

---

*REVIEW*

---

**Review and Hypothesis:  
Might Patients  
with the Chronic Fatigue Syndrome  
Have Latent Tetany  
of Magnesium Deficiency**

Mildred Seelig, MD, MPH

---

Mildred Seelig is Adjunct Professor of Nutrition, School of Public Health, University of North Carolina School of Medicine, Chapel Hill, NC and Adjunct Professor, Family and Preventive Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA.

Address correspondence to: Dr. Mildred Seelig, 1075-F North Jamestown Road, Decatur, GA 30033-3679.

Appreciation is expressed to Harry Preuss for suggesting that the author consider the possibility that magnesium deficiency might be a contributory factor in the pathogenesis of chronic fatigue syndrome for a joint session of the ACN and the AACFS, October, 1996, and to Kay Franz for undertaking a literature search for her on CFS and related disorders.

Journal of Chronic Fatigue Syndrome, Vol. 4(2) 1998  
©1998 by The Haworth Press, Inc. All rights reserved.

---

**ABSTRACT.** The latent tetany syndrome (LTS) parallels CFS in its neuromuscular and psychiatric manifestations, as well as in inner ear disturbances: vestibular in CFS and FM, as well as in LTS, and increased vulnerability to noise-induced deafness in LTS. Microvascular damage to the cochlea is seen in Mg deficiency, noise-induced deafness, and might be a

factor in migraine and other severe headaches in both LTS and in CFS and FM. Abnormal sleep patterns occur in both LTS and CFS; impaired cognition more in CFS than in LTS. However, some brain and neurotransmitter dysfunctions seen with Mg deficiency might be contributory to cognitive disorders of CFS. Mg loss caused by enhanced catecholamine release produced by stress may well be contributory to stress-induced acute episodes of CFS. Malfunctions of the cellular and humoral immunological systems are caused by experimental Mg deficiency. Whether allergies in CFS patients and abnormal response to antigenic challenge are results of low Mg remains to be proven. Mitral valve prolapse is seen in many LTS and CFS patients; whether a putative Mg deficiency predisposes to this abnormality is not known. Clinical improvement with Mg treatment has been proven in LTS, and seemed helpful in the rare cases of CFS and FM in whom it has been tried. The Mg status should be determined in patient with CFS and FM, but methodology is a handicap. Serum Mg is an inaccurate index. Three methods show promise. Percentage retention of a Mg load is accurate but requires patient's cooperation. Free ionic Mg measurement requires ion-selective electrodes. Blood cell Mg is reliable in a little more than half the patients; sublingual cell Mg seems more accurate. More intensive, and controlled studies of the Mg status of CFS and FM patients, and of their response to Mg therapy is desirable. [Article copies available for a fee from The Haworth Document Delivery Service: 1-800-342-9678. E-mail address: [getinfo@haworthpressinc.com](mailto:getinfo@haworthpressinc.com)]

**KEYWORDS.** LTS, CFS, FM Mg deficiency diagnosis, Mg therapy neuromuscular, immunology neurotransmitter sleep, cognition, deafness, vestibular disorders, migraine, mitral valve prolapse

### ***INTRODUCTION***

Chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) is widely recognized, is of uncertain etiology (1), and has created diagnostic confusion for centuries (2,3). Numerous environmental, metabolic, infectious, immunologic, and psychiatric disturbances have been implicated in the many complaints. When the syndrome was found to be associated with abnormal immunologic responses to infection, it was termed postinfectious neuromyasthenia, chronic virus infection, myalgic encephalomyelitis, "chronic fatigue immune dysfunction syndrome" (CFIDS), and fibromyalgia (FM) (1-9). Possibly pertinent to such disturbances are the abnormal immunologic findings in Mg deficiency (10- 13). There are many parallels in clinical manifestations and

