

Neural Autoantibodies and Neurophysiologic Abnormalities in Patients Exposed to Molds in Water-Damaged Buildings

ANDREW W. CAMPBELL

Medical Center for Immune and Toxic Disorders
Spring, Texas

JACK D. THRASHER

Sam-1 Trust

Alto, New Mexico

ROBERTA A. MADISON

Department of Health Sciences
California State University
Northridge, California

ARISTO VOJDANI

Immunosciences Lab., Inc.
Beverly Hills, California

MICHAEL R. GRAY

Progressive Healthcare Group

Benson, Arizona

AL JOHNSON

Integrative Neurology
Richardson, Texas

ABSTRACT. Adverse health effects of fungal bioaerosols on occupants of water-damaged homes and other buildings have been reported. Recently, it has been suggested that mold exposure causes neurological injury. The authors investigated neurological antibodies and neurophysiological abnormalities in patients exposed to molds at home who developed symptoms of peripheral neuropathy (i.e., numbness, tingling, tremors, and muscle weakness in the extremities). Serum samples were collected and analyzed with the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) technique for antibodies to myelin basic protein, myelin-associated glycoprotein, ganglioside GM₁, sulfatide, myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, α -B-crystallin, chondroitin sulfate, tubulin, and neurofilament. Antibodies to molds and mycotoxins were also determined with ELISA, as reported previously. Neurophysiologic evaluations for latency, amplitude, and velocity were performed on 4 motor nerves (median, ulnar, peroneal, and tibial), and for latency and amplitude on 3 sensory nerves (median, ulnar, and sural). Patients with documented, measured exposure to molds had elevated titers of antibodies (immunoglobulin [Ig]A, IgM, and IgG) to neural-specific antigens. Nerve conduction studies revealed 4 patient groupings: (1) mixed sensory-motor polyneuropathy ($n = 55$, abnormal), (2) motor neuropathy ($n = 17$, abnormal), (3) sensory neuropathy ($n = 27$, abnormal), and (4) those with symptoms but no neurophysiological abnormalities ($n = 20$, normal controls). All groups showed significantly increased autoantibody titers for all isotypes (IgA, IgM, and IgG) of antibodies to neural antigens when compared with 500 healthy controls. Groups 1 through 3 also exhibited abnormal neurophysiologic findings. The authors concluded that exposure to molds in water-damaged buildings increased the risk for development of neural autoantibodies, peripheral neuropathy, and neurophysiologic abnormalities in exposed individuals.

<Key words: mold exposure, mycotoxins, neural antibodies, neuropathy, neurophysiology>

WATER INTRUSION into houses and office buildings leads to the growth of molds and bacteria, which are known to produce toxic byproducts that include endotoxins (lipopolysaccharides), β -D-glucans, and mycotoxins (e.g., trichothecenes, ochratoxins, and aflatoxins, tremorgens), as well as volatile organic compounds.¹⁻⁸ These compounds have been found in water-damaged buildings and homes, and in artificially infested building materials.⁷⁻¹¹ Indoor air can be contaminated with mold spores and hyphae fragments.¹² In addition, my-

cotoxins have been identified in ventilation duct particulate matter or dust, and in the air of buildings in which occupants and pets have experienced adverse health effects related to mold exposure.¹³⁻²³

Molds and mycotoxins affect the respiratory tract, kidneys, liver, and skin, as well as the immune and nervous systems.²⁴⁻⁴⁵ Neurotoxic mycotoxins include ergot alkaloids, trichothecenes, citreoviridin, patulin, fumonisins, and tremorgens.⁴⁶⁻⁵⁴ Tremorgens affect the brainstem⁴⁶ and stellate ganglion, and the basket and Pur-

kinje cells of the cerebellum.⁴⁷ Mycotoxins affect neuroreceptor sites (e.g., gamma-aminobutyric acid [GABA] receptor site⁴⁸ and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor⁴⁹), inhibit acetylcholinesterase,⁵⁰ release excitatory neurotransmitters (e.g., glutamate, aspartate, GABA, and serotonin),^{51,52} and block biosynthesis of complex sphingolipids through inhibition of ceramide synthase.^{53,54} They are also mitochondrial toxins and apoptotic agents.^{43,44,53}

The symptoms and health problems associated with mold-infested, water-damaged buildings involve multiple organs, including the upper and lower respiratory tracts, gastrointestinal tract, circulatory system, and the central nervous system (CNS) and peripheral nervous system (PNS).^{2,5,24-37} Recent studies have shown that mold exposure has adverse effects on the nervous system. Some mycotoxins have been shown to be tremorigenic and are suspected as causative agents in wood-trimmer's disease²⁰ and tremorigenic encephalopathy;²¹ mycotoxins present in household environments have been found to affect dogs.^{22,23}

Two patterns of neurobehavioral impairment attributable to mold exposure have been described. Kilburn²⁶ reported on 10 individuals who had impaired balance, reaction time, color discrimination, visual fields, cognition, verbal recall, and trail making. A different group of 10 subjects exhibited impairments in all but measures of color discrimination and visual fields. Abnormalities in electroencephalograph (EEG) theta and delta activity, visual evoked potentials, and brainstem evoked potentials have been reported in children exposed to molds.²⁷ The EEG changes in the children were specific to the frontotemporal area of the brain, suggesting a metabolic encephalopathy. Six individuals had abnormal nerve conduction. In addition, abnormal brainstem auditory evoked potentials have been described in 4 children with suspected mycotic neuromas who were exposed to mixed molds, including *Stachybotrys chartarum* and *Aspergillus species*.⁵⁷ Moreover, both neurobehavioral^{31,57} and correlated quantitative EEG³¹ changes indicative of right frontal lobe involvement have been reported in patients with chronic exposure to mold in water-damaged buildings. Mold exposure has also been implicated in optic neuritis⁵⁷ and multifocal choroiditis.⁵⁸ Finally, demyelination of the CNS has been reported following exposure to ibotenic acid,⁵⁹ abuse of "magic mushrooms" (*Psilocybe*),⁶⁰ and gliotoxin.⁶¹ Because stachylysin has been found in human serum following exposure to *S. chartarum*,⁶² and mycotoxins are present in indoor air and bioaerosols,¹³⁻¹⁹ it is imperative that health complaints of occupants exposed to molds in water-damaged buildings be taken seriously and be investigated with appropriate diagnostic testing.

This communication describes 119 mold-exposed patients who had multiorgan symptoms and peripheral neuropathy. Complaints included severe fatigue, de-

creased muscle strength, sleep disturbances, numbness and tingling of extremities (with and without tremors of the fingers and hands), and severe headache. Patients had abnormal neurological examinations. Ninety-nine of these individuals had abnormal nerve conduction velocities (NCVs) in association with autoantibodies against 9 neural antigens, whereas 20 had normal test results. We present data on motor neuropathy, sensory neuropathy, and mixed sensory-motor polyneuropathy, as well as increased antibodies to neural antigens.

