Uehara <i>et al.</i> 1988
			130	10	Suzuki <i>et al.</i> 1989
			111	19	Imai <i>et al.</i> 1990
			84	10	Yamaguchi <i>et al.</i> 1992
			117	16	Matsuda <i>et al.</i> 1997
Korea			197	9	Shin <i>et al.</i> 1991
Libya	235	16			El-Amri <i>et al.</i> 1994
Mexico			100	18	Sanchez-Ocampo <i>et al.</i> 1996
The Netherlands			110	10	Vernie <i>et al.</i> 1983
			93	12	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			93	15	van 't Veer <i>et al.</i> 1990
			108	3	Kok & Hofman, 1989
			106	24	Bukkens <i>et al.</i> 1990
			69	6	Van der Torre <i>et al.</i> 1991
New Zealand					
North Island	69				Watkinson, 1974
	83	12			McKenzie <i>et al.</i> 1978
South Island	68	12			Griffiths & Thomson, 1974
	63	10			McKenzie <i>et al.</i> 1978
	64	13			Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1981
			58	9	Stewart <i>et al.</i> 1978
			43	12	Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1979
			48	10	Rea <i>et al.</i> 1979
			43	1	van Rij <i>et al.</i> 1981
			54	11	Thomson <i>et al.</i> 1982
			49	12	Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1983a
			60	12	Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1983b
			69	15	Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1985
			59	11	Thomson <i>et al.</i> 1985
			64	13	Thomson & Robinson, 1986
			48	19	Robinson & Thomson, 1987
			47	12	Thomson <i>et al.</i> 1988
			59	11	Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1988
			63	17	Thomson & Stevens, 1988
			56	9	Thomson <i>et al.</i> 1989
			69	8	Butler <i>et al.</i> 1991
			94	24	Sluis <i>et al.</i> 1992
			53	6	Thomson & Robinson, 1993
			55	6	Thomson <i>et al.</i> 1993
			56	6	Robinson <i>et al.</i> 1997
			65	12	Duffield & Thomson, 1999
Niger			79	15	Arnaud <i>et al.</i> 1993
			77	16	Cenac <i>et al.</i> 1992
Nigeria	80	40	50	31	Ojo <i>et al.</i> 1994
Northern Ireland			60	13	Strain <i>et al.</i> 1997
Norway	151	14			Bibow <i>et al.</i> 1989
			114	15	Saeed <i>et al.</i> 1979
			119	20	Aaseth <i>et al.</i> 1987
			126	16	Bjørneboe <i>et al.</i> 1988
			116	15	Glattre <i>et al.</i> 1989
			122	13	Meltzer <i>et al.</i> 1992
			167	22	Ringstad <i>et al.</i> 1993a
			117	16	Meltzer <i>et al.</i> 1993
			110	13	Bibow <i>et al.</i> 1993
			114	12	Ringstad <i>et al.</i> 1993b
			119	16	Meltzer & Huang, 1995
			78	6	Karlsson <i>et al.</i> 1996
Poland	125	15			Zachara <i>et al.</i> 1986
	92	10	71	12	Iwanier & Zachara, 1995

