UPDATES AND EXTENSIONS TO TESTS OF THE LINEAR-NO THRESHOLD THEORY

Bernard L. Cohen

Department of Physics, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15260

Two weaknesses in a 1995 article on tests of the linear-no threshold theory of radiation carcinogenesis are pointed out. One is addressed by introducing more recent cancer mortality statistics, and the other is addressed by introducing 450 newly available potential confounding factors. The later cancer statistics give results very similar to the original ones for the nation as a whole, but do cause significant changes for some geographic areas. None of the new confounding variables helps to explain the large discrepancy with predictions of the linear-no threshold theory, nor does the use of more recent cancer statistics.

Key words: Linear-no threshold theory; Radiation carcinogenesis; Confounding factors

REVIEW OF ORIGINAL STUDY

A 1995 article (1), hereafter referred to as C-95, presented a test of the linear-no threshold theory (LNT) based on a compilation of radon measurements from available sources that gave the average radon level, r, in homes for 1729 US counties, well over half of all US counties and comprising about 90% of the total US population. Plots of age-adjusted lung cancer mortality rates, m, vs. these r are shown in Figure 1a and c. To avoid the confusion of showing over a thousand data points, data have been combined into groups consisting of all counties within set intervals of r values, and for the group in each interval, the mean value of m is plotted with error bars showing 1 SD of the mean. The first and third quartiles for the distribution are also plotted as an indication of the spreads of m values involved. We see in Figure 1a and c a clear tendency for m to decrease with increasing r, in sharp contrast to the increase expected from the fact that radon can cause lung cancer, shown by the line labeled "theory."

One obvious problem is migration: people do not spend their whole lives and receive all of their radon

exposure in their county of residence at time of death where their cause of death is recorded. However, it is easy to correct the theoretical prediction for this, and the "theory" lines in Figure 1 have been so corrected. To minimize the migration problem, data for Florida, California, and Arizona were deleted because deaths there are frequently recorded for retirees who received their radon exposures elsewhere. This reduces the number of counties to 1601, but causes no appreciable change in the results.

A more serious problem is that this is an "ecological study," relating the average risk of groups (county populations) to their average exposure dose. In general, the average dose does not determine the average risk, and to assume otherwise is what epidemiologists call "the ecological fallacy." However, it is easily shown that the ecological fallacy (thus defined) does not apply in testing a linear-no threshold theory. This is familiar from the concept that, with LNT, "man-rem" determines the number of cancer deaths: dividing each by the population, man-rem gives the average dose, and number of deaths gives the mortality rate. Other problems with ecological studies that have been discussed in the epidemiology litera-

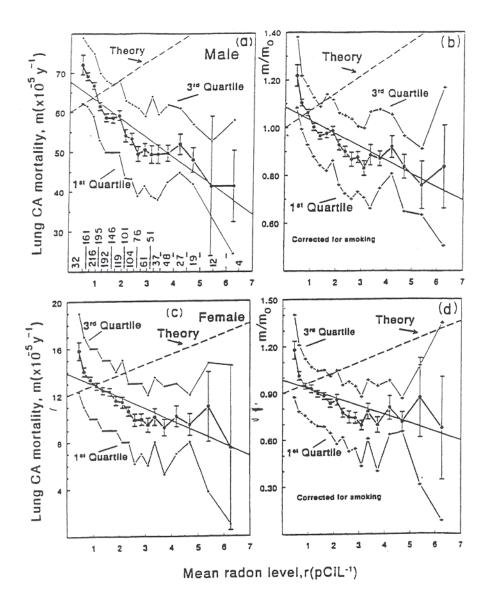


Figure 1. Lung cancer mortality rates vs. average radon levels in homes for US counties for males (a) and females (c). Data points shown are average ordinates for all counties within the range of r values shown on the basline of (a); the number of counties within that range is also shown there. Error bars are SD of the mean, and the first and third quartiles are also shown. Lung cancer rates for (b) males and (d) females corrected for smoking prevalence (m/m_0) are shown at right. Theory lines are arbitrarily normalized lines increasing at a rate of +7.3% per pCi/L.

ture were also investigated and found not to be applicable here.

Because epidemiologists normally study the mortality risk to individuals, this study started from that premise and derived, by rigorous mathematics, the correction for smoking in terms of the fraction of adults who are smokers, S. The data in Figure 1a and c, corrected for smoking, are shown in Figure 1b and

d. It can be seen that there is a huge discrepancy between measurements and LNT theory, by about 20 SD. The theory predicts the slope of the line, B (in unit of percent per pCi/L), to be B = +7.3, whereas the data are fit by $B = -7.3 \pm 0.6$ and -8.3 ± 0.8 for males and females, respectively.

A wide variety of potential explanations for the discrepancy that we could develop or that were sug-

gested by others were tested and found to be grossly inadequate. Three independent sources of radon data were used but all gave the same result. Three different sources of data on smoking prevalence similarly failed. In fact, it was found that if our best estimate of the width of the distribution of S values for US counties is correct, even a perfect negative correlation between radon and smoking prevalence eliminates only half of the discrepancy. If the S value distribution had the largest credible width, an essentially perfect negative correlation between radon levels and smoking prevalence in US counties would be required to explain the discrepancy. It was shown that anything approaching such a strong correlation is completely incredible.

It was shown that the strong correlation between radon exposure and lung cancer mortality, albeit negative rather than positive, is unique to lung cancer; no remotely comparable correlation was found for any of the other 32 cancer sites. We concluded that the observed behavior is not something that can easily occur.

To investigate effects of a potential confounding variable, data were stratified into quintiles on the values of that variable, and a regression analysis was done separately for each stratum. Because the potential confounder has essentially the same value for all counties in a given stratum, its confounding effect is greatly reduced in these analyses. An average of the slopes, B, of the regression lines for the five quintiles then gives a value for B that is largely free of the confounding under investigation.

This test was carried out for 54 socioeconomic variables and none was found to be a significant confounder. In all 540 regression analyses (54 variables \times 5 quintiles \times 2 sexes), the slopes, B, were negative and the average B value for the five quintiles was always close to the value for the entire data set. This means that the negative correlation between lung cancer rates and radon exposure is found if we consider only the very urban counties or if we consider only the very rural counties; if we consider only the richest counties or only the poorest; if we consider only the counties with the best medical care or only those with the poorest medical care; and so forth for all 54 socioeconomic variables. It is also found for all strata in between, as, for example, considering only counties of average urbanicity, only counties of average wealth, only counties of average medical care, etc.