Materials and Method

Patients. The study population consisted of 119 patients (79 females and 40 males; mean age \pm standard deviation [SD] = 41.3 \pm 12.9 yr). The patients had health complaints and proven environmental exposure to molds in their homes and/or workplaces. Mold exposure was documented by Aerotech Laboratories (Phoenix, Arizona). All patients were interviewed one-on-one by the principal author (AWC) regarding exposure history, as well as health problems and symptoms for each organ system (e.g., CNS, PNS, respiratory, skin, musculoskeletal). Mold-specific serum antibody tests for *S. chartarum*, *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, *Cladosporium*, *Alternaria*, and *Chaetomium*, performed on each patient by Immunosciences Lab., Inc. (Beverly Hills, California), verified exposure to molds. Some of these data have been reported previously.⁶³⁻⁶⁵

We studied patients who had symptoms of peripheral neuropathy (e.g., tingling, tremors, loss of sensation in extremities). Blood was drawn for serology testing for neural antigens. NCV tests were performed at or near the time of initial presentation as follows: all 119 patients were tested at 10.8 \pm 41 days; patients with abnormal NCVs ($n = 99$) were tested at 11.5 \pm 44 days; and patients with normal NCVs ($n = 20$, controls) were tested at 7.5 \pm 18 days.

Blood samples. Peripheral venous blood was collected and shipped at ambient temperature to Immunosciences Lab., Inc. (Beverly Hills, California). Autoantibodies (immunoglobulin IgG, IgM, and IgA) against 9 neural antigens were assessed for each patient.

Neural antigens. Myelin basic protein (MBP), myelin-associated glycoprotein (MAG), ganglioside (GM₁), chondroitin sulfate (CONSO₄), α -B-crystallin (crystallin), and tubulin were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, Missouri). Neurofilament antigen (NAF) was purchased from Boehringer Mannheim Roche (Indianapolis, Indiana). MBP peptides 87-206 and myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein (MOG) peptides 21-4-, 61-80 were synthesized by Research Genetics (Huntsville, Alabama).

Controls for neural antigens. The controls for determination of the mean \pm SD and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the neural antigens consisted of 500

healthy adult blood donor volunteers. The controls were of similar age and sex distribution as the 119 patients.

ELISA testing. We used enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) to test for antibodies against 9 different neural-specific antigens, as reported previously.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ Briefly, antigens were dissolved in methanol at a concentration of 1.0 mg/ml and then diluted 1:100 in 0.1 M carbonate-bicarbonate buffer (pH 9.5). Then, 50 μ l of the mixture was added to each well of a polystyrene flat-bottom ELISA plate. Plates were incubated overnight at 4 °C and then washed 3 times with 20 mM Tris-buffered saline (TBS) containing 0.05% Tween 20 (pH 7.4). The nonspecific binding of immunoglobulins was prevented by adding a mixture of 1.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 1.5% gelatin in TBS and then incubating for 2 hr at room temperature, followed by incubation overnight at 4 °C. Plates were washed as described above, and serum samples diluted 1:100 in 1% BSA-TBS were added to duplicate wells and incubated for 2 hr at room temperature. Sera from patients with multiple sclerosis (MS), polyneuropathies, and other neurological disorders with known high titers of IgG, IgM, and IgA against different neurological antigens were used to rule out nonspecific antibody activities of inter-assay and intra-assay variability. Plates were washed, and peroxidase-conjugated goat antihuman IgG, IgM, or IgA antiserum (KPI [Gaithersburg, Maryland]), diluted 1:400 in 1% BSA-TBS, was added to each well. The plates were incubated for an additional 2 hr at room temperature. After washing 5 times with TBS-Tween buffer, the enzyme reaction was started by the addition of 100 μ l of *o*-phenylenediamine in citrate-phosphate buffer containing hydrogen peroxide diluted to 1:10,000 (pH 5.0). After 45 min, the reaction was stopped with 50 μ l of 2N sulfuric acid. The optical density was read at 492 nm with a microtiter reader (Dynex Laboratories [Chantilly, Virginia]). Several control wells containing all reagents except human serum were used to detect nonspecific binding.

We calculated coefficients of intra-assay variation by running 5 samples 8 times in 1 assay. Coefficients of inter-assay variation were determined by measuring the same samples in 6 consecutive assays. This replicate testing established the validity of the ELISAs, determined the appropriate dilutions with minimal background, and detected IgG, IgM, and IgA against different antigens. Sera from 500 asymptomatic blood donors in southern California were used to calculate expected ranges at 95% CI.

Neurophysiological tests. Bilateral peripheral nerve studies involving nerve conduction and central response (F wave) were performed on the 119 patients in accordance with accepted techniques of the American Society of Electroneurodiagnostic Technologists (Kansas City, Missouri) and the American Neurological Associa-

tion (Minneapolis, Minnesota).⁶⁹⁻⁷¹ The testing was performed under the direct supervision of, and interpreted by, a board-certified neurologist. Onset latency (ms), amplitude (μ V), and velocity (m/sec) were recorded for 4 motor nerves (median, ulnar, peroneal, and tibial). The peak latency (ms) and amplitude (μ V) were recorded for 3 sensory nerves (median, ulnar, and sural). F wave and H reflex were recorded for the median, ulnar, peroneal, and tibial nerves. The studies were conducted with a TECA Synergy Multimedia Electromyograph with multisync color SVGA monitor and Delux stimulator probe (TECASynergy, Synergy Version 8.2 [Oxford Instruments {Surry, U.K.}]). The motor axons of peripheral nerves that innervate somatic muscle were evaluated by recording the response following electrical stimulation.

Statistical analysis. We performed critical 2-tailed *t* tests on neural autoantibodies. Odds ratios (ORs) were calculated for the data to determine the percentage of individuals with antibody titers that exceeded the maximum expected laboratory range (95% CI) for each neural autoantibody. For this calculation, data for patients with abnormal and normal NCVs were combined.

Results

Neural autoantibodies. The mean \pm SD of autoantibodies for each isotype (IgA, IgM, and IgG) against each neural antigen for patients with abnormal NCVs ($n = 99$), normal NCVs ($n = 20$), and asymptomatic blood donor controls ($n = 500$) are given in Table 1. Rather than repeating the data for each antineural antigen isotype, the salient features will be outlined briefly. In general, the highest isotype titers detected were MBP, MAG, tubulin, and NAF. These were followed by the other 5 neural antigens: GM₁, sulfatide, MOG, crystallin, and CONSO₄.

We performed critical 2-tailed *t* tests for each isotype titer against neural antigens, comparing abnormal vs. normal patients, abnormal patients vs. controls, and normal patients vs. controls for each isotype (statistical data not shown). With respect to IgG titers, the only significant difference between abnormal and normal patients was NAF ($p < 0.01$). IgG titers for all isotypes for abnormal and normal patients differed significantly from controls ($p < 0.001$). IgM titers for neural antigens were significantly different between abnormal and normal patients for glutamate receptor ($p < 0.01$), tubulin ($p < 0.01$), NAF ($p < 0.01$), and CONSO₄ ($p < 0.05$). IgM titers against each neural antigen for abnormal patients vs. controls ($p < 0.001$) and for normal patients vs. controls ($p < 0.001$) were significantly different. The only significant difference between patients with abnormal vs. normal IgA titers was NAF ($p < 0.05$). Comparison of abnormal and normal patients vs. controls revealed IgA titers for each neural antigen which were

significantly different ($p < 0.01$), except for normal crystallin titers ($p < 0.05$).