Table 3. continued

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
			78	18	Wasowicz & Zachara, 1987
			63	12	Zachara <i>et al.</i> 1987
			89	47	Masiak & Herzyk, 1984
			57	8	Zachara <i>et al.</i> 1988
			78	16	Pawlowicz <i>et al.</i> 1991
			59	5	Wasowicz <i>et al.</i> 1993
			51	14	Scieszka <i>et al.</i> 1997
Portugal			102	10	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			93	18	Viegas-Crespo <i>et al.</i> 1994
Russia					
Eastern			73		VN Ivanov and AV Voschenko, unpublished results
			65		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1995
			94		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1995
			126		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1995
			78		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1995
			89		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1995
			88		Kantola <i>et al.</i> 1997
			90		Golubkina & Sokolov, 1997
			102		Golubkina & Sokolov, 1997
			145		Golubkina & Alfthan, 1999
Ural area			98	11	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			96	10	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			84	13	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			87	11	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			103	11	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
			86	9	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1996
Eastern Siberia			102		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1992
			96	4	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1998a
			84	4	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1998a
			86	4	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1998a
			86	3	Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1998a
			74		Golubkina <i>et al.</i> 1998b
Trans-Baikal			80	30	Aro <i>et al.</i> 1994
			63		Golubkina & Alfthan, 1999
Saudi Arabia			103		Raines <i>et al.</i> 1999
Scotland, UK	117				Ward <i>et al.</i> 1984
			91	4	Harrison <i>et al.</i> 1996
Singapore	164	28			Xu <i>et al.</i> 1994
			116		Hughes & Ong, 1998
			122		Hughes & Ong, 1998
Slovak Republic			67	26	Brtková <i>et al.</i> 1994
			48	3	Kadrobová <i>et al.</i> 1995
			57	8	Kadrobová <i>et al.</i> 1996a
			50	2	Kadrobová <i>et al.</i> 1996b
			58	4	Krajčovičová-Kudláčková <i>et al.</i> 1995
			79	19	Magalova <i>et al.</i> 1997
South Africa			117	11	Segal <i>et al.</i> 1995
Spain			87	14	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			52	14	JM Fraga, JA Cocho de Juan, ML Couce Pico and JR Cervilla, unpublished results
			60	4	Fernandez-Banares <i>et al.</i> 1990
			81	10	Torra <i>et al.</i> 1997
			64	9	Marchante-Gayon <i>et al.</i> 1996
			81	7	Alegria <i>et al.</i> 1998
			54	25	Navarro-Alarcaon <i>et al.</i> 1998
			75	27	Navarro-Alarcaon <i>et al.</i> 1999
			116	25	Moreno <i>et al.</i> 1999
			94	3	Ferrer <i>et al.</i> 1999
Sweden	120	20			Brune <i>et al.</i> 1966
			68	13	Gebre-Medhin <i>et al.</i> 1985
			45	15	Jacobson & Plantin, 1985
			82	10	Thorling <i>et al.</i> 1986
			108	3	Thorngren & Åkesson, 1987
			95	6	Borglund & Åkesson, 1987
			83	3	Åkesson & Johansson, 1987
			81	14	Ahlrot-Westerland <i>et al.</i> 1987
			102	15	Aursnes <i>et al.</i> 1988
			107	2	Michaelsson <i>et al.</i> 1989

Table 3. *continued*

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
			95	20	Lundberg <i>et al.</i> 1992
			75	9	Srikumar <i>et al.</i> 1992
			110	20	Hardell <i>et al.</i> 1993
			88	19	Hardell <i>et al.</i> 1995
Switzerland			90	18	Forrer <i>et al.</i> 1991
			78	2	Karlsson <i>et al.</i> 1996
Taiwan			88	17	Chen <i>et al.</i> 1997
			126	10	Lin <i>et al.</i> 1998
			47	15	Chou <i>et al.</i> 1998
Turkey	94	7	75	12	F Hincal and N Basaran, unpublished results
	65	17	58	14	F Hincal and N Basaran, unpublished results
	100	10	79	21	F Hincal and N Basaran, unpublished results
			90	10	Turan <i>et al.</i> 1992
			94	7	F Hincal and N Basaran, unpublished results
			50	2	Güvenoc <i>et al.</i> 1995
			98	12	Güneral & Sunguroğlu, 1995
			168	46	Köse <i>et al.</i> 1996
			129		Saraymen <i>et al.</i> 1997
			106	26	Kocyigit <i>et al.</i> 1998
			71	2	Ozata <i>et al.</i> 1999
USA					
Eastern States	179	19			Allaway <i>et al.</i> 1968
	210	30			Rudolph & Wong, 1978
	166	29			Morris <i>et al.</i> 1983
			94	14	Pleban <i>et al.</i> 1982
			136	6	Willett <i>et al.</i> 1983
			131	3	Dutta <i>et al.</i> 1983
			100	20	Stead <i>et al.</i> 1984
			88	8	Stead <i>et al.</i> 1984
			134	12	Levander & Morris, 1984
			104	21	McAdam <i>et al.</i> 1984
			95	16	Dworkin & Rosenthal, 1984
			115	21	Pelag <i>et al.</i> 1985
			110	16	Menkes <i>et al.</i> 1986
			149	6	Levander <i>et al.</i> 1987
			122	16	Smith <i>et al.</i> 1987
			104	2	Feldman & Smith, 1987
			93	20	Dworkin <i>et al.</i> 1987
			129	8	Kant <i>et al.</i> 1989
			138	16	Swanson <i>et al.</i> 1990
			135	28	Clark <i>et al.</i> 1993
			124	21	GF Combs Jr and LC Clark, unpublished results
			140	41	GF Combs Jr and AM Nafziger, unpublished results
			113	15	Salvini <i>et al.</i> 1995
Southern States	188	32			Allaway <i>et al.</i> 1968
			148	7	McConnell <i>et al.</i> 1975
			157	25	McConnell <i>et al.</i> 1980
			95	27	Lane <i>et al.</i> 1982
			94	7	Miller <i>et al.</i> 1983
			91	17	Lane <i>et al.</i> 1983a
			100	30	Lane <i>et al.</i> 1983b
			80	10	Goodwin <i>et al.</i> 1983
			167	39	Milly <i>et al.</i> 1992
			130	30	Mask & Lane, 1993
			114	20	GF Combs Jr and LC Clark, unpublished results
			120	3	Lane <i>et al.</i> 1987
Central States	158	28			Allaway <i>et al.</i> 1968
	229	35			Shamberger <i>et al.</i> 1973
			122	10	Primm <i>et al.</i> 1979
			120	10	Sullivan <i>et al.</i> 1979
			108	19	Fleming <i>et al.</i> 1982
			119	3	Snook <i>et al.</i> 1983
			136	22	Moore <i>et al.</i> 1984
			133	15	Smith <i>et al.</i> 2000
Western States	208	34			Allaway <i>et al.</i> 1968
	176	24			Schrauzer & White, 1978
	171	24			Valentine <i>et al.</i> 1978
	191	23			Schrauzer <i>et al.</i> 1985