The possibility of confounding by combinations of socioeconomic variables was studied and found not to be an important potential explanation for the discrepancy.

The stratification method was also used to investigate the possibility of confounding by geography, and of confounding by physical features such as altitude, temperature, precipitation, wind, and cloudiness, but these factors were of no help in explaining the discrepancy. The negative slope and gross discrepancy with LNT theory is found if we consider only the wettest areas, or if we consider only the driest; if we consider only the warmest areas, or only the coldest areas, etc.

The effects of the two principal recognized factors that correlate with both radon and smoking were calculated in detail: 1) urban people smoke 20% more but average 25% lower radon exposures than rural people; 2) houses of smokers have 10% lower average radon levels than houses of nonsmokers. These were found to explain only 3% of the discrepancy. Because they are typical of the largest confounding effects one can plausibly expect, it is extremely difficult to imagine a confounding effect that can explain the discrepancy. Requirements on such an unrecognized confounder were listed, and they make its existence seem extremely implausible. By far, the most plausible explanation that could be found for this discrepancy was that the linear-no threshold theory fails, grossly overestimating the cancer risk in the low dose, low dose rate region where there are no other data capable of testing the theory.

THE NEW STUDY

Two weaknesses in C-95 are addressed here by providing a great deal of further data and analysis. One weakness lies in the fact that lung cancer mortality statistics in C-95 were from 1970–1979, the latest age-adjusted rates available at that time. These deaths were presumably related to radon exposures in the 1940–1970 time period (or earlier) whereas the radon levels were measured in the 1986–1991 time period. Of course, this same problem applies to all other studies of the radon–lung cancer relation-

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ship, including the widely heralded case-control studies, and it is more serious for them because it is much more likely for the radon level in a single house to have changed over several decades (e.g., cracks develop, or become sealed) than for the average radon level for all houses in a county to have changed. Nevertheless, it is preferable if the disparity in time between relevant exposures and radon measurements is reduced by using more recent lung cancer mortality statistics; that is done here. This has the added advantage of testing the degree to which these statistics have been changing with time, and it gives insight into other issues.

The other weakness addressed is the fact that an ecological study like C-95 is susceptible to "cross level bias" as emphasized by Lubin (2). For example, a case-control study may match cases and controls by annual dollar income, but an ecological study like C-95 is limited to including average annual income for different counties, not for individuals who did or did not die from lung cancer. Perhaps very poor people are much more susceptible to radon-induced lung cancer than others, making the fraction of the population that is very poor an important confounding factor. This is not necessarily represented by average income, because the latter is influenced by the fraction of the population that is very rich. The solution to this dilemma in C-95 was to consider confounding by such other factors as percent of population below the poverty line and percent unemployment.

But suppose very poor people have compensating factors (e.g., better medical care in free clinics); maybe it is people with incomes in the \$15,000-\$25,000 range that are most susceptible. The obvious solution here is to consider confounding by the fraction of the population in that income range. One might concoct models in which the fraction of the population in any other income range (or group of ranges) is an important confounder. The solution is to treat that fraction as a potential confounding factor. To do this requires data on the fraction in each income range in each county.

Of course, annual income is used here only as an example. Similar problems may arise from percent of population in any particular age range, from educational attainment, from house characteristics, etc. These problems are addressed here by considering a

very large number of potential confounding factors not available in C-95.

UPDATED LUNG CANCER RATES

The lung cancer mortality rates in C-95 were for whites only and from the time period 1970–1979; these were the latest age-adjusted rates available at that time. However, age-adjusted rates have now become available for all races from 1979 to 1994 from CDC (3), and we begin here by considering the effect of using them in the analyses. The basic equation derived and used for fitting data in C-95 was

$$m/m_o = A + B r \tag{1}$$

where

$$m_{o} = [S a_{s} + (1 - S)a_{n}]$$
 (2)

and S is the fraction of the adult population that smoked cigarettes at the time their lung cancers were initiated and developed.

The determination of the constants a_n , a_s in Eq. (2) [cf. (4)] depends on the average values of m, r, and S at the relevant times, and hence must be changed to reflect changes in m when the time period is shifted. From 1970–1979 to 1979–1994, the US average m, in units of 10^{-5} /year, changed from 64.0 to 57.5 for males, and from 15.3 to 22.6 for females. This changes a_n from 8.7 to 7.8 for males, and from 3.47 to 5.13 for females, and it changes a_s from 104 to 93.5 for males and from 34.7 to 37.3 for females. With our correction for migration, the final expressions for m_o are [8.1 + 89 S] for males (vs. [9 + 99 S] in C-95) and [5.3 + 48 S] for females (vs. [3.7 + 32 S] in C-95).

In Eq. (1), m/m_o is the lung cancer rate corrected for smoking prevalence. In Figure 2, the left side shows the data for 1970–1979, reproduced from Figure 1b and d, and the right side shows the data for 1979–1994 presented in the same fashion. In accordance with Eq. (1), B is the slope of the best fit for a straight line through the data. The BEIR-IV model used in C-95 predicts B to be +7.3. In our analyses, the data from 1979–1994 mortality rates give $B = -7.7 \pm 0.51$ for males and $B = -8.2 \pm 0.67$ for females, close to the results from C-95, B = -7.3 and B = -8.3, respectively. The updated results are discrepant

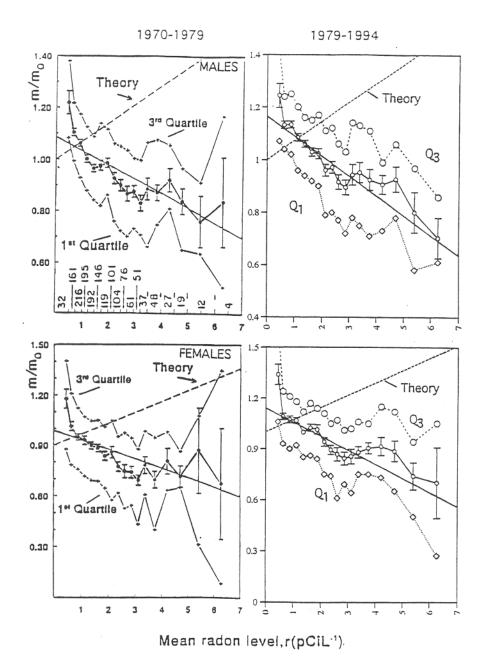


Figure 2. Comparison of results for mortality data from 1970–1979 and 1979–1994. The left side is from Figure 1b and d, lung cancer rates corrected for smoking prevalence using mortality data from 1970–1979, and the right side is a similarly treated analysis using mortality data from 1979–1994.

with the BEIR-IV prediction, B = +7.3, by 29 SD for males and by 23 SD for females. Further analyses will use the 1979–1994 lung cancer rates.