The percentages of individuals with autoantibodies for each isotype that exceeded the laboratory expected range at 95% CI against the neural antigens are presented in Table 2. IgG titers for abnormal patients exceeded the 95% CI for sulfatide (17.2%), MOG (10.1%), crystallin (10.1%), glutamate receptor (11.1%), tubulin (57.6%), CONSO₄ (27.3%), and NAF (6.1%); MBP (4%), MAG (4%), and GM₁ (0%) did not exceed their expected ranges. Similar observations for normal patients were made for sulfatide (20%), MOG (20%), crystallin (20%), tubulin (30%), and CONSO₄ (20%), except for MBP (0%), GM₁ (0%), glutamate receptor (0%), and NAF (0%). IgM titers for abnormal patients exceeded those of controls for all neural antigens (range = 17.2%–42.4%) except GM₁ (0%). In normal patients,

IgM titers did not exceed control values for GM₁ (0%), sulfatide (5%), MOG (5%), glutamate receptor (0%), and tubulin (5%), whereas MBP (20%), MAG (30%), crystallin (25%), CONSO₄ (20%), and NAF (20%) exceeded control values. IgA autoantibodies in abnormal patients for each neural antigen exceeded control values for MBP (20.3%), MAG (23.2%), crystallin (8.1%), glutamate receptor (7.1%), tubulin (8.1%), CONSO₄ (10.5%), and NAF (10%). With respect to normal patients, only MAG (15%), tubulin (10%), and NAF (10%) exceeded values for controls.

The percentage of patients who had ORs that exceeded the 95% CI are given in Table 3. The ORs for IgG were not significant for MBP (0.66) and MAG (1.05), whereas those for all other neural autoantibodies were significant as follows: sulfatide (3.36), crystallin (6.53), glutamate receptor (10.08), tubulin (55.1),

Table 1.—Autoantibody Titers against 9 Neural Antigens in Patients with Abnormal Nerve Conduction Velocities (NCVs) ($n = 119$) and Those with Normal NCVs ($n = 20$), vs. Asymptomatic Controls ($N = 500$), for Each Isotype

Neural autoantibody	IgG						IgM						IgA					
	Abnormal		Normal		Controls		Abnormal		Normal		Controls		Abnormal		Normal		Controls	
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD
MBP	63.3	21.6	54.7	18.3	27.0	12.2	50.8	24.3	47.0	9.2	25.1	13.2	18.5	6.0	16.8	4.7	7.2	3.7
MAG	63.6	18.8	69.0	18.2	26.0	7.3	51.0	16.1	48.1	12.4	24.5	8.1	19.4	7.6	17.5	7.4	8.3	2.4
GM ₁	15.8	6.7	16.4	7.0	11.1	2.8	16.4	6.3	15.6	4.5	10.4	3.3	12.3	6.2	12.6	4.4	11.5	3.6
Sulfatide	16.7	6.2	17.5	6.7	12.2	3.4	17.2	6.3	15.1	4.3	11.3	3.7	13.3	9.1	12.4	4.0	9.4	3.1
MOG	15.9	5.9	17.5	6.6	8.9	5.5	18.2	6.3	16.8	4.7	8.4	5.5	12.0	3.5	11.4	2.3	7.9	4.6
Crystallin	16.1	5.8	16.5	6.7	11.9	2.5	18.7	6.9	19.0	8.2	12.1	2.9	13.6	7.5	13.2	4.7	11.1	4.3
Glutamate	10.2	3.4	9.2	1.5	7.0	2.8	10.6	3.7	9.3	1.2	7.6	2.0	9.5	3.7	8.5	2.1	8.1	2.1
Tubulin	64.1	16.8	58.7	11.9	23.7	9.2	41.9	18.5	33.0	7.8	18.1	7.9	17.9	16.1	14.7	3.7	9.8	2.6
CONSO ₄	11.5	4.7	10.2	2.1	7.7	2.2	11.8	4.9	10.4	2.0	5.6	2.1	11.0	7.7	9.2	1.4	7.0	2.7
NAF	61.6	23.9	53.3	10.7	26.4	11.3	53.1	20.7	44.1	12.0	24.7	10.3	18.2	8.2	16.4	5.4	8.7	3.4

Notes: Ig = immunoglobulin, \bar{x} = mean, SD = standard deviation, MBP = myelin basic protein, MAG = myelin-associated glycoprotein, GM₁ = ganglioside, MOG = myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, CONSO₄ = chondroitin sulfate, and NAF = neurofilament antigen.

Table 2.—Percentages of Individuals with Autoantibody Titers that Exceeded Expected Ranges (95% Confidence Intervals), for Patients with Abnormal Nerve Conduction Velocities (NCVs) and Those with Normal NCVs, vs. Asymptomatic Controls, for Each Isotype

Neural autoantibody	IgG			IgM			IgA		
	Abnormal (%)	Normal (%)	Controls (%)	Abnormal (%)	Normal (%)	Controls (%)	Abnormal (%)	Normal (%)	Controls (%)
MBP	4.0	0	5	34.3	20	2	20.2	5	1
MAG	4.0	5	4	42.4	30	3	23.2	15	2
GM ₁	0.0	0	2	0.0	0	4	4.0	5	5
Sulfatide	17.2	20	6	17.2	5	5	3.0	5	2
MOG	10.1	20	5	25.3	5	4	1.0	0	3
Crystallin	10.1	20	2	27.3	25	4	8.1	5	3
Glutamate	11.1	0	1	15.2	0	0	7.1	0	2
Tubulin	57.6	30	2	39.4	5	2	8.1	10	1
CONSO ₄	27.3	20	2	33.3	20	1	10.5	5	2
NAF	6.1	0	3	41.4	20	2	18.2	10	1

Notes: Ig = immunoglobulin, MBP = myelin basic protein, MAG = myelin-associated glycoprotein, GM₁ = ganglioside, MOG = myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, CONSO₄ = chondroitin sulfate, and NAF = neurofilament antigen.

CONSO₄ (17.26), and NAF (5.15). The OR for GM₁ could not be calculated because of the 0 value for the patients. The ORs for IgM neural autoantibodies were significant for all antigens, and ranged from 3.39 to 44.6. The ORs for GM₁ and glutamate receptor were not calculated because of 0 values for the controls. With respect to IgA autoantibodies, the ORs for sulfatide (1.7) and MOG (0.82) were not significant, whereas those for the other neural antigens were significant as follows: MBP (21.2), MAG (13.7), crystallin (2.65), glutamate receptor (3.03), tubulin (9.08), CONSO₄ (4.99), and NAF (2). GM₁ could not be calcu-

lated because of 0 values; the 95% CI for MOG was not calculated because of the value of 1 in controls.

The percentages of individuals with autoantibody titers that exceeded the maximum 95% CI for expected laboratory ranges, along with ORs, are presented in Table 4. We calculated these data for abnormal, normal, and control patients as follows: If an individual had only 1 isotype against a neural antigen (i.e., IgG), that person was given the same score as an individual with 2 or more isotypes (i.e., IgG + IgM + IgA). The percentages of individuals with autoantibodies against each neural antigen were highest among the abnormal

Table 3.—Odds Ratios (ORs) and 95% Confidence Intervals (CIs) for Autoantibodies for Each Isotype Presented in Table 1

Neural autoantibody	IgG		IgM		IgA	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
MBP	0.66	1.92, 0.22	22.98	47.9, 11.0	21.2	57.4, 7.8
MAG	1.05	3.86, 0.39	21.86	40.9, 11.59	13.7	6.2, 28.8
GM ₁	—*		—*		—*	
Sulfatide	3.36	6.1, 1.84	3.39	5.6, 2.05	1.7	0.52, 5.5
MOG	2.53	4.95, 1.25	6.7	12.2, 3.5	0.82	—†
Crystallin	6.53	15.2, 2.83	8.83	16.4, 4.9	2.65	1.13, 6.17
Glutamate	10.08	29.4, 3.3	—*		3.06	8.17, 1.14
Tubulin	55.1	112.4, 27.1	24.8	50.9, 11.8	9.08	38.02, 26.8
CONSO ₄	17.26	36.6, 8.2	44.6	116.7, 16.4	4.99	2.05, 11.9
NAF	5.15	13.06, 1.88	29.8	62.2, 14.9	20.0	7.26, 54.6

Notes: Ig = immunoglobulin, MBP = myelin basic protein, MAG = myelin-associated glycoprotein, GM₁ = ganglioside, MOG = myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, CONSO₄ = chondroitin sulfate, and NAF = neurofilament antigen. For these calculations, patients with abnormal nerve conduction velocities (NCVs) were grouped with those with normal NCVs and compared vs. controls.

