Environmental risk factors for Parkinson’s disease and parkinsonism: the Geoparkinson study

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Objective: To investigate the associations between Parkinson’s disease and other degenerative parkinsonian syndromes and environmental factors in five European countries.

Methods: A case–control study of 959 prevalent cases of parkinsonism (767 with Parkinson’s disease) and 1989 controls in Scotland, Italy, Sweden, Romania and Malta was carried out. Cases were defined using the United Kingdom Parkinson’s Disease Society Brain Bank criteria, and those with drug-induced or vascular parkinsonism or dementia were excluded. Subjects completed an interviewer-administered questionnaire about lifetime occupational and hobby exposure to solvents, pesticides, iron, copper and manganese. Lifetime and average annual exposures were estimated blind to disease status using a job-exposure matrix modified by subjective exposure modelling. Results were analysed using multiple logistic regression, adjusting for age, sex, country, tobacco use, ever knocked unconscious and family history of Parkinson’s disease.

Results: Adjusted logistic regression analyses showed significantly increased odds ratios for Parkinson’s disease/parkinsonism with an exposure–response relationship for pesticides (low vs no exposure, odds ratio (OR) = 1.13, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.57, high vs no exposure, OR = 1.41, 95% CI 1.06 to 1.88) and ever knocked unconscious (once vs never, OR = 1.35, 95% CI 1.09 to 1.68, more than once vs never, OR = 2.53, 95% CI 1.78 to 3.59). Hypnotic, anxiolytic or antidepressant drug use for more than 1 year and a family history of Parkinson’s disease showed significantly increased odds ratios. Tobacco use was protective (OR = 0.50, 95% CI 0.42 to 0.60). Analyses confined to subjects with Parkinson’s disease gave similar results.

Conclusions: The association of pesticide exposure with Parkinson’s disease suggests a causal role. Repeated traumatic loss of consciousness is associated with increased risk.

Parkinson’s disease is a neurodegenerative disease characterised by progressive degeneration of the dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra. It is the second commonest neurodegenerative disease after Alzheimer’s disease, and in the UK has a lifetime prevalence of between 0.1 and 0.3% of the population.1 There is evidence that both genetic and environmental factors are important determinants,2 and a family history of the disease has been shown to be a risk factor.3, 4 It seems likely that Parkinson’s disease is not a single disease but a number of phenotypically similar illnesses. A variable range of genetic and environmental interactions may produce these conditions and it may be that any individual risk factor will only affect susceptible subjects.

The discovery that 1-methyl-4-phenyl tetrahydropyridine, a contaminant of a synthetic opiate, can cause parkinsonism through its neurotoxic metabolite, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium, stimulated interest in environmental chemical exposures as risk factors for Parkinson’s disease.3 Many case–control studies have investigated the association between Parkinson’s disease and pesticide use and some, but not all, have found an association.3–6, 8 Use of well water, rural living and agricultural employment have also been implicated as risk factors, although studies have given conflicting results.3, 8 If there is an association with these factors it may be that they are simply surrogate measures of pesticide exposure.

A Danish cohort study found an increased risk of first hospital admission with Parkinson’s disease in agricultural workers.9 A prospective cohort study in Hawaii (the Honolulu Heart Program) found that plantation work for more than 10 years was associated with an increased relative risk of Parkinson’s disease.10 A cohort study of workers exposed to pesticides in Washington State, using detailed exposure information, found a marginally non-significant increased prevalence ratio of Parkinson’s disease among those with the longest exposures.11 A prospective cohort study in southwestern France (the PAQUID study) has reported an increased relative risk of Parkinson’s disease among men with occupational pesticide exposure.12

Although most studies show a positive association between pesticide exposure and Parkinson’s disease, no specific agent has been implicated consistently. Agriculture employs a range of pesticides and so identifying the causative agent is extremely difficult. Similarly, the degree of pesticide exposure that may lead to Parkinson’s disease is unknown. Necropsy studies have found increased levels of organochlorine pesticides in the brains of patients with Parkinson’s disease.13 Acute reversible parkinsonism has been described after organophosphate pesticide poisoning.14 One German case–control study found an association between the use of organochlorine compounds and alkylated phosphates/carbamates and Parkinson’s disease.15 Cases of parkinsonism have been reported after occupational exposure to maneb: a manganese-containing carbamate pesticide (manganese ethylene-bis-dithiocarbamate).16 Paraquat, a widely used bipiridyl herbicide, is structurally similar to 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium and has been linked to parkinsonism in both epidemiological surveys.17