For some purposes, it is relevant to do similar analyses by states rather than by counties, as was done

by Cohen and Colditz (4). Because of differences in the correction for migration (moving to a different state is less common than moving to a different county), the expressions for m_o for states are changed to [8.0 + 88 S] for males and [5.2 + 47 S] for females

and the BEIR-IV prediction is B = +8.6. Fitting the data with Eq. (1) gives $B = -11.8 \pm 2.9$ for males, and $B = -13.7 \pm 2.5$ for females, discrepant with the BEIR-IV prediction by 7.0 and 8.9 SD, respectively.

The similarity in results for the two time periods may give the impression that lung cancer rates for the two time periods are nearly identical, but that is not the case. The coefficient of correlation between these rates is 0.73 for males and 0.53 for females. For the rankings of our 1601 counties by lung cancer rates it is 0.73 and 0.61 for males and females, respectively. The average age-adjusted lung cancer rates declined by 4.5% for males and increased by 69% for females between the earlier and the later period.

ADDED SOCIOECONOMIC VARIABLES

The analyses in C-95 involved 54 socioeconomic variables (SEV) from the 1980 census. Much more extensive data have recently become available in computer transferable form from the 1990 census. About 450 of these were judged to have some possible potential for confounding the lung cancer vs. radon relationship, and these plus 23 others to be used for normalizing were transferred into our data file. As examples of normalizing factors, the number of people age >24 years who are high school graduates is normalized to the population of age >24 years, the number of people of German ancestry is normalized to the number of people reporting an ancestry, the number of people working in each occupation is normalized to the number of employed people of age >16 years, etc. As in this last example, normalization factors are sometimes not exactly appropriate, but this was judged to be unimportant in comparing different counties.

The new SEV are listed in the Appendix along with an item number, which is their column number in our data file. The 54 SEV listed in C-95 were, of course, still retained. To check on the possibility that our SEV are too finely categorized, additional SEV (items 560–577) were generated by combining several adjacent variables on annual income, value of house, ages of the population, etc. As a brief description, our personal characteristic SEV encompass age profile (31 age intervals from 0–1 years to >85 years); annual income (10 intervals from <\$5000/year to

>\$150,000 /year); median and average income per capita, per family, and per household; percent below poverty level (persons, families, and households for age >65 years, with children <5 years, and with children 5-17 years); educational attainment of head of household (7 categories from <9th grade to graduate degrees). Our housing SEV include house values (20 intervals from <\$15,000 to >\$500,000), age of houses (8 intervals from <1 year to >50 years); years present occupants lived in house (6 intervals from <1 year to >30 years); housing units in structure [9 intervals from 1 to >50 (large apartment buildings)]; persons in household; age of head of household (7 intervals); number of bedrooms; 13 heating and plumbing characteristics; number of motor vehicles available; telephone availability; rent and rent as percent of income for rented houses; housing costs as percent of income for owner-occupied houses. Our ethnicity SEV include race (5 categories); ancestry (33 nationalities); languages spoken in home (17 categories); year of entry for foreign born (10 intervals); percent born in different state and different sections of US. Other categories of SEV include family type and presence and age of children, school enrollments, labor force characteristics, commuting methods and times, income type, marital status by sex and age, children ever born to women by age and by marital status, residence location 5 years previously, occupation (12 categories), industry of employment (17 categories), etc.

For a confounding factor to have an important effect on the lung cancer mortality rate (m) vs. radon (r) relationship, it must have a relatively strong correlation with m and/or r; we designate the coefficients of correlation with these Corr-m and Corrr. All SEV for which either |Corr-r| or |Corr-m| for males is greater than 0.316 [because percent correlation = $(Corr)^2$, this means correlation > 10% are listed in Table 1. Note that for every one of the 45 cases, Corr-m and Corr-r are of opposite sign, and only 4 of the 90 values are <0.20 (and these 4 are >0.17). For the 472 SEV under consideration, 81% of the |Corr-r| and 73% of the |Corr-m| are <0.20, so there is clearly a strong tendency for Corrml to be large when |Corr-r| is large, and vice versa, and in all cases they are of opposite sign. This behavior is explained by the strong correlation between m and r seen in Figure 1. In numerical terms (Corrm for r) = (Corr- r for m) = 0.40.