dysfunctions in the latent tetany syndrome (LTS) of marginal magnesium (Mg) deficiency, and those of CFS, an observation made in 1992 (14), following publication of a small study that reported low erythrocyte Mg levels in patients with CFS and their favorable response to a six-week trial of weekly intramuscular Mg injections in most of them (15). Chronic fatigue, weakness, depression and anxiety, sleep disturbances, paresthesias and sensorineural hearing loss, as well as neuromuscular irritability and myalgias have long been known to respond to long-term Mg supplementation (16-21). That stress commonly precedes acute CFS events is another indication that Mg inadequacy might be a factor, because stress hormones cause Mg loss, and low Mg levels increase secretion of catecholamines (22,23). A few reports of CFS and FM improvement with Mg administration support the premise that low Mg or abnormality in its utilization might be contributory to their pathogenesis. **Thus, it is important to determine the Mg status in CFS and FM,** a need which has created difficulties because of methodological problems. Diagnostic tests to determine whether Mg deficiency exists, should allow for documentation of the possible value of Mg treatment in these conditions. Serum Mg levels, the easiest to measure, are least reliable (unless an ion-selective electrode is used to measure physiologically active free ionic Mg) **since most Mg is intracellular. Mg levels in blood cells or sublingual cells have provided better results,** and percentage retention of a Mg load has been accurate, but cumbersome. Carefully controlled, large clinical trials, with measurement of the Mg status before, during and after Mg supplementation, might clarify the pathogenesis, as well as providing a new therapeutic approach to those patients with CFS who have low Mg levels.

***NEUROMUSCULAR AND PSYCHIATRIC CLINICAL SIGNS  
OF LTS, CFS, AND FM, AND RESPONSE  
TO MAGNESIUM THERAPY:  
MUSCLE SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS***

*LTS:* Muscle weakness, fatigue, and pain (aching and/or cramps with spasms or tetany) characterize LTS patients, in whom Mg deficiency has been identified. Abnormal electrical activity of muscles, elicited by electromyographic (EMG) recordings under conditions of ischemia (induced with a blood pressure cuff), has long been recognized as a diagnostic finding in LTS, in which marginally low serum Mg, but more consistently, low red blood cell (rbc) levels are seen. First identified in Belgium and France almost forty years ago, it was termed "cryptotetany" or "spasmophilia" (24-

26). This condition has since been widely reported in continental Europe (16, 27-32). This test has not been applied in patients with CFS or FM.

The first published American case of latent tetany in which marginal Mg deficiency but normal calcium levels was associated with serum Mg levels at the low limit (1.65 mEq/L) of the accepted normal range, was reported in 1971 (33). Her long-standing complaints--including weakness, chronic fatigue, depression, insomnia, and generalized pruritus (requiring very large doses of anti-histamine drug for control) had led the patient to a cardiologist after an internist, an allergist, and a psychiatrist had failed to diagnose her condition, or to institute therapy that alleviated symptoms, other than transitory relief of pruritus with anti-histamines. Because she had manifestations similar to those of LTS, we undertook a Mg-load/retention test. She retained a high percentage of a Mg (intramuscular) load. An EMG study run before the test injection of Mg disclosed repetitive muscle twitches, that substantially diminished several hours after an intramuscular injection of Mg. The predisposing condition in this patient was then found to be renal Mg wasting. It was speculated that this might have been contributory to co-existing decreased tubular chloride reabsorption, with increased intracellular and interstitial fluid volume (clinically expressed by slight edema) and normotensive aldosteronism. (34). Daily oral MgCl<sub>2</sub> supplements and weekly intramuscular MgSO<sub>4</sub> injections maintained her essentially free of complaints for more than five years, following which she was lost to follow-up.

In an American clinic that treated patients with neuropsychiatric disorders often brought on by stress (18), among 50 such patients who had serum Mg levels within that laboratory's range of normal (1.4-2.1 mEq/L, mean = 1.69 ± 0.41), low rbc Mg (mean 4.65 ± 0.31 mEq/L, range 2.72-5.80) was found in half. These disparate findings suggest that the rbc Mg is a better determinant of Mg but also suggest that the low limit of the "normal" serum Mg might actually be subnormal. The parenteral Mg load test, to determine tissue Mg deficiency, confirmed Mg deficiency in 80% of those with low rbc Mg. Of these, 64% had high urinary Mg output before the Mg load (suggestive of renal Mg wasting). Chvostek's sign (ChvS) was present in 36 (72%). In an extension of this study, all 75 patients with ChvS had ischemic EMG tracings indicative of LTS. As a guide to prevalence of LTS in those populations, the frequency of ChvS was, therefore, assessed in 100 women seeking routine gynecologic care and in 24 patients with agoraphobia. ChvS was present in 26% of gynecologic patients and in 74% of the agoraphobic.