Table 3. *continued*

Country	Whole blood		Serum or plasma		Reference
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
	195	20			Olmsted <i>et al.</i> 1989
	202	25			Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1988
	397	128			Whanger <i>et al.</i> 1988
	404	139			Longnecker <i>et al.</i> 1991
	379	47			Salbe <i>et al.</i> 1993
			102	18	Schrauzer <i>et al.</i> 1973
			135	15	Levander <i>et al.</i> 1981
			72	27	Valentine <i>et al.</i> 1988
			166	29	Swanson <i>et al.</i> 1990
			198	55	Longnecker <i>et al.</i> 1991
			135	28	Clark <i>et al.</i> 1993
Hawaii			125	19	Nomura <i>et al.</i> 2000
Uzbekistan	108	1			Zhuk <i>et al.</i> 1988
	109	1			Zhuk <i>et al.</i> 1994
Venezuela			216	60	Brätter <i>et al.</i> 1984
			315	135	Brätter <i>et al.</i> 1984
			80	13	Burguera <i>et al.</i> 1990
Vietnam	400				Hai <i>et al.</i> 1984
Former Yugoslavia					
Bosnia-Herzegovina			64	19	Maksimović <i>et al.</i> 1992
Croatia			69	17	Beker <i>et al.</i> 1992
			64	12	Mikac-Dević <i>et al.</i> 1992
			71	18	Krsnjavi <i>et al.</i> 1992
Macedonia			35	7	Maksimović <i>et al.</i> 1992
Montenegro			51	26	Maksimović <i>et al.</i> 1992
Serbia			41	20	Maksimovic <i>et al.</i> 1992
			63	12	Mihailovic <i>et al.</i> 1992
			56	14	Maksimovic <i>et al.</i> 1995
			62	15	Maksimovic <i>et al.</i> 1998
			38	13	Backovic <i>et al.</i> 1999
Zaire			202	27	Vanderpas <i>et al.</i> 1990
			27	15	Thilly <i>et al.</i> 1992, 1993
			82	3	Vanderpas <i>et al.</i> 1993
Zambia			40	10	Z Cordera-McIntyre and GF Combs Jr, unpublished results

* These reports were selected for having included estimates of variance (SD) for these measures of Se status in healthy adults. Point estimates are cited in cases where SD values were not reported, particularly for infrequently studied countries.

† In 1984, Finland commenced a national programme adding Na₂SeO₄ to its chemical fertilizers (6 mg Se/kg for grain production, 16 mg Se/kg for hay/fodder production; the programme was modified in 1990, with 6 mg Se/kg being added to all fertilizers thereafter).

questions as to the health impact(s) of low as well as high Se intakes.

Health impacts of selenium deficiency

Two diseases have been associated with severe endemic Se deficiency in humans: a juvenile cardiomyopathy (Keshan disease), and a chondrodystrophy (Kaschin-Beck disease). Each occurs in rural areas of China and Russia (eastern Siberia) in food systems with exceedingly low Se supplies. For example, Keshan disease has been diagnosed in more than a dozen Chinese provinces in mountainous areas where the soil Se levels are very low (<0.125 mg Se/kg, of which <2.5 % is soluble) (Tan *et al.* 1987). In these areas, grains generally contain <0.040 mg Se/kg, Se and/or vitamin E-deficiency diseases of livestock (e.g. 'white muscle disease' in lambs, 'mulberry heart disease' in pigs) are endemic, and humans typically show the lowest tissue Se levels reported to date (e.g. blood Se <0.025 mg/l; hair Se <0.100 mg/kg).