Table 1. Stratification on SEV With Large |Corr-rl or Large |Corr-ml

				B Males			B Female	ss
SEV No.	100 × Соп- <i>r</i>	100 × Coπ-m	Q _i	Q ₃	Q _s	Q _i	Q ₃	Q ₅
37	37	-37	-8.4	-8.4	-6.4	-7.0	-4.9	-7.1
82	43	-4 4	-8.8	-8.9	-5.3	-8.0	-6.4	-5.7
90	-34	39	-4.0	-4.4	-6.4	-7.0	-8.2	-4.1
93	20	-33	-7.9	-6.9	-7.1	-6.8	-5.0	-10.5
98	18	-34	-6.8	-5.7	-7.3	-5.7	-5.8	-7.2
111	32	- 36	-7.0	-3.4	-3.5	-7.8	-7.3	-6.4
117	44	-36	-16.6	-7.2	-2.7	-13.0	-7.3	-2.6
120	-20	44	-9.6	-6.5	-1.4	-9.8	-4.9	-1.8
123	27	-40	-3.9	-5.6	-5.6	-5 .1	- 6.9	-9.3
132	26	-4 1	-5.0	-6.2	-4.2	- 5.8	-9.3	-7.5
135	-24	32	-6.9	-4.8	-2.5	-8.6	-8.9	-1.8
154	37	-4 5	-5.5	-7.4	-2.7	- 6.5	-3.7	-2.6
160	38	-46	-5.6	-5.4	-6.6	-5.4	-2.2	-8.4
178	-24	32	-8.3	-7.0	-2.6	-11.4	-6.6	-5.7
180	39	-4 6	-3.8	-5.4	-7.2	-3.2	-2.2	-8.7
222	33	-24	-12.6	- 6.7	-7.3	-8.4	-6.3	- 9.3
227	32	-31	-13.2	-2.7	-5.0	-6.8	-5.1	-10.1
228	28	-44	-8.3	-3.1	-6.5	- 5.3	-5.4	-11.8
252	-17	36	-10.5	-8.9	-5.1	-12.0	- 9.0	-5.7
282	44	-41	-9.0	-7.7	-5.2	-8.2	-5.0	-5.9
326	18	-34	-6.8	-5.7	- 7.3	- 5.7	-5.8	-7.2
342	26	-34	-3.0	-6.2	-8.2	-6.5	- 7.3	-8.5
346	27	-35	-3.4	-5.2	-6.7	-4.9	-5.6	-8.6
377	32	-44	-2.9	-4.4	-7.4	+0.5	-5.5	-9.9
378	45	-4 8	-6.9	- 7.5	-5.1	-8.1	-4.4	-4.8
388	43	-44	- 7.6	-9.2	- 5.3	-7.4	-6.5	-5.7
425	–32	37	- 5.6	-3.2	-9.0	- 5.6	-2.2	-7.5
431	4 0	47	-4.7	-4.5	-8.1	-6.6	-2.8	-7.6
434	-22	41	- 6.7	-6.1	7.5	-8.5	-6.4	- 5.3
455	-23	36	-5.1	-7.6	-6.4	-7.5	-6.5	-8.1
459	41	-48	-8.7	-3.1	-5 .7	-7.2	-5.8	-8.7
462	– 39	48	-4.7	-3.5	-7.0	-7.9	-5.0	-7.4
463	-33	45	-6.5	-5 .6	-10.1	-8.6	-7.5	-6.6
471	-33	42	- 5.6	- 5.9	-2.4	-9.5	-7.8	-3.7
490	35	-34	-13.8	-7 .1	-5.3	-9.6	-8.2	-7.1
491	- 36	44	-6.0	-4.4	-4.8	-6.8	-4.9	-8.2
535	26	-35	-2.5	-4.5	-7.8	-3.9	-6.8	-11.3
537	36	-46	-1.7	-6.6	-7.6	-3.3	-8.2	-9.0
538	32	-35	-5.5	-6.9	-7.2	-7.0	-6.9	-6.9
540	-28	36	-8.1	-10.4	-3.7	-8.5	-8.0	-3.3
541	-32	40	-7.3	- 7.8	-2.7	- 7.9	-7.7	-4.3
543	-32	33	-4.8	-6.1	-3.6	-5.8	-6.5	- 5.6
549	43	-49	-3.8	-2.8	-6.2	-3.7	-2.7	-8.4
550	-32	36	-4.7	- 7.7	-3.2	_5.9	-6.3	-4.7

B values for first, third, and fifth quintiles of counties from stratification on designated SEV.

To test whether an SEV is an important confounder, we stratify the data into five "quintiles" of 320 counties each, based on that SEV. In each quintile, all values of the SEV are about the same, so its confound-

ing effect is greatly reduced. Analyzing the data in each quintile independently to determine the slope, B, then gives values of B largely free of confounding by that SEV.

Results of these analyses for the first, third, and fifth quintiles, Q_1 , Q_3 , Q_5 from stratification on each SEV are listed in Table 1. For Q_3 , all values of the SEV are about average and the spread is minimal. For Q_1 , the SEV has its smallest values and for Q_5 it has its largest values. Table 1 lists results for (45 SEV × 3 quintiles × 2 sexes = 270 analyses, and in 269 of these cases, B is negative and hence grossly discrepant with the prediction of LNT theory, B = +7.3). The one exception, B = +0.5, is still below the LNT prediction by 4 SD.

Cases where B is more positive than -3.0 for any Q₁, Q₃, or Q₅ in Table 1 are investigated further by a finer stratification into 10 deciles $(D_1, D_2, \ldots, D_{10})$ of 160 counties each. For these cases, B values for D_1 and D_2 , and for D_9 and D_{10} are listed in Table 2. For SEV No. 135, 154, 180, 471, 535, 537, and 541, the finer stratification into deciles does not confirm a strong monotonic relationship between B and the SEV. For SEV No. 178, there does seem to be a trend for males, but not for females. For the three remaining cases (117—percent of German ancestry, 120 percent of Irish ancestry, 377-non-farm self-employed) there does seem to be a definite trend. For all of these, the strong correlations with radon are explainable by the urban-rural effect; people of German ancestry tend to live in rural areas, those of Irish ancestry tend to live in urban areas, and urban people are less likely to be self-employed. But this does not explain the correlation between B values and the SEV;

this correlation is not found in other SEV that reflect strong urban-rural differences.

The SEV listed in Table 2 were also investigated by multiple regression (MR). The B value (coefficient of r) in the double regression of m/m_a on r and the SEV are listed in the columns labeled MR in Table 2. In all but one of the 22 cases, the discrepancy with the B value from LNT, B = +7.3, is less than the B value from single regression on r but in no case is the lessening of the discrepancy large enough to be important. In fact, even a 12 variable multiple regression of m/m on r plus all 11 of the SEV listed in Table 2 gives $B = -4.1 \pm 0.50$ for males and $B = -4.5 \pm 0.73$ for females, still discrepant with the LNT prediction by 23 and 16 SD, respectively. The problem of determining B by multiple regression including numerous variables was investigated in C-95, where it was found that most of the reduction of the discrepancy between these Bvalues and those predicted by LNT is due to methodological problems with multiple regression, and is therefore spurious.