*Not calculated because of zero values (refer to Table 2).

†Not calculated because of the value of 1 in a cell (refer to Table 2).

Table 4.—Percentages of Individuals with 1 or More Isotypes for Each Neural Antigen that Exceeded the Maximum 95% Confidence Interval (CI) Titer

Neural autoantibody	Abnormal (n = 119) (%)	Normal (n = 20) (%)	Controls (n = 500) (%)	OR	95% CI
MBP	47.5	20	8	8.63	11.5, 6.4
MAG	54.5	45	9	11.4	16.4, 7.8
GM ₁	4.0	5	11	0.91	1.7, 0.48
Sulfatide	30.3	25	13	2.8	4.4, 1.7
MOG	32.3	25	12	3.3	4.85, 2.2
Crystallin	35.4	35	9	5.5	8.0, 2.7
Glutamate	26.3	0	3	9.0	17.6, 4.6
Tubulin	69.7	35	5	33.58	56.8, 19.1
CONSO ₄	46.5	30	5	14.75	25.3, 8.58
NAF	50.5	25	5	16.3	16.3, 12.4

Notes: MBP = myelin basic protein, MAG = myelin-associated glycoprotein, GM₁ = ganglioside, MOG = myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein, CONSO₄ = chondroitin sulfate, and NAF = neurofilament antigen. The percentages were determined as follows: If a patient had 1 isotype (e.g., immunoglobulin [IgG, IgM, or IgA]), that patient was given the same score as a patient with 2 or more isotypes. Thus, the total percentages for patients with abnormal nerve conduction velocities (NCVs), normal NCVs, and controls were less than the totals for each isotype as presented in Table 1. For simplicity, the data for patients with abnormal and normal NCVs were combined to obtain the odds ratios (ORs).

patients (range = 26.3%–69.0%) when compared with controls (range = 3%–13%), with the exception of GM₁ (4%). Similarly, the normal patients had an increased percentage of individuals with higher titers (range = 20%–45%) when compared with the controls, with the exception of GM₁ (5%) and glutamate receptor (0%). The ORs were significant (95% CI) for all neural antigens, except for GM₁ (0.91). The ORs were highest for tubulin (33.58) and decreased, in descending order, for NAF (16.3), CONSO₄ (14.75), MAG (11.4), glutamate receptor (9.0), MBP (8.63), crystallin (5.5), MOG (3.3), and sulfatide (3.3).

NCV testing. No changes or abnormalities were observed for F and H waves in the abnormal or normal patients (data not shown).

The data obtained from the NCV studies for motor nerves and sensory nerves are summarized in Tables 5 and 6. Patients with abnormal findings comprised 3 groups, as follows: (1) mixed sensory–motor polyneuropathy (*n* = 55), (2) motor neuropathy (*n* = 17), and (3) sensory neuropathy (*n* = 27). There were 20 patients with no abnormalities (controls). We compared the data obtained for the 20 controls with data for the 3 groups of abnormal patients (mixed, motor, and sensory neuropathies), for statistical purposes.

Results for the mixed polyneuropathy group differed significantly from controls. Latencies for the median (4.2 ± 1.2 ms, *p* < 0.001), ulnar (3.13 ± 1.1 ms, *p* < 0.05), peroneal (5.1 ± 1.4 ms, *p* < 0.001), and tibial motor nerves (5.5 ± 2.9 ms, *p* < 0.001) were signifi-

Table 5.—Neuropathies Experienced by Patients with Abnormal Nerve Conduction Velocity (NCV) Measurements (*n* = 119), vs. Controls with Normal Values (*n* = 20), by NCV Parameter Tested

NCV parameter	Neuropathy with abnormal NCV						Controls (<i>n</i> = 20)	
	Mixed (<i>n</i> = 55)		Motor (<i>n</i> = 17)		Sensory (<i>n</i> = 27)		\bar{x}	SD
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD		
Median latency (ms)	4.2	1.2*	3.6	1.1	3.4	0.36	3.3	0.4
Median amplitude (μV)	9.5	4.3	7.6	3.3†	10.8	2.6	10	3.3
Median velocity (m/sec)	56.5	7.8‡	55.9	5.3‡	58.1	7.4	61.5	7.1
Ulnar latency (ms)	3.13	1.1†	3.7	2.05‡	2.7	0.38	2.56	0.53
Ulnar amplitude (μV)	9.9	3.7	9.9	2	9.9	1.8	10	3.13
Ulnar velocity (m/sec)	60.9	9.9§	60.4	7.4‡	65.1	6.6	66.2	5.4
Peroneal latency (ms)	5.1	1.4*	5.5	1.2*	4.7	0.52*	3.9	0.86
Peroneal amplitude (μV)	5.6	3.2	4.2	1.9§	6.05	2.2	6.6	3
Peroneal velocity (m/sec)	52.5	12.7	47.5	13.3†	52.2	5.8	58.2	13.8
Tibial latency (ms)	5.5	2.9*	6.3	3§	4.2	0.55	4	1
Tibial amplitude (μV)	9.8	6	8.1	4.8†	13.6	4.8	12.7	6.8
Tibial velocity (m/sec)	46.6	11.3†	47.3	5.5†	46.6	4.4§	52.3	8.3
Median latency (ms)	4.2	1.3*	3	0.16	4.2	1.5*	3.08	0.17
Median amplitude (μV)	27.1	15.9	40.3	15.2	32.4	20.5	35.1	15.6
Ulnar latency (ms)	3.7	1.41*	2.7	0.2	4.6	2.3*	2.54	0.25
Ulnar amplitude (μV)	27	18.5†	31.9	14.9	28.1	18.6	35	15.3
Sural latency (ms)	4.9	3.2‡	3.8	0.28	4.4	1.4†	3.8	0.32
Sural amplitude (m/sec)	11	8.4†	14.2	5.9	11.2	10.5†	21.7	19.2

Notes: With respect to the 20 normal patients, no abnormal values were observed for each measurement except for the tibial motor nerve measurements, in which the velocity was slightly reduced (41 ms), with the cutoff for normal being > 41 ms. For cases in which the number of patients was not the same as that shown in the column heading, the actual number (*n*) is given within the table.

**p* < 0.001.

†*p* < 0.05.

‡*p* < 0.02.

§*p* < 0.01.