Keshan disease is a multifocal myocarditis occurring primarily in children and, to a lesser extent, in women of

child-bearing age (Keshan Disease Research Group, 1979; Xu *et al.* 1997b). It is manifested as acute or chronic insufficiency of cardiac function, cardiac enlargement, arrhythmias, and electrocardiographic and radiographic abnormalities. The case-fatality in China was greater than 80 % in the 1940s, but has declined in recent years to <30 % apparently as the result of better medical care. Dramatic reductions in the incidence of the disease have been achieved by the prophylactic administration of oral tablets containing Na₂SeO₃ (0.5–1 mg Se/child per week) or selenite-fortified table salt (10–15 mg Se/kg). A few cases of cardiomyopathy associated with low Se status have been reported outside of China; however, low Se status is not a general feature of cardiomyopathy patients in most countries. Improvements in Se intake have been insufficient to explain the decline in Keshan disease prevalence observed in China in recent years (Xu *et al.* 1997b), suggesting that other factors are also involved in its aetiology. Recent findings suggest that the disease may be caused by RNA-viruses, the pathogenicities of which are potentiated by severe deficiencies of Se and other antioxidants (Beck *et al.* 1994a,b, 1995; Beck, 1997).

Table 4. Estimated distribution of prevalence of low selenium status based on reported blood selenium levels*

Prevalence category*	Country		
High (>50 %)	Austria	New Zealand	
	Bulgaria	Niger	
	Chile	Nigeria	
	China	Northern Ireland	
	Cuba	Poland	
	Czech Republic	Slovak Republic	
	Estonia	Spain	
	Germany	Uzbekistan	
	Greece	Former Yugoslavia Republics	
	Hungary	Zambia	
	Jamaica		
	Moderate (10–50 %)	Australia	Mexico
		Belgium	Portugal
Bolivia		Russia	
Denmark		Sweden	
England		Switzerland	
France		Taiwan	
India		Turkey	
Italy		Venezuela	
Burundi		Korea	
Canada		Norway	
Egypt		Scotland	
Low (<10 %)	Finland	USA	
	Republic of Ireland	Parts of Zaire	
	Japan		

* Based on estimated frequencies of plasma or serum Se concentrations <70 µg/l.

Kaschin-Beck disease is an osteoarthropathy affecting the epiphyseal and articular cartilage and the epiphyseal growth plates of growing bones. It is manifested as enlarged joints (especially of the fingers, toes and knees), shortened fingers, toes and extremities, and, in severe cases, dwarfism. The few studies of the effects of Se supplementation in the prevention and therapy of Kaschin-Beck disease have yielded encouraging results. Nevertheless, it is not clear that Se deficiency is a primary cause of Kaschin-Beck disease; it is more likely that severe endemic Se deficiency is a pre-disposing factor to the pathogenic effects of some other agent(s). Such roles have been proposed for fulvic acids in drinking water (Guo *et al.* 1997; Peng *et al.* 1999) and tricothecene mycotoxins in foods (Xiong *et al.* 1998).

Individuals with low intakes of protein will also have low intakes of Se because virtually all of the Se in foods occurs as the Se-amino acids in proteins. Therefore, children with kwashiorkor or marasmus, in which inadequate intake of protein results in the disease, will also tend to be low in Se. This has been documented in Guatemala (Burk *et al.* 1967) Morocco (Squali *et al.* 1997) and Egypt (Ashour *et al.* 1999); it is likely to be a factor in in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa where protein-malnutrition is widespread. In fact, malnourished children appear to have increased needs for Se and other antioxidant nutrients, due to the pro-oxidative effects of malnutrition and inflammation (Squali *et al.* 1997; Ashour *et al.* 1999). Neonates typically have lower blood Se levels than their mothers (Lee *et al.* 1995), and low plasma Se levels have been found to be associated with increased risk to respiratory morbidity among low-birth-weight newborns (Darlow *et al.* 1995). That Se-dependent GPX is important in protecting proliferating keratinocytes in wounded tissues (Munz *et al.*

1997) also suggests that Se-deficient individuals may also have compromised wound healing, although there have been no clinical reports of such effects.