The most important problem with multiple regression is that its relevance depends on a linear relationship. But, for the three suspicious cases, SEV No. 117, 120, and 377, a linear relationship seems quite plausible. This, plus the fact that B values listed in Table 2 for even the most extreme deciles are still much less than the LNT prediction (+7.3), leads one to conclude that these SEV cannot explain an appreciable part of our discrepancy.

Table 2. Finer Stratification and Multiple Regression Results for Selected SEV

•	B Males				B Females					
SEV No.	D,	D_2	D_{g}	D ₁₀	MR	$\overline{D_i}$	D_2	D_9	D ₁₀	MR
117	-16.1	-17.5	-2.6	-2.3	-6.6	-11.0	-15.3	-1.0	-2.7	-6.4
120	-9.2	-9 .1	-2.1	+1.3	-5.8	-10.0	-8.3	-2.0	-2.2	-6.4
135	-4.3	-8.6	-10.9	+3.6	-5.9	-6.5	-9.7	-6.7	+2.9	-7.9
154	-7.2	-3.8	-8.9	-2.6	-6.3	-5.3	-7.7	-8.4	-5.6	-6.0
178	-6.7	-9.3	-3.2	-1.6	-6.8	-9.5	-12.2	-8.1	-3.1	-7.7
180	- 5.3	-2.2	-10.8	-3.1	-6.1	-1.6	-3.3	-11.1	-3.7	-6.0
377	-5.4	-0.3	-5.6	-8.6	-5.4	0.0	+0.9	-12.8	-7.7	-7 .1
471	-1.8	-8.7	-4.6	+0.1	-5.5	-4.4	-13.8	-3.6	-3.8	-6.5
535	-3.8	-1.7	-6.7	-8.4	-6.3	-4.8	-3.3	-10.3	+1.8	-7.4
537	-8.4	+1.4	-10.8	-3.6	-5.9	-8.8	-0.4	-10.2	-6.1	-6.4
541	-6.0	-7.9	-1.7	-4.0	-6.6	-7. 1	-8.2	-3.9	-4.7	- 7.1

B values from analyses of first, second, ninth, and tenth deciles of counties stratified on designated SEV, and from double regression.

CONFOUNDING BY GEOGRAPHY

The one variable that is known to correlate strongly with radon levels is geography. It can be seen from Figure 1 that county average radon levels vary by an order of magnitude, and in C-95 it was found that B values obtained from analysis of separate geographic areas can vary substantially. When 1979–1994 lung cancer statistics are used, these variations were found to be somewhat enhanced.

Table 3 shows B values from the various regions and divisions of the US as defined by the Bureau of Census. We see that average B values are somewhat less negative than the -7.7 for males and -8.2 for females obtained for the nation as a whole, and the difference is increased if the geographic stratification is finer, into eight "divisions" rather than into only four "regions" (the Pacific division of the West region is not listed as it includes only WA and OR and is dominated by the former, for which results are given in Table 4).

The MINITAB statistical package we use identifies outlying data points as having large standardized residuals and extreme radon levels, which give them a strong influence on B values. The B values obtained when these are deleted are listed in the last two columns of Table 3. The one case that stands out

as important is a single county in New Hampshire (Carroll county) whose deletion changes B for females in New England from +9.4 to -0.9. In all other cases, deleting outliers has minimal effect, although always increasing the discrepancy with LNT.

In C-95, going to finer stratification on geography by considering individual states reversed the trend to less negative B with finer stratification, but that is not the case here with the 1979-1994 lung cancer rates. Data for individual states are listed in Table 4 for all states with data from more than 15 counties (for all cases listed there are 19 or more). Rather than ignore states with fewer counties, as was done in C-95, the current study combined contiguous states into groups and listed results for these groups at the end of Table 4. This allowed inclusion of all states except Delaware (3 counties) in rather natural groupings, and with no logical alternative groupings (except perhaps by rearranging the New England states). There were only 3 cases where outliers would be deleted by the prescription used in Table 3; the effects of these deletions are listed in Table 4 with asterisks.

It is interesting to ask whether the width of the distributions of B values in Table 4, as represented by their SDs (8.0 for males and 8.2 for females), can be explained simply as statistical fluctuations. To test this we take many random selections of N counties from our 1601 county data file, determine the B value

Table 3. B Values for Census Bureau Regions and Divisions

		Ma	Males		Females		Outliers Deleted	
<u></u>	Number Counties	В	SD	В	SD	B Males	B Females	
Regions								
Northeast	215	-2.8	1.0	-7.5	1.7	-3.4	-7.5	
North Central	612	-5.0	0.8	-5.4	1.0	-5.0	-5.7	
South	566	-3.9	1.2	-6.4	1.5	-5.1	-7.4	
West	204	-8.9	1.4	-10.4	2.3	-9.6	-10.4	
Average		-5.2		-7.4		-5.8	-7.8	
Divisions								
New England	65	-0.5	4.2	+9.4	5.9	-0.5	-0.9	
Mid-Atlantic	150	-3.3	1.1	- 9.6	1.9	-4 .0	- 9.6	
East North Central	308	+1.8	1.2	+1.3	1.6	+1.8	+1.3	
West North Central	304	-5.7	1.1	-6.8	1.4	-5.7	-6.8	
South Atlantic	273	-6.9	1.9	-7.1	2.4	-7.7	-7.1	
East South Central	135	+3.2	1.5	-0.9	2.9	+2.3	-0.9	
West South Central	158	-15.5	2.7	-17.4	2.8	-12.9	-17.4	
Mountain	167	-5 .9	1.6	- 5.5	2.6	-5.9	-5.5	
Average		-4.1		-4.4		-4.1	-5.9	