Abbreviations: AAI, average annual intensity; CE, cumulative exposure; OEL, occupational exposure limit; OR, odds ratio; UK PDS, United Kingdom Parkinson’s Disease Society
and laboratory work, while rotenone, another insecticide, is used to induce parkinsonism in a rat model of the disease. Some, but not all, case-control studies have found a moderately increased risk of Parkinson’s disease in association with organic solvent exposure. In one study a job-exposure matrix failed to confirm the self-reported association between solvent exposure and Parkinson’s disease. Few studies have examined metal exposures as risk factors for Parkinson’s disease. An ecological study in Michigan found that Parkinson’s disease mortality was more common in those counties with metalworking industries. Some case-control studies have found associations between copper and manganese exposure and Parkinson’s disease, but others have not. Racette et al reported a higher prevalence of parkinsonism in male welders in Alabama than in the general population.

The current evidence for occupational risk factors for Parkinson’s disease has several weaknesses. Many studies of occupational exposures have had small sample sizes. There have been few studies of occupational exposures to solvents or metals. The exposure estimates employed in some studies have been relatively crude, sometimes as simple as ever/never exposed or job title classifications. It is known that such exposure surrogates may lead to misclassification of exposure.

We wished to determine the increase in risk of degenerative parkinsonian syndromes, in general, and Parkinson’s disease, specifically, in those exposed to solvents, pesticides, iron, copper or manganese. We included patients with other degenerative parkinsonian conditions as well as Parkinson’s disease because (1) it allowed us to assess whether they share common environmental and genetic risk factors; (2) diagnosis is inaccurate: 10–20% of cases labelled as Parkinson’s disease turn out to be another degenerative parkinsonian syndrome and vice versa.

**METHODS**

**Study design**

We undertook a five-centre case-control study set in northern Scotland (Grampian region and Easter Ross), southeastern Sweden (Östergötland and Jönköping counties), northern Italy (Emilia-Romagna region), eastern Romania (metropolitan Bucharest) and Malta (including the island of Gozo). In each centre we aimed at recruiting 200 prevalent cases of parkinsonism and 400 controls. Our study received approval from each centre’s research ethics committee and, additionally, the full study was subject to review by a European Union research ethics panel. In Italy, cases were enrolled by neurologists as study participants. We excluded the study from those patients requiring blood tests. Care was taken to ensure that cases and controls were drawn from the same geographical areas. We did not tell participants the precise aims of the study to minimise recall bias.

**Interviewer-administered questionnaire**

A questionnaire in English was developed, piloted and translated into Italian, Swedish, Romanian and Maltese. Questionnaires were translated by bilingual physicians familiar with the relevant medical and occupational terminology and so back-translation was not employed. Interviewers, trained to minimise the risk of biased data collection, administered the questionnaire. A history of lifetime employment was gathered, together with data relating to the duration and likely intensity of occupational and hobby exposure to target agents (solvents, pesticides, iron, copper and manganese). We recorded episodes of private water supply use (well, river or spring) by both duration and geographical location. Smoking, alcohol and education histories were obtained. Inquiry as to the use of anxiolytic drugs, antidepressant drugs or sleeping tablets for more than 1 year was made. History of having been knocked unconscious (defined as any loss of consciousness) and family history of Parkinson’s disease in first- and second-degree relatives was recorded. No information about the timing of either head injury or drug use was sought.

**Exposure estimation**

The exposure estimation methodology has been described previously. Briefly, a job exposure matrix was produced for the most commonly reported occupations by an occupational hygienist. Exposures were estimated with reference to the current UK occupational exposure limit (OEL) for mixed solvents, a typical pesticide employed in the task or for iron, copper or manganese, in the air. This job exposure matrix allowed exposure to each target material to be categorised as zero, low, medium or high. The exposure intensity was evaluated for the three primary occupational exposure routes (inhalation, dermal, and ingestion), where applicable. The resulting exposure estimate was then modified using subjective exposure estimation techniques similar to those first used by Fidler et al and subsequently refined. Subjective exposure models employ knowledge of factors that determine exposure to estimate likely workplace exposures. These factors include ventilation, method of use (eg, spray painting may generate 10 times the solvent exposure of brush painting), and protective measures used. We partially validated this exposure assessment method using data from another study by comparing these estimates with previously validated exposure reconstructions.