It is likely that Se deficiency may also be a factor in some other diseases. Studies in central Africa found that the prevalences of the I-deficiency diseases, goitre and myxedematous cretinism, were greater among populations of relatively low Se status than among those of greater Se status (Vanderpas *et al.* 1990, 1993; Thilly *et al.* 1993). Because Se is known to be essential for the metabolic production of thyroid hormone (which requires the Se-Cys-containing iodothyronine 5-deiodinase to convert thyroxine to the active thyroid hormone) (Arthur *et al.* 1993), such a relationship suggests that the efficacy of I-supplementation programmes may be limited in Se-deficient populations, in which cases treatment with both Se and I would be indicated. Low Se status has been linked to increased risk of pre-eclampsia (Rayman *et al.* 1996), spontaneous abortions (Barrington *et al.* 1996), male infertility (Vézina *et al.* 1996; Scott *et al.* 1997). Recent findings have demonstrated that severe Se-deficiency in vitamin E-deficient hosts can increase the mutation rates of RNA-viruses (Beck *et al.* 1994a,b, 1995; Beck, 1997), making it plausible to suggest that Se deficiency may increase risks not only of Keshan-type cardiomyopathy but also of other diseases caused by RNA viruses (e.g. measles, influenza, hepatitis and AIDS) all of which are global problems.

Low blood Se levels have been measured in patients with several other diseases, particularly those affecting hepatic function. Such effects may be without significant biological consequence unless they are associated with reductions in blood GPX activities; otherwise, they may relate mostly to changes in protein metabolism and/or to differences in dietary management. For example, very low blood Se

levels have been identified in infants with the inborn errors of amino acid metabolism, maple syrup urine disease, or phenylketonuria (Lombeck *et al.* 1987a; Jochum *et al.* 1999). Such patients show serum Se levels (e.g. as low as 0.005 mg/l) with erythrocyte GPX activities of only 10–20 % those of healthy children. This effect has been shown to be due to the use of parenteral nutrition fluids that contain negligible amounts of Se (van Rij, 1981; Lombeck *et al.* 1987a).

Health impacts of supranutritional selenium intakes

Emerging evidence indicates that Se has anti-carcinogenic potential. Most, but not all, epidemiological studies have shown inverse associations of nutritional Se status and cancer risk (Combs & Gray, 1998; Combs & Clark, 1999), and numerous studies with experimental animal tumour models have demonstrated that intakes of Se in excess of nutritional requirements can inhibit tumourigenesis (Combs, 1989; El-Bayoumy, 1991; Krämer *et al.* 1996; Ip, 1998; Combs & Gray, 1998). The results of the Nutritional Prevention of Cancer (NPC) trial (Clark *et al.* 1996, 1998) showed that Se supplementation of non-deficient subjects could be effective in reducing cancer risk in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. Those results showed that the use of a daily oral supplement of Se (200 µg Se/d in the form of Se-enriched yeast) was associated with significantly lower incidences of total non-skin cancers (37 % less), total carcinomas (45 % less) and cancers of the prostate (63 % less), colon-rectum (58 % less) and lung (46 % less), as well as mortality due to lung (53 % less) and total cancers (50 % less). Nevertheless, the supplement did not affect risks of recurrent basal or squamous cell carcinomas in that high-risk population. Other clinical intervention trials conducted in China have also showed reductions in risks of cancers of the liver (Yu *et al.* 1997) and oesophagus (Blot *et al.* 1993; Li *et al.* 1993) associated with Se supplementation. Thus, it is now widely accepted that high-level exposure to at least some Se compounds can be anti-tumourigenic.

The anti-tumourigenic effects in experimental carcinogenesis models have been consistently associated with supranutritional intakes of Se, that is, levels at least 10-fold those required to prevent clinical signs of Se deficiency. On a unit body weight basis (about 100 µg/kg body weight for rodents), they are also much greater than those experienced by most people worldwide, which tend to be much less than 100 µg/d (or 1–4 µg/kg body weight for adult humans). That the known SeCys-proteins appear to be expressed maximally in animal tissues at dietary levels no greater than 0.5 µg Se/kg has led to the current belief that the anti-carcinogenic effects of such higher levels of Se are not likely to be related to these proteins (Combs & Gray, 1998; Combs & Clark, 1999). Instead, Se-anticarcinogenesis is thought to be due to the production of Se metabolites, probably methylselenol (CH_3SeH ; Fig. 1) (Ip, 1998; Ganther, 1999; Ip *et al.* 2000b,c), functioning to enhance carcinogen metabolism, affect gene expression, enhance immune surveillance, alter cell cycling, promote apoptosis and inhibit neo-angiogenesis (Combs & Lü, 2001). The results of the Nutritional Prevention of Cancer trial (Clark