Table 6.—Percentages of Individuals with Various Numbers (0–7) of Nerves Showing Abnormal Nerve Conduction Measurements (Latency Onset, Amplitude, or Velocity), for Mixed (Motor and Sensory), Motor, and Sensory Neuropathies

No. of nerves with abnormal measurements	Neuropathy		
	Mixed (n = 55) (%)	Motor (n = 17) (%)	Sensory (n = 27) (%)
0	0.0	0.0	11.1
1	1.8	41.2	33.3
2	38.2	47.1	33.7
3	23.6	5.9	18.5
4	21.8	5.9	—
5	10.9	—	—
6	1.8	—	—
7	1.8	—	—

Notes: Among the 20 controls, 1 individual had an abnormal measurement for the tibial motor nerve (velocity = 41 ms), resulting in an abnormal rate of 0.4% for all motor nerve measurements. No abnormalities were seen among the controls for the other 4 motor nerves or the 3 sensory nerves.

cantly increased vs. controls. Amplitudes for all motor nerves were not significantly different from controls. Velocities for the median (56.5 ± 7.8 m/sec, $p < 0.02$), ulnar (60.9 ± 9.9 m/sec, $p < 0.01$), and tibial (46.6 ± 11.3 m/sec, $p < 0.05$) motor nerves were significantly decreased vs. controls. Latencies for the median (4.2 ± 1.3 ms, $p < 0.001$), ulnar (3.7 ± 1.41 ms, $p < 0.02$), and sural (4.9 ± 3.2 ms, $p < 0.02$) sensory nerves were significantly increased vs. controls. Amplitudes for the ulnar (27 ± 18.5 μ V, $p < 0.05$) and sural (11 ± 8.4 μ V, $p < 0.5$) sensory nerves were significantly decreased compared with controls.

In patients with only motor nerve neuropathy, latencies for ulnar (3.7 ± 2.05 ms, $p < 0.02$), peroneal (5.5 ± 1.2 ms, $p < 0.001$), and tibial (6.2 ± 3 ms, $p < 0.01$) nerves were significantly increased; amplitudes for the median (7.6 ± 3.3 μ V, $p < 0.05$), peroneal (4.2 ± 1.9 μ V, $p < 0.01$), and tibial (8.1 ± 4.8 μ V, $p < 0.5$) nerves were significantly decreased; and velocities for the median (55.9 ± 5.3 m/sec, $p < 0.01$), ulnar (60.4 ± 7.4 m/sec, $p < 0.02$), peroneal (47.5 ± 13.3 m/sec, $p < 0.05$), and tibial (47.3 ± 5.5 m/sec, $p < 0.05$) nerves were significantly slower than the controls. Latencies and amplitudes for the sensory nerves (median, ulnar, and tibial) were not significantly different from control values.

In patients with only sensory neuropathy, latencies for the median (4.2 ± 1.5 ms, $p < 0.001$), ulnar (4.6 ± 2.3 ms, $p < 0.001$), and sural (4.4 ± 1.4 ms, $p < 0.05$) nerves were significantly increased vs. controls; amplitudes of the sural nerve (11.2 ± 10.5 μ V, $p < 0.05$) were significantly decreased; and all neurophysiological measurements tended to differ from the control values. None of the measurements for motor nerves in this

group—except for peroneal latency ($p < 0.001$) and amplitude ($p < 0.01$)—were different from the controls.

Table 6 summarizes the data for the percentages of patients with various numbers of nerves that demonstrated abnormal conduction. In those patients with mixed neuropathy, all nerves had abnormal measurements with a distribution as follows: 1 involved nerve (5.5%), 2 involved nerves (38.2%), 3 involved nerves (23.6%), 4 involved nerves (21.8%), and 5 or more involved nerves (14.5%). Of those patients who exhibited motor neuropathy, 41.2% had only 1 involved nerve, whereas 58.9% had 2 or more involved nerves. Patients with sensory neuropathy had the following distribution: 11.1% had nerves with no abnormal findings, 33.3% had only 1 nerve with abnormal measurements, and 52.2% had 2 or more nerves with abnormal measurements.

Discussion

All patients in this study had documented exposure to molds in their homes and/or workplaces. They also had significantly elevated antibodies to molds and to mycotoxins, which confirmed exposure.^{63–65} In addition, multiple organ symptoms were present, as reported previously.⁶³ In this particular group of patients, additional health complaints consisted of symptoms of peripheral neuropathy (i.e., tingling, numbness, tremors, and muscle weakness in the extremities). Thus, we evaluated these patients for the presence of antibodies to 9 neural antigens, as well as for evidence of abnormalities in peripheral nerve conduction. All patients had significant increases in autoantibodies against neural antigens (Tables 1–4). Abnormalities in latencies, amplitudes, and velocities of selected peripheral nerves (Tables 5 and 6), and peripheral neuropathy, were observed in 99 patients, whereas 20 symptomatic patients had normal NCV measurements.

Examination of the patients' antibody titers revealed that IgG antibody titers to the neural antigens between patients with abnormal vs. normal NCVs were not significantly different, with the exception of NAF ($p < 0.01$). However, when compared with healthy controls, the difference between IgG titers for abnormal vs. normal patients was highly significant ($p < 0.001$). In contrast, IgM titers in abnormal patients were consistently elevated when compared with normal patients, with significant differences for CONSO₄ ($p < 0.05$), glutamate receptor ($p < 0.01$), tubulin ($p < 0.01$), and NAF ($p < 0.01$). Autoantibodies in both abnormal and normal patients showed significant elevations compared with controls ($p < 0.001$). With respect to IgA antibodies, NAF titers were significantly elevated in abnormal vs. normal patients. The titers for both abnormal and normal patients were significantly elevated compared with controls, with the exception of GM₁ and glutamate receptor. Thus, we concluded that exposure to molds,

and symptoms of peripheral neuropathy, are associated with autoantibodies to 9 different neural antigens. These data support and extend the observations of Gray et al.,³⁰ who demonstrated increased antibodies to myelin and NAF in mold-exposed individuals.

Autoantibodies to neural antigens have been reported for several neurological conditions.^{66,72} Pestronk et al.⁶⁶ confirmed that elevated titers of MAG antibodies in patients are relatively specific for sensory and motor polyneuropathy syndromes with demyelination. NCVs were used to confirm the demyelinating changes in these patients. Of the patients studied, 92% with IgM antibodies to MAG had physiologic evidence of demyelination.⁶⁶ MS patients have shown antibodies to myelin, MOG, MBP, α -B-crystallin, and complement-mediated demyelination.^{68,73} Anti-ganglioside, anti-glycolipid, anti-sulfatide, anti-MAG, anti-tubulin, and anti-CONSO₄ antibodies have been demonstrated in motor, sensory, and polyneuropathies with demyelination.⁷²⁻⁸⁶ IgM isotypes to sulfatide,^{74,75,77} ganglioside,⁷⁸ and MAG⁸³ are correlated with electrophysiological peripheral nerve abnormalities. Moreover, antigangliosides and galactocerebroside antibodies are associated with infections from *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* in patients with Guillain-Barre syndrome.⁸¹ In addition, IgM, anti-MAG, anti-glycolipids, and anti-NAF antibodies are present in individuals with chronic demyelinating conditions of the nervous system.^{67,73,83,86} Thus, we suggest that the presence of autoantibodies to neural antigens in our patients is the result of exposure to toxic metabolites^{13-23,60,61} of molds, or may result from an infectious process. The presence of abnormal T and B cell function of the immune system³⁰ in nasal,⁴¹ pulmonary,^{39,40} and neurologic^{87,88} infections by molds supports this conclusion. Finally, we have observed increased T cell activation; C3 and C4 complements; and IgA, IgM, and IgG immune complexes in 33 patients who had chronic exposure to molds in a water-damaged building, which suggests an inflammatory process (manuscript forthcoming).