666

Table 4. B Values for Individual States

		М	ales	Fer	nales
State	Number of Counties	В	SD	В	SD
AL	38	-0.8	3.5	+1.0	5.3
AR	36	-10.9	4.2	-8.5	5.9
CO	41	-5.8	3.1	-1.7	3.6
GA	52	-1.8	5.0	-22.2	6.0
ID	40	-5.3	3.2	-8.7	5.7
IL	54	-4.1	3.1	-3.1	2.8
IN	58	-2.8	2.7	-1.4	4.3
IA	98	-1.9	1.7	-0.7	2.7
KS	21	-6.9	5.2	-7.0	5.0
KY	32	+0.8	2.6	-7.3	7.9
LA	21	-35.2	20.8	-30.4	32.3
MD	24	-13.6	5.9	-19.4	6.6
MI	53	+2.2	2.3	+2.4	3.0
MN	64	-4.6	1.4	-10.2	2.7
MS	19	+1.2	10.8	-1.6	16.2
MO	31	+1.6	8.5	+5.6	9.7
NE	43	+5.5	3.3	+5.7	4.9
		+8.5*			
NJ	21	-2.3	3.9	+3.3	5.8
NM	30	-6.3	3.8	-2.8	5.3
NY	62	+1.7	3.0	+3.5	4.6
NC	54	-5.7	3.2	-4.3	3.1
ND	38	+0.7	3.5	-0.3	5.0
OH	88	-0.2	2.0	-1.0	3.6
OK	43	-9.1	8.4	-3.8	6.8
PA	67	-1.4	1.3	-4 .7	2.5
SC	36	-18.8	6.5	-1.6	12.2
TN	46	+1.7	3.0	-0.2	3.8
		-2.2*			M. 41.
TX	58	-12.7	3.3	-16.9	4.0
VA	66	-6.2	4.0	-7.1	5.1
WA	29	+5.0	3.6	+6.0	8.6
WV	37	+5.4	4.6	+1.4	6.1
WI	55	- 7.3	4.4	-4.5	6.2
WY	21	-7. 1	6.2	+0.2	7.5
CT+MA+RI	25	-8.3	10.2	+1.6	12.8
ME+NH+VT	40	-1.0	4.9	+9.4	7.4
				-3.3*	7.7*
NV+OR+UT	32	-20.0	4.7	-10.4	10.0
MT+SD	20	-12.6	4.1	-8.5	8.5
Average		-5.0		-4 .0	
T-crago		-5.0*	1.3		1.3
				-4.3*	
SD of distribution		8.0		8.2	

for each selection, and determine the SD of the distribution of B values thus determined. For example, for N = 30, we analyzed 60 different random selections of 30 counties; the distribution of the 60 derived B values had SD of 4.3 for males and 5.6 for

females. Because the number of counties in the 37 states listed in Table 4 averaged 43 and three fourths of these numbers were more than 30, we would expect the SD of the B values in Table 4 to be smaller than 4.3 for males and 5.6 for females if statistics

was the only consideration. The fact that this conflicts with observation means that other factors are involved. By doing calculations of the type described above for different N values, we found that the SD of about 8 found for the B values in Table 4 was what would be expected if the data for each state included only about 12 counties randomly selected from our file.

This can be understood from the fact that radon levels in the counties of a given state are not independent of one another. Because radon levels are determined by geology, and neighboring counties frequently have similar geology, the effective number of independent areas in a given state is much smaller than the number of counties. The above results suggest that a state with 43 counties typically contains about 12 truly independent areas that serve as independent data points.

This implies that the SD for all B values derived in this article should be nearly twice as large as the SD derived from our statistical treatment. For example, the B values for our entire data set, given as -7.7 ± 0.51 for males and -8.7 ± 0.67 for females, should be viewed more properly as -7.7 ± 1.0 and -8.7 ± 1.3 , respectively. This, of course, does little to resolve our discrepancy with the LNT prediction: +7.3.

Another aspect of Table 4 that begs for an explanation is that the average values of B (-5.0 \pm 1.3 for males and -4.0 \pm 1.3 for females) are quite discrepant with the values for our entire data file (-7.7 and -8.2, respectively). Of course, all SD given for B values in this article ignore uncertainties in the data points for individual counties, so these SD are somewhat understated. But none of our sets of random selections of counties had average B values differing nearly as much from the B values for our entire 1601 county data set.

It thus seems that, for some reason we cannot explain, B values for more restricted areas tend to be less negative than for the nation as a whole. However, even these less negative B values are still grossly discrepant with the LNT prediction: B = +7.3.

CONCLUSION

In this article we have introduced a great deal of new data, lung cancer statistics for all races for 1979– 1994 replacing those for whites only between 1970 and 1979, and about 450 new potential confounding factors in addition to the 60+ used in C-95. The results are essentially the same as in C-95, indicating failure of the linear-no threshold theory in grossly exaggerating the risk of low-level exposure to radon.

APPENDIX: NEW SOCIOECONOMIC VARIABLES (SEV) FROM 1990 CENSUS

1288	
Te	
<u>Item</u> 79	Description Total population
80	Percent urban
81	Percent rural
82	
04	Percent living on farms
Schoo	ol enrollment
83	Persons in schools
84	Percent of these in preprimary
85	Percent of these in elementary or high school
86	Percent of these in private schools
87	Percent of these in college
Educa	ational attainment (percent of age >25)
89	<9th grade
90	9th-12th grade, no diploma
91	High school graduates
92	Some college
93	Associates degree
94	Bachelors degree
95	Graduate or professional degree
96	High school graduates or higher
97	Bachelors degree or higher
71	Dacherors degree of mights
98	Children ever born/1000 woman age 35-44
99	Percent of population born in US
100	Percent born in state of residence
101	Percent born outside US
103	Percent who speak a language other than Englis
104	Percent who do not speak English well
	stry (1st or 2nd) (percent of those reporting)
106	Arab
107	Austrian
108	Belgian
109	Canadian
110	Czech
111	Danish
112	Dutch
113	English
	Finnish
115	French