et al. 1996, 1998) offer some insight into the Se intakes necessary to support the production of effective levels of such anticarcinogenic metabolites. Subjects entering that trial with plasma Se levels in the cohort's lower tertiles (<106 µg/l and 106–121 µg/l respectively) had higher rates of subsequent cancer and also showed the strongest protective effects of Se supplementation (Clark *et al.* 1998). This might suggest that plasma Se levels about 120 µg/l may be a useful target value for minimizing cancer risk, or at least a useful upper level criterion for eligibility for future cancer prevention trials. Using the relationship of blood Se and Se intake established by Yang *et al.* (1989b), correcting for differences in the average body weights of their subjects (estimated to be 60 kg) and those in the Nutritional Prevention of Cancer trial (77 kg), and assuming similar fractional intakes of selenomethionine (SeMet) and related compounds in the foods consumed in the two studies, it would appear that dietary Se intakes of at least 1.5 µg/kg body weight per d are required to support the plasma Se concentrations at the 120 µg/l level.

Selenosis

Only a few cases of human exposure to hazardous levels of Se have been reported. Most of these have involved occupational exposures (e.g. workers in Cu smelters or Se-rectifier plants) due to the inhalation of Se-containing aerosols; some have involved the accidental oral consumption of various inorganic Se compounds (Combs & Combs, 1986d; Lombeck *et al.* 1987b; Gasmi *et al.* 1997). There has been one instance in which an over-the-counter supplement was erroneously formulated with excessive Se. These cases have demonstrated that acute exposure to high levels of Se can produce hypotension (resulting from vasodilation), respiratory distress and a garlic-like odour of the breath (due to the exhalation of $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{Se}$ (Fig. 1), signs that reversed upon return to nutritional intakes of the element.

Chronic selenosis was identified in the 1960s among residents of Enshi County, Hubei Province, China, apparently resulting from exceedingly high concentrations of Se in the local food supplies and, in fact, throughout that local environment (Yang *et al.* 1983, 1989a,b; Liu & Li, 1987; Yang & Zhou, 1994). Local soils were found to contain nearly 8 mg Se/kg, and coal (the ash of which was used to amend the soil) contained as much as 84 g Se/kg. Consequently, locally produced foods contained the highest concentrations of Se ever reported: corn 6.33 mg Se/kg; rice 1.48 mg Se/kg. Even the water, which leached through seleniferous coal seams, contained unusually high concentrations of Se (e.g. 0.054 mg Se/l). In the five most heavily affected villages, morbidity was about 50 %. Almost all residents showed signs the most common of which were losses of hair and nails. Some also showed skin lesions (e.g. erythema, oedema, eruptions, intense itching), hepatomegaly, polyneuritis (e.g. peripheral anaesthesia, acroparasthesia, pain in the extremities, convulsions, partial paralysis, motor impairment, hemiplegia) and gastrointestinal disturbances. One death was attributed to selenosis, although a post-mortem examination was not made. In a village with a history of these signs and symptoms, it was

estimated that local residents consumed 3200–6690 μg Se/person per day, i.e. 100 times the nutritionally significant level. The World Health Organization (1996) estimate of the upper safe limit of Se intake, 400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ for an adult, is very likely to be too conservative, as it was derived arbitrarily by using one-half the estimate made by Yang *et al.* (1989b) for the same purpose. A review by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (Poirier, 1994), using the Enshi County study of Yang *et al.* (1989a,b) as the reference case, concluded that no adverse effects were observed among individuals with blood Se concentrations as great as 1000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$, with a no adverse effect intake level for an adult of 853 μg Se/d.