Agreement was high, with a Spearman’s correlation ($r_s$) of 0.89 ($p<0.01$). The results of our quality assurance system for exposure estimates show a high degree of repeatability over time (Spearman’s $r_s = 0.98, p<0.01$) and between assessors (Spearman’s $r_s = 0.88, p<0.01$). For repeatability over time (99 scenarios), the mean bias (second assessment/first assessment)
over 60% of the ratios between 0.5 and 2.0. For interobserver variability was highly skewed by six scenarios for which the bias estimates (second assessor/first assessor) was 3.7, but this figure was 238 scenarios, the mean bias of the cumulative exposure (CE) of the ratios between 0.5 and 2.0. For interobserver variability was 1.11, with both the median and mode being 1.0, and 85% of the ratios between 0.5 and 2.0. For interobserver variability was 3.7, but this figure was highly skewed by six scenarios for which the bias was >10. The median and mode figures for bias were 1.0, with over 60% of the ratios between 0.5 and 2.0.

We expressed our exposure estimation results with reference to the current UK OELs for these agents, using judgment as to the most likely agents for the described task where (as was often the case) the specific chemical agent was not recalled. Exposure intensity for each job was combined with data on exposure duration (number of hours, days per year and years exposed) to calculate a job CE. This was expressed in OEL-years where 1 OEL-year is equivalent to working at the UK occupational exposure limit for 8 hours a day for 240 days a year. Job CE values were summed to provide a lifetime CE to each chemical group. The exposure metric used in the analysis is the average annual intensity (AAI) of exposure and this is derived by dividing the lifetime CE by the number of years of exposure to that material. The AAI is expressed in OEL units, manganese 0.20 OEL units, copper 0.02 OEL units.

#### Statistical analysis

We undertook statistical analyses relating the various exposures to disease state (Parkinson’s disease or parkinsonism versus controls). Demographic characteristics of the cases and controls were compared using t tests and χ² tests. For the unadjusted analysis, we tabulated the numbers of cases and controls with and without each risk factor and then calculated odds ratios (ORs) and their 95% confidence intervals. Initially we calculated the odds ratios for any exposure to solvents, pesticides and any of the three metals versus no exposure. Then, odds ratios for having high and low exposure compared with no exposure were obtained. We defined the split between high and low exposure as being the median AAI of exposure of those exposed and used AAI as the exposure metric for all analyses. The median AAI values of those exposed were: solvents 0.054 OEL units, pesticides 0.003 OEL units, iron 0.19 OEL units, manganese 0.20 OEL units, copper 0.02 OEL units.

Multiple logistic regression was used to obtain estimates of odds ratios for the same exposures adjusting for age, sex, country, ever used tobacco, ever been knocked unconscious and

### Table 1  Background information for cases and controls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All cases (n = 959)</th>
<th>Cases with Parkinson’s disease (n = 767)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 1989)</th>
<th>All cases vs controls (p value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age, mean (SD)</td>
<td>69.9 (9.5)</td>
<td>69.8 (9.2)</td>
<td>69.8 (10.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex, No [%]</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>537 (56)</td>
<td>426 (56)</td>
<td>1057 (53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>422 (44)</td>
<td>341 (44)</td>
<td>932 (47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age left school, mean (SD)</td>
<td>14.5 (2.6)</td>
<td>14.5 (2.6)</td>
<td>14.4 (2.7)</td>
<td>0.20†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently working, No [%]</td>
<td>90 (9)</td>
<td>66 (9)</td>
<td>334 (36)</td>
<td>0.001‡</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend/relative helped with responses, No [%]</td>
<td>287 (30)</td>
<td>227 (30)</td>
<td>214 (11)</td>
<td>0.001†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age at diagnosis, mean (SD)</td>
<td>62.4 (10.3)</td>
<td>61.6 (9.9)</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview quality assessment, No [%]*</td>
<td>Implausible</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor/confused, but plausible</td>
<td>176 (19)</td>
<td>137 (18)</td>
<td>253 (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>766 (81)</td>
<td>616 (82)</td>
<td>1685 (87)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Interview quality was categorised by the interviewer as implausible when the subject was unable to respond to basic questioning or provided data that were illogical or implausible. Where recall was occasionally poor or confused, but in the main sounded plausible, this was coded as poor/confused, but plausible. Where the subject provided good, precise responses and the work history was well described the interview quality was categorised as good.