116

117

French Canadian

German

Greek

119	Hungarian	174	Educational services
120	Irish	175	Other professional services
121	Italian	176	Public administration
122	Lithuanian		
		Class	of worker (percent of those employed)
123	Norwegian	178	Private wage and salary
124	Polish	179	Government
125	Portuguese	180	Self-employed
126	Rumanian	181	Unpaid family workers
127	Russian	101	Onpaid failing workers
128	Scotch-Irish	Hous	ehold income (percent in each range)
129	Scottish	183	< \$5000
130	Slovak	184	\$5000-\$9999
131	Sub-Sahara African	185	•
132	Swedish		\$10,000-\$14,999
		186	\$15,000-\$24,999
133	Swiss	187	\$25,000-\$34,999
134	Ukrainian	188	\$35,000–\$49,999
135	American	189	\$50,000–\$74,999
136	Welsh	190	\$75,000-\$99,999
137	West Indian	191	\$100,000-\$149,999
138	Yugoslavian	192	>\$150,000
139	Other Ancestries		
		Annu	al income in dollars
Labo	r force	193	Median household
140	Percent in labor force	194	Median family (Fam)
141	Percent of males in labor force	195	Median family (Fm)
142	Percent of males unemployed	196	Per capita average
.143	Percent of females in labor force	197	Mean wage and salary
144	Percent of females unemployed	198	
1	1 disont of formula disorration and		Mean non-farm self-employment
Occu	pation	199	Mean farm self-employment
146	Executive, administrative, managerial	200	Mean social security
147	Professional specialty	201	Mean public assistance
148	Technicians	202	Mean retirement
149	Sales	_	
150	Administrative support		ent below poverty level
151	Private household occupations	203	All persons
		204	Persons age >17
152	Protective services	205	Persons age >64
153	Service occupations (not 151,152)	206	With related children age <5
154	Farming, forestry, fishing	207	With related children age 5-17
155	Precision production, craft, repair	208	All families
156	Machine operators. assemblers, inspectors	209	With related children age <18
157	Transportation	210	With related children age <5
158	Handlers, helpers, cleaners, laborers	211	Female householder families
		212	With related children age <18
	stry (percent employed in)		
160	Agriculture	213	With related children age <5
161	Mining	Darce	ent of housing units built in time periods
162	Construction		1989–1990
163	Manufacturing, nondurable	215	
164	Manufacturing, durable	216	1985–1988
165	Transportation	217	1980–1984
	Communication, other utilities	218	1970–1979
166		219	1960–1969
167	Wholesale trade	220	1950–1959
168	Retail trade	221	1940–1949
169	Finance, insurance, real estate	222	Before 1939
170	Business services, repair services		
171	Personal services		ent with various numbers of bedrooms
172	Entertainment, recreation	223	No bedroom
173	Health services	224	One

225	Two	278	Percent of housing units occupied
226	Three	279	Percent of housing units vacant
227	Four	280	
228	Five or more	281	Percent urban outside urban area
		282	Percent rural—farm
	se characteristics (percent in category)	283	Percent rural—non-farm
229	Lacking complete plumbing facilities		
230	Lacking complete kitchen facilities	Unit	s in structure (percent in category)
231	Part of condominium	284	1, detached
232	Water from public system	285	1, attached
233	Water from individual drilled well	286	2
234	Water from individual dug well	287	3 or 4
235	Public sewer	288	5–9
236	Septic tank	289	10–19
237	Heated by utility gas	290	20-49
238	Heated by bottled gas, tank, or LP gas	291	50 or more
239	Heated by electricity	292	Mobile home or trailer
240	Heated by oil		$oldsymbol{A}$
241	Heated by coal or coke		e of owner occupied units (percent in range)
242	No heating fuel	293	<\$15,000
• •		294	\$15,000-\$19,999
	householder moved into house	295	\$20,000-\$24,999
243	1989–90	296	\$25,000-\$29,999
244	1985–88	297	\$30,000-\$34,999
	1980–84	298	\$35,000-\$39,999
	1970–79	299	\$40,000-\$44,999
247	1960–69	300	\$45,000-\$49,999
248	Before 1960	301	\$50,000-\$59,999
		302	\$60,000-\$74,999
249	No telephone in unit	303	\$75,000-\$99,999
251	No vehicle available	304	\$100,000-\$124,999
252	One vehicle available	305	\$125,000-\$149,999
253	Two vehicles available	306	
254	Three or more vehicles available		\$150,000-\$174,999
255	Median mortgage (dollars)	307	\$175,000-\$199,999 \$200,000-\$240,000
256	Net median mortgage (dollars)	308	\$200,000-\$249,999
		309	\$250,000-\$299,999
	er costs as percent of household income	310	\$300,000–\$399,999
258	<20%	311	\$400,000-\$499,999
259	20%–24%	312	\$500,000 or more
260	25%–29%	313	Median value
261	30%-34%	314	Median value with mortgage
262	35% or more	315	Median value not mortgaged
D		Danie	lence five years earlier (percent in category)
	(percent of rented units in range)		5 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -
264	<\$200	317	Same house
265	\$200-\$299	318	Different house in US
266	\$300–\$499	319	Different house in same state
267	\$500-\$749	320	
268	\$750–\$999	321	House in different county, same state
269	\$1000 or more	322	House in different state
270	Median rent	323	Lived abroad
Dent .	as percent of household income	Chile	lren ever born per 1000 women
	<20%	324	Women age 15–24 years
272			
273	20%–24%	325	Women age 25–34 years
274	25%–29%	326	Women age 35-44 years
275	30%–34%	200	Donor of familia ham TIG 1000 1000
276	35% or more	328	Percent of foreign born entered US 1980–1990