Enhancing selenium in food systems

It is clear that the food systems of most populations do not currently provide enough Se to support the maximal expression of the SeCys-enzymes. It can, thus, be assumed that many individuals have compromised protection from oxidative stress, which increases their risks to various chronic diseases, including those of the heart and lungs, as well as cancer. Su and Lu (Q Su and ZH Lu, personal communication) have estimated that in China alone some 400 million people fall into this low-Se category. To minimize such risks, food systems need to provide at least 40 μg Se/d (per adult), and recent data on cancer prevention would suggest a goal of 200–300 μg Se/d. (This range is derived from the results of the Nutritional Prevention of Cancer (NPC) trial (Clark *et al.* 1996, 1998). It is important to note that such intakes are comfortably within the estimated range of safe Se exposure (Combs, 1994). LC Clark, GF Combs and BW Turnbull (unpublished results) studied 424 healthy, older Americans given either a placebo or 400 μg Se/d for several years. Plasma Se levels of the Se-supplemented group increased from the baseline level (120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$) to >250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$ within 9–12 months; however, no abnormalities were observed in either clinical chemical variables, dermatological evaluations or patient-reported signs. These results indicate that this level of supplementation was safe for individuals consuming an additional 80–100 μg Se/d from dietary sources.) In order to support Se intakes at the lower, nutritional, level, changes will be needed in many food systems; in order to support higher, supra-nutritional, intakes of Se changes will be needed in almost all food systems.

Se is appropriately considered among the resource inputs to food systems. In this view, seleniferous areas become resources to the extent that they can be exploited for the production of Se-enriched plants. This approach is being used in China to produce a Se elixir from high-Se tea grown in Enshi County, Hubei Province. In non-seleniferous areas, Se fertilization has been an effective means of increasing the Se contents of crops (Mäkelä *et al.* 1993; Gissel-Nielsen, 1998; Chen, 1999). In 1984, the use of Se fertilizers was initiated on a national scale in Finland, dramatically increasing the Se contents of most foods, to increase dietary Se intakes four-fold and nearly double plasma or serum Se concentrations of the study population (Mäkelä *et al.* 1993; Aro & Alfthan, 1998). In the Se-reducing soils of Finland, this was accomplished without

substantial apparent run-off of oxidized species of Se into lakes and streams (Lahermo *et al.* 1998); however, in TN, USA, the use of Se fertilizers caused run-off of the element, resulting in its accumulation in the aquatic biota (Maier *et al.* 1998). Se fertilization has also been used in low-Se areas to prevent Se deficiency in grazing livestock (Allaway *et al.* 1966; Watkinson, 1987); but the approach can also lend itself to the production of meat and milk with enhanced Se contents. Otherwise, these ends can be achieved through the use of Se supplements to livestock feeds; in many countries, this practice has become common in commercial livestock production in order to prevent Se-deficiency disorders.

In response to the need for Se to support human health, the element has become a focus of 'functional food' development (Reilly, 1998) using many of these approaches. Se-enriched foods of several types have been developed in recent years. This included several produced using Se compounds as direct fortificants: Se-fortified table salt (Wen *et al.* 1987; Xu *et al.* 1996; Yu *et al.* 1997), Se-fortified margarine (He, 1996), Se-fortified cereal gruel (Cao *et al.* 1997) and several Se-fortified beverages. It has also included foods enriched in Se by various Se-fertilization and/or feeding techniques: high-Se Brussels sprouts (Stoewsand *et al.* 1989), high-Se broccoli (Finley, 1999), other high-Se Brassica vegetables (Kopsell & Randall, 1999), high-Se garlic (Ip *et al.* 1992; Ip & Lisk, 1994; Duan & Fu, 1997), high-Se onions (Ip *et al.* 1992), high-Se celery (Lee & Park, 1999), high-Se mint (Sekulovic *et al.* 1996), high-Se chamomille (Sekulovic *et al.* 1996), Se-containing tea (Hu & Ding, 1998), high-Se vinegar (Sune & Zhou, 1997), high-Se beer (Liu, 1997), high-Se yeasts (Golubkina *et al.* 1996; Hegoczki *et al.* 1997; Liou *et al.* 1998; Kyriakopoulos *et al.* 1998; Demirci & Pometto, 1999; Yoshida *et al.* 1999), high-Se mushrooms (Huang *et al.* 1997; Q Su and ZH Lu, personal communication), and high-Se mussels (Mao *et al.* 1997). To date there would appear to have been little attention given to possibilities of breeding for enhanced Se-uptake and/or retention by plants, although Wei (1996) was able to select a Se-accumulating cultivar of soyabean, and preliminary studies of RM Welch and GF Combs Jr (unpublished results) point to that possibility within the family of Brassica vegetables, which they found to vary in Se contents by at least 15-fold. Such findings would suggest that it should be possible to breed Se-efficient cultivars or to use genetic engineering to enhance specific Se metabolites in these or other common foods.