The ORs in Table 3 are also revealing. IgM isotypes against the neural antigens had ORs consistently greater (range = 3.39-44.6) than those for IgG isotypes (range = 0.66-17.26), with the exception of antitubulin (55.1 vs. 24.8). The ORs indicate an increased risk of developing antineural antibodies, but also may suggest that IgM isotypes are more consistent with symptomatic active or progressive neuropathy than are IgG isotypes, and may represent an ongoing acute or subacute process. As mentioned earlier, IgM antibodies to various neural antigens have been associated with neurophysiological and pathological changes characteristic of various neuropathies. Finally, the ORs in Table 4 for the percentages of individuals with 1 or more isotypes against the neural antigens show a relative increased risk (range = 2.8-33.58) of developing autoantibodies.

The only exception was GM₁ autoantibodies (OR = 0.91). Thus, we concluded that individuals exposed to molds in a water-damaged building have an increased risk of developing antineural antibodies. Additional work is needed to determine at what point these processes become irreversible.

Our neurophysiological data revealed 3 different types of peripheral neuropathies: mixed sensory-motor polyneuropathy (55 abnormal patients), motor neuropathy (17 abnormal patients), and sensory neuropathy (27 abnormal patients), as well as patients who exhibited symptoms but had no abnormal electrophysiological findings (20 normal controls) (Table 5). The differences between the 20 normal patients and the 99 abnormal patients are likely attributable to the significant increase in IgG and IgM autoantibodies to NAF, tubulin, glutamate receptor, and CONSO₄ observed in the abnormal patients. The role that IgA antibodies play is unclear at this time. Additional observations are needed to clarify the role of each isotype (IgA, IgM, and IgG) and to determine which neural autoantibodies contribute to the observed neuropathies.

The increased latencies for motor and sensory nerves observed in the 55 patients with mixed neuropathy suggest a demyelinating process.⁸³ The increased latencies were accompanied by a decrease in velocities for the median, ulnar, peroneal, and tibial nerves. All three sensory nerves (median, ulnar, and sural) exhibited increased latencies and decreased amplitudes. Thus, the polyneuropathy observed in these patients appears to be a demyelinating process with decreased number and size of fibers (decreased amplitudes) and chronic involvement of the nerve (decreased velocities).^{72,83} Those with motor neuropathies (17 patients) had decreases in latencies (ulnar, peroneal, and tibial nerves), decreased amplitudes (median, peroneal, and tibial nerves), and decreased velocities (median, ulnar, peroneal, and tibial nerves). This appears to be a diffuse neuropathy and may involve some demyelination.⁸⁹ Finally, those with sensory neuropathies (27 patients) had increased latencies for all 3 nerves, whereas the sural nerve had a decreased amplitude. The increased latencies and decreased amplitude of these nerves suggest that demyelination is occurring.⁹⁰

The severity of the neuropathies experienced by the patients in our study is implicit as a result of the involvement of several nerves (Table 6). With respect to the mixed-neuropathy patients, only 1.8% had abnormalities in only 1 nerve, whereas 38.2% had at least 2 nerves involved. The remaining patients (59.5%) had 3 or more nerves with abnormal neurophysiological recordings. Impairments in the patients with motor neuropathy were slightly less dramatic, with 41.2% having a single nerve involvement, and the remainder having 2 or more nerves involved. Finally, in those patients with sensory neuropathy, 33.3% had 1 nerve and 52.2% had

2 or more nerves involved. Thus, we concluded that the neuropathies in these patients were severe and in many cases involved several nerves.

In summary, 119 individuals exposed to mold colonies in water-damaged buildings were found to have autoantibodies directed against 9 different neural antigens. Neurophysiological recordings for latencies, amplitudes, and velocities on 4 motor nerves and 3 sensory nerves revealed peripheral neuropathies in 99 patients (83%). Three abnormal conditions were found: mixed sensory-motor polyneuropathy, motor neuropathy, and sensory neuropathy. We recommend that mold-exposed individuals with symptoms of neuropathy be evaluated for antibodies against neural antigens and for neurophysiological abnormalities. Additional work is needed to correlate and clarify the extent of the peripheral nerve pathology and demyelination, as well as the role of neural autoantibodies in this process.

* * * * *

The authors thank Nina Immers for her kind technical support during the data gathering and tabulation for this study.

Submitted for publication April 5, 2004; revised; accepted for publication May 14, 2004.

Requests for reprints should be sent to Andrew M. Campbell, M.D., Medical Center for Immune and Toxic Disorders, 25010 Oakhurst, #200, Spring, TX 77386.

E-mail: md@immunotoxicology.com

* * * * *

References

- Gravesen S, Nielsen PA, Iverson R, et al. Microfungal contamination of damp buildings—examples of constructions and risk materials. *Environ Health Perspect* 1999; 107 (Suppl 3):505–08.
- Croft WA, Jarvis BB, Yatawara CS. Airborne outbreak of trichothecene toxicosis. *Atmos Environ* 1986; 20:549–52.
- Peltola J, Andersson MA, Haahtela T, et al. Toxic-metabolite-producing bacteria and fungus in an indoor environment. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2001; 67:3269–74.
- Shelton BF, Kirkland KH, Flanders WE, et al. Profiles of airborne fungi in buildings and outdoor environments in the United States. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2002; 68:1743–53.
- Johanning E, Biagini R, Hull D-L, et al. Health and immunology study following exposure to toxigenic fungi (*Stachybotrys chartarum*) in a water-damaged office environment. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 1996; 68:207–18.
- Andersson MA, Nikulin M, Kooljalg U, et al. Bacteria, molds, and toxins in water-damaged building materials. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 1997; 63:387–93.
- Nielsen KF, Gravesen S, Nielsen PA. Production of mycotoxins on artificially and naturally infested building materials. *Mycopathologia* 1999; 145:43–56.
- Claeson AS, Levin H, Blomquist G, et al. Volatile metabolites from microorganisms grown on humid building materials and synthetic media. *J Environ Monit* 2002; 4:667–72.
- Tuomi T, Reijut K, Johnsson T, et al. Mycotoxins in crude building materials from water-damage buildings. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2000; 66:1899–1904.
- Nieminen SM, Karki R, Auriola S, et al. Isolation and identification of *Aspergillus fumigatus* mycotoxins on growth medium and some building materials. *Microbiology* 2002; 68:4871–75.
- Jarvis BB. Chemistry and toxicology of molds isolated from water-damaged buildings. In: DeVries JW, Trucksess MW, Jackson LS (Eds), *Mycotoxins and Food Safety*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers, 2002; pp 43–52.
- Burge HA. Bioaerosols: prevalence and health effects in the indoor environment. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 1990; 86:687–704.
- Richard JL, Plattner RD, May J, et al. The occurrence of ochratoxin A in dust collected from a problem household. *Mycopathologia* 1999; 146:99–103.
- Skaug MA, Eduard W, Stormer FD. Ochratoxin A in airborne dust and fungal conidia. *Mycopathologia* 2000; 151:93–95.
- Smoragiewicz W, Cossete B, Boutrard A, et al. Trichothecene mycotoxins in the dust of ventilation systems in office buildings. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 1993; 65:113–17.
- Tuomi T, Saarinen L, Reijula K. Detection of polar and macrocyclic trichothecene mycotoxins from indoor environments. *Analyst* 1998; 123:1835–41.
- Johanning E, Gareis M, Nielsen K, et al. Airborne mycotoxins sampling and screening analysis. Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Indoor Air Quality and Climate (Indoor Air 2002), Monterey, California, June 30–July 5, 2002. Santa Cruz, California: Indoor Air 2002 Conference Secretariat.
- Fischer G, Muller T, Ostrowski R, et al. Mycotoxins as exposure parameters in bioaerosols of composting sites. *Schriftenr Ver Wasser Boden Luft Hyg* 1999; 104:149–62.
- Fischer G, Muller T, Ostrowski R, et al. Mycotoxins of *Aspergillus fumigatus* in pure culture and in native bioaerosols from compost facilities. *Chemosphere* 1999; 38:1745–55.
- Land CJ, Hult K, Fuchs R, et al. Tremorgenic mycotoxins from *Aspergillus fumigatus* as possible occupational health problems in sawmills. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 1987; 53:787–90.
- Gordon KE, Masotti RE, Waddel WR. Tremorgenic encephalopathy: a role of mycotoxins in the production of CNS disease in humans? *Can J Neurol Sci* 1993; 20:237–39.
- Boysen SR, Rozanski EA, Chan DL, et al. Tremorgenic mycotoxicosis in four dogs from a single household. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 2002; 221(10):1441–44, 1420.
- Young KL, Villar D, Carson TL, et al. Tremorgenic mycotoxin intoxication with penitrem A and roquefortine in two dogs. *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 2003; 222:52–53, 35.
- Hodgson MJ, Morey P, Leung W-Y, et al. Building-associated pulmonary disease from exposure to *Stachybotrys chartarum* and *Aspergillus versicolor*. *J Occup Environ Med* 1998; 40:241–49.
- Croft WA, Jastromski BM, Croft AL, et al. Clinical confirmation of trichothecene mycotoxicosis in patient urine. *J Environ Biol* 2002; 23:301–20.
- Kilburn KH. Inhalation of moulds and mycotoxins. *Eur J Oncol* 2002; 7:197–202.
- Anyanwu EC, Campbell AW, Vojdani A. Neurophysiological effects of chronic indoor environmental mold exposure on children. *Scientific World Journal* 2003; 3:281–90.