† Test; ‡ Test; † Test combining “implausible” and “poor/confused, but plausible” categories.

### Table 2  Summary of average annual intensity (AAI) of exposures by country and case–control status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scotland (n = 202)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 418)</th>
<th>Sweden (n = 201)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 401)</th>
<th>Romania (n = 178)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 370)</th>
<th>Italy (n = 200)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 398)</th>
<th>Malta (n = 178)</th>
<th>Controls (n = 402)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Solvents</td>
<td>0.06 (0–100)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–100)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–138)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–56)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–117)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–120)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–122)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–98)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–125)</td>
<td>0.06 (0–187)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pesticides</td>
<td>0.003 (0–89.4)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–89.4)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–50)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–50)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–29.1)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–30)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–25)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–8.4)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–10.4)</td>
<td>0.003 (0–65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>0.00 (0–285)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–285)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–206)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–194)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–188)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–146)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manganese</td>
<td>0.00 (0–285)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–285)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–206)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–194)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–188)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–146)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–213)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copper</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–150)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–33)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–81)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–81)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–100)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–100)</td>
<td>0.00 (0–82.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures represent exposure per year exposed: median [range] (interquartile range).

100 = occupational exposure limit (OEL).

Not all interviews were graded for quality: the percentages shown are based on the 946 cases of PD or parkinsonism, 755 cases of PD and 1947 controls graded for quality.
first-degree family history of Parkinson's disease. We then repeated these analyses restricting cases to those with a diagnosis of Parkinson's disease. We did not adjust the p values for multiple testing.

RESULTS
Recruitment took place between June 2000 and September 2004. The overall response rate in Scotland, Sweden, Italy and Romania was 64% (77% for cases and 59% for controls). The response rate for cases in Malta was 66%, but no comparable figure was available for controls. A total of 959 cases of Parkinsonism (of whom 767 met the UK PDS Brain Bank criteria for Parkinson's disease) and 1899 controls matched for age and gender were recruited. Table 1 shows descriptive data for all subjects. Table 2 shows a summary of the average annual intensity of exposures by country of residence and case-control status. The proportion of cases defined as Parkinsonism using the UK PDS Brain Bank criteria was 10% in Scotland, 16% in Italy, 19% in Sweden, 21% in Italy and 34% in Malta. In Scotland, a centre that had employed note-based classification, a neurologist reviewed a random sample of 15 cases. All subjects examined met the UK PDS Brain Bank criteria for Parkinsonism but 2/12 (17%) cases of Parkinson's disease were reclassified as having a Parkinson's plus condition.

Owing to difficulties in the interpretation of the question about water supply in Malta, the results for private water supply exclude Malta.

Initial univariate analyses for all cases and controls suggested a protective effect for subjects ever having used tobacco products (data not shown). Significantly increased odds ratios were found for private water supply, ever having been knocked unconscious, and prolonged use of hypnotic drugs, anxiolytic drugs or antidepressants, and first-degree family history of Parkinson's disease. A significant relationship was found with the frequency of having been knocked unconscious. Increased odds ratios for any exposure to solvents, pesticides, iron, manganese and copper were found, but this association was statistically significant only for pesticides. There was an exposure-response relationship between the AAID of exposure to pesticides and Parkinson's disease (low exposure vs no exposure, OR = 1.19, 95% CI 0.90 to 1.57, high exposure vs no exposure, OR = 1.56, 95% CI 1.19 to 2.04). The median AAID of exposure to pesticides in the low exposure group was 0.0004 OEL units (range 0.00 to 0.0003) and in the high pesticide exposure group the median exposure was 0.019 OEL units (range 0.003 to 0.089).