Percent of population speaking other than English Percent of speaking English "very well" 390 Percent of persons mural, non-farm 391 Percent speaking Spanish 390 Percent of persons mural, non-farm 393 Percent speaking Spanish 390 Percent of persons mural, non-farm 393 Percent of persons mural, non-farm 394 394 394 395 39	22	D. Description and the state of		
Percent speaking Spanish 291 Percent of persons female		p - p		possible taken, mon tallin
Percent speaking Spanish, not English "very well" Percent speaking Asian language 334 Percent speaking Asian, not English "very well" 392 <1 year 393 1-2 years 394 <1 year 395 5 years 396 20 years 396 6 years 396 6 years 396 6 years 397 7-9 years 396 6 years 397 7-9 years 398 10-11 years 399 12-13 years 399		1 3 3		
Percent speaking Asian language 332 Percent speaking Asian, not English "very well" 332 2 year 333 Civilian labor force employed 394 3-4 years 338 Percent of civilian labor force unemployed 395 5 years 396 6 years 397 7-9 years 398 Percent of civilian labor force unemployed 396 6 years 397 7-9 years 398 10-11 years 399 12-13 years 342 Percent diver alone 400 14 years 344 Percent using public transportation 402 16 years 403 17 years 404 18 years 404 19 years 405		p - F	391	Percent of persons female
335 Percent speaking Asian, not English "very well" 392 1 year 336 Civilian labor force 394 3.4 years 393 3.4 years 394 3.4 years 395 5 years 396 2.5 years 396 2.5 years 396 2.5 years 397 7.7 years 396 2.5 years 397 7.7 years 398 2.1 year 396 2.1 years 398 2.1 years 399 394		of among a panners, mor anguism you, won	Dor	cent of persons in occurrence
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337 Percent of civilian labor force employed 394 3-4 years 395 29 years 396 29 years 397 29 years 398 39 20 20 years 398 390 20 20 years 398 390 20 396 397 20 years 398 398 398 398 399		1 3 , 3 ,		3
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Percent of civilian labor force unemployed 396 6 years 397 7-9 years 398 10-11 years 399 12-13 years 399 316 316 years 399 316 316 years 399 316 316 years 399 317 years 399 319	337	Percent of civilian labor force employed		
Percent of civilian labor force unemployed 397 7-9 years 398 10-11 years 398 10-11 years 398 10-11 years 399 12-13 years 399 15-19 years 349 Percent using public transportation 402 16 years 349 Percent walk or work at home 401 18 years 349 Percent of millownest by government 406 20 years 349 Percent employment by local government 407 21 years 319 Percent employment by local government 408 22-24 years 329 Percent employment by federal government 409 25-29 years 325 Percent employment by federal government 409 25-29 years 325 25-200 3999 410 410 30-34 years 310 30-34 years 310 30-34 years 315 35000-39999 412 40-44 years 325 35000-39999 413 45-49 years 415 40-44 years 325 325 3000-349,999 415 55-59 years 416 60-61 years 416 60-61 years 416 60-61 years 417 62-64 years 418 65-69 years 418 65-69 years 419 70-74 years 419	338	Percent of civilian labor force unemployed		
Second	339			3
Commuting to work 399 12-13 years	340	Percent of labor force in armed forces	397	
342 Percent dire alone 400 14 years	-			
Percent in carpools			399	12-13 years
344 Percent using public transportation 402 16 years			400	14 years
10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10		-	401	15 years
Add Percent walk or work at home		S F	402	16 years
346 Percent walk or work at home 347 Mean travel time (minutes) 349 Percent of employment by government 350 Percent employment by state government 351 Percent employment by state government 352 Percent employment by state government 353 Percent employment by state government 354 < ≤5000 Percent of family households with income of 354 < ≤5000 355	345		403	17 years
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Second Security Second Seco			419	70-74 years
A21 80-84 years			420	75-79 years
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			441	
	388	Percent of persons rural, farm	442	
				-

Perce	ent of persons in group quarters	492	American Indian or Aleut
443	Correctional institutions	493	Asian or Pacific Islander
444	Nursing homes	494	Other race
445	Mental hospitals	495	Hispanic origin, white
446	Juvenile institutions	496	Hispanic origin, black
447	Other institutions	497	Hispanic origin, American Indian
448	College dormitories	498	Hispanic origin, Asian or Pacific Islander
449	Military quarters	499	Hispanic origin, other race
450	Shelters for homeless	777	mopanie origin, omer race
451	Visible in street locations	Perce	ent of foreign-born persons entered US in
451	VISIBLE III Street locations	500	1987–1990
Perce	ent of persons born in	501	1985–1986
452	State of residence	502	1982-1984
453	Other state in Northeast	503	1980-1981
454	Other state in Midwest	504	1975-1979
455	Other state in South	505	1970-1974
456	Other state in West	506	1965-1969
		507	1960-1964
	ent of families with	508	1950-1959
458	Married couple, children >17 years	509	Before 1950
459	Married couple, no children >17 years		
460	Male householder, no wife, children >17 years	Lang	uage spoken in home
461	Male householder, no wife, no children >17 years	510	Only English
462	Female householder, no husband, children >17 years	511	German
463	Female householder, no husband, no children >17 years	512	Yiddish
464	No workers	513	Other West Germanic
465	l worker	514	Scandinavian
466	2 workers	515	Greek
467	3 or more workers	516	Italian
Doros	ent of households with	517	French
469	ent of households with	518	Spanish
470	1 person 2 persons	519	Polish
471	•	520	Russian
	3 persons	521	Chinese
472 473	4 persons	522	Hungarian
474	5 persons	523	Japanese
	6 persons	524	Korean
475	7 persons or more	525	North American Indian
Perce	ent of family households with householder age	526	Vietnamese
476	15-24 years	Τ	
477	25-34 years		sportation to work
478	35-44 years		Drive alone
479	45-54 years	528	Carpool
480	55-64 years	529	Bus or trolley bus
481	65-74 years	530	Street car or trolley car
482	75 years and over	531	Subway or elevated
		532	Railroad
	ent of nonfamily households with householder age	533	Motorcycle
483	15-24 years	534	Bicycle
	25–34 years	535	Walk
485	35–44 years	536	Other
486	45-54 years	Trav	el time to work (minutes)
	55-64 years	537	Less than 5
488	65-74 years	538	5–9
489	75 years and over	539	10–14
Dana	ant of percond	540	15–19
	ent of persons White	541	20–24
490	White		
491	Black	542	25–29

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543 30-34

544 35-39

545 40-44

546 45-59

547 60-89

548 90 or more

549 Work at home

550 Total

COMBINED CATEGORIES

560 Household income <\$25,000

561 Household income \$25,000-\$75,000

562 Household income >\$75,000

563 Housing built after 1979

564 Housing built 1950-1979

565 Housing built before 1950

566 10 or more units in structure

Owner-occupied housing unit value

567 <\$40,000

568 \$40,000-\$100,000

569 \$100,000-\$250,000

570 >\$250,000

Percent of population in age range

571 0-17 years

572 18-34 years

573 35-64 years

574 65 years or more

Percent of foreign born entered US

575 Since 1979

576 1965-1979

577 Before 1965

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- Lubin, J. H. On the discrepancy between ecologic studies in individuals of lung cancer and residential radon and Cohen's ecologic regression. Health Phys. 75:4-10; 1998.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Wonder searches and queries; 1997. http://wonder.cdc.gov/rchtml/ Convert/data/AdHoc.html
- Cohen, B. L.; Colditz, G. A. Test of the linear-no threshold theory of radiation carcinogenesis. Environ. Res. 64:65– 89; 1994.