28. Mahmoudi M, Gershwin ME. Sick building syndrome. III. *Stachybotrys chartarum*. J Asthma 2000; 37:1191–98.
29. Walinder R, Wieslander G, Norback D, et al. Nasal lavage biomarkers: effects of water damage and microbial growth in an office building. Arch Environ Health 2001; 56:30–36.
30. Gray MR, Thrasher JD, Crago R, et al. Mixed mold mycotoxicosis: immunological changes in humans following exposure in water-damaged buildings. Arch Environ Health 2003; 58(7):410–20.
31. Crago BR, Gray M, Nelson LA, et al. Psychological, neuropsychological, and electrocortical effects of mixed mold exposure. Arch Environ Health 2003; 58(8):452–63.
32. Johanning E, Landsbergis P, Gareis M, et al. Clinical experience and results of a sentinel health investigation related to indoor fungal exposure. Environ Health Perspect 1999; 107(Suppl 3):189–94.
33. Jaakkola M, Nördman H, Pilpari R, et al. Indoor dampness and molds and development of adult-onset asthma: a population-based incident case-control study. Environ Health Perspect 2002; 110:543–47.
34. Gent JF, Ren P, Belanger K, et al. Levels of household mold associated with respiratory symptoms in the first year of life in a cohort at risk for asthma. Environ Health Perspect 2002; 110:A781–86.
35. Hayes AW. Mycotoxins: a review of biological effects and their role in human diseases. Clin Toxicol 1980; 17: 45–83.
36. Wannemacher RW Jr, Weiner SL. Trichothecene mycotoxins. In: Sidell FR, Takafuji ET, Franz DR (Eds). Medical Aspects of Chemical and Biological Warfare. Falls Church, VA: Office of the Surgeon General, 1997; pp 655–76.
37. Pfohl-Leszkowicz A, Petkova-Bocharova T, Chernozemsky IN, et al. Balkan endemic nephropathy and associated urinary tract tumours: a review on aetiological causes and the potential role of mycotoxins. Food Addit Contam 2002; 19:282–302.
38. Bondy GS, Pestka JJ. Immunomodulation by fungal toxins. J Toxicol Environ Health B Crit Rev 2000; 3:109–43.
39. Fraser RS. Pulmonary aspergilliosis: pathologic and pathogenic features. Pathol Annu 1993; 28(Pt 1):231–77.
40. Patel AM, Ryu JH, Reed CE. Hypersensitivity pneumonitis: current concepts and future questions. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2001; 108:661–70.
41. Thrasher RD, Kingdom TT. Fungal infections of the head and neck: an update. Otolaryngol Clin North Am 2003; 36:577–94.
42. Dominguez-Malagon H, Gaytan-Graham S. Hepatocellular carcinoma: an update. Ultrastruct Pathol 2001; 25: 497–516.
43. Sajjan MP, Satav JG, Bhattacharya RK. Effect of aflatoxin B in vitro on rat liver mitochondrial respiratory functions. Indian J Exp Biol 1997; 35:1187–90.
44. Hoehler D, Marquardt RR, McIntosh AR, et al. Induction of free radicals in hepatocytes, mitochondria and microsomes of rats by ochratoxin A and its analogs. Biochim Biophys Acta 1997; 1357:225–33.
45. Hussein HS, Brasel JM. Toxicity, metabolism, and impact of mycotoxins on humans and animals. Toxicology 2001; 167:101–34.
46. Nishiyama M, Kuga T. Pharmacological effects of tremorgenic mycotoxin fumitremorgin A. Jpn J Pharmacol 1986; 40:481–89.
47. Cavanagh JB, Holton JL, Nolan CC, et al. The effects of tremorgenic mycotoxin penitrem A on the rat cerebellum. Vet Pathol 1998; 35:53–63.
48. Selala MI, Daelemans F, Schepens PJ. Fungal tremorgens: the mechanism of action of single nitrogen containing toxins—a hypothesis. Drug Chem Toxicol 1989; 12: 237–57.
49. Longland CL, Dyer JL, Michelangeli F. The mycotoxin paxilline inhibits the cerebellar inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptor. Eur J Pharmacol 2000; 408:219–25.
50. Chen JW, Luo YL, Hwang MJ, et al. Territrein B, a tremorgenic mycotoxin that inhibits acetylcholinesterase with a noncovalent yet irreversible binding mechanism. J Biol Chem 1999; 274:34916–23.
51. Peterson DW, Bradford HF, Mantle PG. Actions of tremorgenic mycotoxin on amino acid transmitter release in vivo. Biochem Pharmacol 1982; 31:2807–10.
52. Norris PJ, Smith CC, De Belleruche J, et al. Actions of tremorgenic fungal toxins on neurotransmitter release. J Neurochem 1980; 34:33–42.
53. Desai K, Sullards MC, Allegood J, et al. Fumonisin and fumonisin analogs as inhibitors of ceramide synthase and inducers of apoptosis. Biochim Biophys Acta 2002; 1585:188–92.
54. Merrill AH, Sullards MC, Wang E, et al. Sphingolipid metabolism: roles in signal transduction and disruption by fumonisins. Environ Health Perspect 2001; 109(Suppl 2): 83–89.
55. Anyanwu E, Campbell A, High W. Brainstem auditory evoked response in adolescents with acoustic mycotoxic neuromas due to environmental exposure to toxic molds. Int J Adolesc Med Health 2002; 24:67–76.
56. Baldo JV, Ahmand L, Ruff R. Neuropsychological performance of patients following mold exposure. Appl Neuropsychol 2002; 9:193–202.
57. Campbell AW, Anyanwu EC, Vojdani A. Combination of high-dose immunoglobulins and itraconazole in treating chronic mycotic demyelinating optic neuritis. Scientific World Journal. 2003; 3:64–66.
58. Rudich R, Santilli J, Rockwell WJ. Indoor mold spore exposure: a possible factor in the etiology of multifocal choroiditis. Am J Ophthalmol 2003; 135:402–04.
59. Coffey PJ, Perry VH, Allen Y, et al. Ibotenic acid induced demyelination in the central nervous system: a consequence of a local inflammatory response. Neurosci Lett 1988; 84:178–84.
60. Spengos K, Schwartz A, Hennerici M. Multifocal demyelination after magic mushroom abuse. J Neurol 2000; 224–25.
61. Shields SA, Gilson JM, Balkemore WF, et al. Remyelination occurs as extensively but more slowly in old rats compared to young rats following gliotoxin-induced CNS demyelination. Glia 1999; 28:77–83.
62. Van Emon JM, Reed AW, Yike I, et al. ELISA measurement of stachylysinTM in serum to quantify human exposures to the indoor mold *Stachybotrys chartarum*. J Occup Environ Med 2003; 45:582–91.
63. Vojdani A, Campbell A, Kashanian A, et al. Antibodies against molds and mycotoxins after exposure to toxigenic fungi in a water-damaged building. Arch Environ Health 2003; 58:324–36.
64. Vojdani A, Thrasher JD, Madison RA, et al. Antibodies to molds and satratoxin in individuals exposed in water-damaged buildings. Arch Environ Health 2003; 58(7): 421–32.
65. Vojdani A, Kashanian A, Vojdani E, et al. Saliva secretory IgA antibodies against molds and mycotoxins in patients exposed to toxigenic fungi. Immunopharmacol Immunotoxicol 2003; 25:595–614.
66. Pestronk A, Griffin J, Feldman EL, et al. Polyneuropathy