Efforts to optimize Se in foods should consider both the amounts as well as chemical form(s) of the element to be provided. While selenite or selenate can be effective as feed supplements to prevent Se deficiency in livestock, those forms have quite limited impacts on the Se contents of meats, milk and eggs because each can be retained only by being incorporated into the SeCys-containing proteins. Much greater tissue Se levels can be achieved using a source of SeMet as a feed supplement, as that selenoamino acid is readily incorporated into the general synthesis of tissue proteins. Plants can use either selenite or selenate to synthesize both SeMet and SeCys each of which they can incorporate non-specifically into proteins in their edible

tissues (Stadtman, 1996). Those food-plant species with the greatest potential for accumulating Se would be those that naturally contain large amounts of S-amino acids, e.g. the Allium and Brassica vegetables. In contrast, lactic acid bacteria can take up inorganic selenium oxides transforming that Se only to SeCys, which is incorporated into proteins (Calomme *et al.* 1995a,b).

In order to enhance the contents in foods of proximal precursors of the putative anti-tumourigenic methylated Se-metabolites, it will be necessary to understand the speciation of Se in plant and animal tissues. To date, there has been very little work in this area. Only a few analytical groups have approached the speciation of Se in foods; these have worked with such high-Se foods as a commercial Se-enriched bakers' yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) product (Bird *et al.* 1997; Casiot *et al.* 1999; Ip *et al.* 2000a; Kotreba *et al.* 2000a,b), Se-enriched garlic (Cai *et al.* 1994; Ip *et al.* 2000a), other high-Se Allium vegetables (Cai *et al.* 1995), and mushrooms (Slejkovec *et al.* 2000). These studies indicate these foods can differ with respect to their predominant Se constituents; for example SeMet appears to be the dominant form of Se in Se-enriched yeast, while γ -glutamyl-Se-methylselenocysteine is the dominant one in Se-enriched garlic (Ip *et al.* 2000a).

Studies of Se-enriched yeast products are of special relevance in as much as such a form of Se was found effective in reducing cancer risk in the Nutritional Prevention of Cancer trial (Clark *et al.* 1996). To date, results have been reported for only one product (Bird *et al.* 1997; Ip *et al.* 2000a; Kotreba *et al.* 2000a,b), indicating that virtually all of its Se is protein-bound in several forms that are relevant to cancer prevention in different ways. Selenomethionine appears to comprise at least 65 % of total Se. The remainder includes SeCys, which like SeMet is metabolized to potentially anti-carcinogenic H₂Se pool (Lü *et al.* 1994), as well as a smaller amount of Se-methylselenocysteine, which is a proximal metabolic precursor of the putative anti-carcinogenic metabolite methylselenol (Ip & Ganther, 1990, 1993; Ip *et al.* 2000b). Without similar compositional information for similar products, and with no standards of product identity for Se-enriched yeast, it is not clear whether these findings describe general characteristics of Se-enriched yeasts or specific traits of the particular product studied. This sort of speciation information will be needed for other foods, as optimization of Se should undertake not merely to increase total Se contents, but to achieve the specific enrichment of Se-compounds most directly associated with health benefits.

Consumer acceptance of enhanced-Se foods will also call for efforts to increase the salience of Se–health relationships. This will involve the delivery of scientifically sound information as part of food marketing, the inclusion of Se content information on food labels, and the establishment of quality control procedures to minimize risks of Se overexposure and to ensure delivery of known forms of the element.

Conclusion

Se is essential for a number of enzymes that perform important metabolic functions necessary for good health. A

mineral element, Se enters food systems from soils, and there is ample evidence to indicate that the world's soils vary considerably with respect to their contents of biologically available Se. As a consequence, people in many countries do not appear to consume adequate amounts of Se to support the maximal expression of the Se enzymes. It would be difficult to quantify the total number of Se-deficient people in the world; but that number would very likely be in the range of 500–1000 million. In the most extreme cases, severe Se deficiency is now recognized to be a predisposing factor to certain kinds of heart disease, chondrodystrophies and I-deficiency disorders. The vast majority of people appear to be Se undernourished to lesser, i.e. subclinical, degrees. In consequence, they may experience the potentiation of viral diseases (e.g. measles, hepatitis, influenza and HIV–AIDS); and enhanced susceptibility to oxidative stresses associated with infection, inflammation and exposure to environmental pollutants. At the same time, supranutritional intakes of Se have emerged as a prospective means of reducing cancer risk. For several reasons, therefore, it is in the public health interest of many countries to develop effective and sustainable ways of increasing Se intakes.

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