Multiple logistic regression analyses for all cases and controls, adjusting for age, sex, country, ever having used tobacco, ever having been knocked unconscious and first-degree family history of Parkinson's disease, provided similar results (table 3) to the unadjusted analyses. Significantly raised odds ratios were found for ever having been knocked unconscious, ever having taken hypnotic drugs, anxiolytic drugs or antidepressants for more than 1 year, and for first-degree family history of Parkinson's disease. Tobacco use was shown to be protective (OR = 0.50, 95% CI 0.42 to 0.60). There was evidence of an exposure-response relationship for having been knocked unconscious (once vs never, OR = 1.35, 95% CI 1.09 to 1.68, more than once vs never, OR = 2.53, 95% CI 1.78 to 3.59). There was a weaker association for pesticide exposure (low exposure vs no exposure, OR = 1.13, 95% CI 0.82 to 1.57, high exposure vs no exposure, OR = 1.41, 95% CI 1.06 to 1.88).

Comparing only the subjects with Parkinson's disease with all controls gave very similar results for both univariate and multivariate analyses (table 4) as the all cases analyses. Analyses using the CE metric gave very similar results to those presented here.

DISCUSSION
The Geoparkinson study is one of the largest case-control studies to date of genetic, environmental and occupational risk factors for Parkinson's disease or other degenerative Parkinsonian syndromes. The genetic analyses (reported separately) have examined 15 candidate polymorphisms as potential modifiers of chemical toxicity. We have used an unusually detailed method to estimate exposure, integrating data on both occupational and hobby exposure to produce estimates of total exposure to the target agents. The advantage of this approach is that it provides a quantitative measure of exposure and can provide useful information about the adequacy of current exposure standards to prevent Parkinson's disease. The results suggest that relatively low intensity exposures to pesticides may increase risks. On the contrary, they suggest that, in general, risks from solvents and metals are less important in this respect. However, we return to this in the accompanying paper, where we examine exposure–gene interactions.

A major problem in case-control studies is that of recall bias. We have tried to deal with this by the use of lifetime occupational histories, the use of prompts (“In this job was there use of…?”) and the production of detailed exposure estimates. Recall bias is most likely to lead to differential reporting for brief exposures. Under-reporting of short-term

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### Table 3 Adjusted results† (all cases vs controls)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exposure Type</th>
<th>OR (95% CI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ever used tobacco containing product</td>
<td>1.17 (0.92 to 1.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>0.88 (0.69 to 1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pesticides</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.13 (0.82 to 1.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.41 (1.06 to 1.88)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.11 (0.79 to 1.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.41 (1.02 to 1.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manganese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.22 (0.86 to 1.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>0.92 (0.64 to 1.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>1.05 (0.70 to 1.59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High exposure vs no exposure</td>
<td>0.94 (0.64 to 1.40)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Cut-off point for low/high exposure taken to be median value of those exposed.
†Logistic regression adjusting for age, sex, country, ever used tobacco containing product, ever smoked, ever knocked unconscious and first-degree family history of Parkinson's disease.
‡Odds ratios derived from a single logistic regression model with these factors as the only covariates.
§Excluding Malta water supply data.
*Number of times knocked unconscious was once (n = 460), twice (n = 74), three times (n = 37), four times (n = 19), five times (n = 8), six times (n = 4), seven times (n = 1), 10 times (n = 4) and 20 times (n = 1).
exposures among controls would have little impact on our quantitative exposure estimates. This is in contrast to the large exposures among controls would have little impact on our policy implications

- Pesticide use is associated with Parkinson’s disease and this has implications for occupational and, perhaps, recreational users of these agents. Further research is needed to establish which pesticides are associated with this effect.
- Head injury, as measured by episodes of being knocked unconscious, is associated with Parkinson’s disease. This finding, if confirmed, has implications for all contact sports and, in particular, combat sports such as boxing.
implications for contact sports. Head injury has previously been associated with Parkinson’s disease, which is probably owing to a true causal relationship.

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REFERENCES

APPENDIX 1: THE GEOPARKINSON STUDY GROUP

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