- syndromes associated with serum antibodies to sulfatide and myelin-associated glycoprotein. *Neurology* 1991; 41: 357–62.
67. Vojdani A, Campbell A, Anyanwu E, et al. Antibodies to neural-specific antigens in children with autism: possible cross-reaction with encephalitogenic proteins from milk, *Chlamydia pneumoniae* and *Streptococcus A* group. *J Neuroimmunol* 2002; 129:168–77.
 68. Vojdani A, Vojdani E, Cooper E. Antibodies to myelin basic protein, myelin oligodendrocytes peptides, α - β -crystallin, lymphocyte activation and cytokine production in patients with multiple sclerosis. *J Intern Med* 2003; 254:1–12.
 69. Dumitru D, Zwarts MJ, Amato AA (Eds). *Electrodiagnostic Medicine*. Philadelphia: Hanley & Belfus, 1995.
 70. Oh SJ. *Electrodiagnosis in Diseases of Nerve and Muscle: Principles and Practice*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: FA Davis, 1989.
 71. DeLisa JA, Mckenzie K, Baran EM. *Manual of Nerve Conduction Velocity and Clinical Neurophysiology*. 3rd ed. New York: Raven Press, 1994.
 72. Steck AJ, Murray N, Dellagi K, et al. Peripheral neuropathy associated with monoclonal IgM autoantibody. *Ann Neurol* 1987; 22:764–67.
 73. Storch MK, Piddlesden S, Haltia M, et al. Multiple sclerosis: in situ evidence for antibody- and complement-mediated demyelination. *Ann Neurol* 1999; 43:465–71.
 74. Nemni R, Fazio R, Quattrini, A, et al. Antibodies to sulfatide and to chondroitin sulfate C in patients with chronic sensory neuropathy. *J Neuroimmunol* 1993; 43:79–86.
 75. Carpo M, Meucci N, Allaria S, et al. Antisulfatide IgM antibodies in peripheral neuropathy. *J Neurol Sci* 2000; 176: 144–50.
 76. Briani C, Berger JS, Latov N. Antibodies to chondroitin sulfate C: a new detection assay and correlations with neurological diseases. *J Neuroimmunol* 1998; 84: 117–21.
 77. Dabby R, Weimer LH, Hays AP, et al. Antisulfatide antibodies in neuropathy. *Neurology* 2000; 54:1448–52.
 78. Alaedini A, Sander HW, Hays AP, et al. Antiganglioside antibodies in multifocal acquired sensory and motor neuropathy. *Arch Neurol* 2003; 60:42–46.
 79. Connolly AM, Pestronk A. Anti-tubulin autoantibodies in acquired demyelinating polyneuropathies. *J Infect Dis* 1997; 176(Suppl 2):S157–59.
 80. Lopate G, Parks BJ, Goldstein J, et al. Polyneuropathies associated with high titre antisulfatide antibodies: characteristics of patients with and without serum monoclonal proteins. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1997; 62:581–85.
 81. Hao A, Saidi T, Kuroki S, et al. Antibodies to gangliosides and galactocerebroside in patients with Guillian-Barre syndrome with preceding *Campylobacter jejuni* and other identified infections. *J Neuroimmunol* 1998; 81:116–20.
 82. Rosenbluth J, Moon D. Demyelination induced in vitro by IgM antisulfatide and antigalactoside monoclonal antibodies. *J Neurosci Res* 2003; 71:104–09.
 83. Busby M, Donaghy M. Chronic dysimmune neuropathy. A subclassification based upon the clinical feature of 102 patients. *J Neurol* 2003; 250:714–24.
 84. McConnel R, Delgado-Tellez E, Cuadra R, et al. Organophosphate neuropathy due to methamidophos: biochemical and neurophysiological markers. *Arch Toxicol* 1999; 73:296–300.
 85. Salih M, Nixon NB, Dawes PT, et al. Prevalence of antibodies to neurofilament polypeptides in patients with rheumatoid arthritis complicated by peripheral neuropathy. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 1008; 16:689–94.
 86. Willson H, Yuki N. Peripheral neuropathies and anti-glycolipid antibodies. *Brain* 2002; 125:2591–2625.
 87. Walsh TJ, Hier DB, Caplan LR. Aspergillosis of the central nervous system: clinicopathological analysis of 27 patients. *Ann Neurol* 1985; 18:575–82.
 88. Walsh TJ, Hier DB, Caplan LR. Fungal infections of the central nervous system: comparative analysis of risk factors and clinical signs in 57 patients. *Neurology* 1985; 35:1654–57.
 89. Berger T, Rubner P, Schautzer F, et al. Antimyelin antibodies as a predictor of clinically definite multiple sclerosis after a first demyelinating event. *N Eng J Med* 2003 349:139–45.
 90. Reindl M, Linington C, Brehm U, et al. Antibodies against the myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein and the myelin basic protein in multiple sclerosis and other neurological diseases: a comparative study. *Brain* 1999; 122:2047–56.
-