The presence of ChvS was positively correlated with myospastic symptomatology in both groups.

It is not surprising that in LTS, where demonstration of subnormal Mg levels is part of the diagnosis, prolonged Mg therapy has been reported to relieve symptoms, and to restore the patients to normal activities of life (14,16-21,24-34). Nor should it be surprising that in CFS/FM clinics where Mg deficiency is not suspected, the Mg status is rarely investigated, and its possible therapeutic utility has rarely been explored.

*CFS:* Several early papers, in which Mg and potassium aspartate treatment of chronic fatigue was reported to be effective, had not elicited the more recently identified CFS characteristics, and thus might not have been true CFS (35-39). Experimental evidence that these salts improved energy metabolism (41,42) justified their oral administration to patients suffering from depressive anxiety and fatigue, even on awakening, that increased during the day, as well as headaches, that were often preceded by illness or stress.

The first study to test the hypothesis that CFS patients have low tissue levels of Mg and that Mg treatment would improve their well-being, was reported in England in 1991(15). Determination of rbc Mg of 20 CFS patients and of 20 healthy controls matched for age, sex, and social class disclosed that CFS patients had lower rbc Mg than did controls. In a double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial, 32 CFS patients were randomly allocated to an intramuscular injection of MgSO<sub>4</sub> (1 g 50%) weekly for six weeks (#15) or to placebo (#17). Twelve of those receiving the Mg claimed better energy levels, and improved emotional state, and less myalgic pain than did patients given placebo. The rbc Mg became normal in all Mg-treated patients, but in only one of the control patients given placebo. That brief paper evoked several letters to the editor (42-48). Two suggested that the favorable effect of Mg in muscle fatigue might be a consequence of the role of Mg in energy metabolism in the mitochondria (42,43); one wondered how such a small amount of Mg could be beneficial (44); one pointed out limitations of laboratory Mg determinations (45) and several failed to confirm low rbc Mg findings in CFS patients (8), or in either CFS or FM (45-48). To evaluate the role of Mg in CFS or FM there was need for more extensive studies, of longer duration (49). A letter reporting on a study of several hundred CFS patients whose rbc Mg was analyzed commented that normal Mg values were never found in 12 consecutive patients (50). Another paper reported

only slightly low rbc Mg in FM patients (51), one failed to confirm lower than control rbc Mg values in CFS patients (52), and one has recently reported lower than control mean rbc Mg levels in CFS patients: 2.05 and 2.43 mmol/L rbc, respectively, but no difference in serum values (53). Referring to the weekly Mg injections that were found beneficial in CFS (15), a letter (48) and a brief report of trial of Mg in CFS (52) commented on failure to confirm demonstration of Mg retention after a Mg load, that did not yield clinical improvement a week after the single injection. However, it should not be expected that a single intramuscular Mg injection would produce detectable clinical improvement in a chronic disorder. This was cautioned by the pioneer in LTS studies, who recommended that after laboratory evidence of Mg deficiency is sought, sustained oral Mg administration (5 mg of Mg daily) should be provided, with clinical evaluation repeated monthly (14).

Long-term Mg treatment induced substantial improvement of a young Japanese woman with chronic general malaise, low grade fever, swelling of lymph nodes, myalgias and arthralgias, as well as headache and insomnia, that was diagnosed as CFS (54). Additional findings were eosinophilia, high serum immunoglobulin E, and low natural killer cell (NK) activity. After failure of treatment with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, minor tranquilizers and anti-depressant drugs, intravenous MgSO<sub>4</sub> was given once a week. After six weekly Mg infusions, the patient noticed less vulnerability to fatigue and improvement in her impaired daily activities. After six months of sustained Mg treatment she was able to leave the hospital. A Japanese review (55) reported that measures to restore NK cell activity and other immunologic abnormalities seemed promising, unlike antidepressants which relieved only depressive anxiety. They cited trials with Mg treatment of CFS patients, that were reported to improve CFS patients' sense of well-being. (See below for discussion of Mg and immunology.)

*FM:* Low tissue levels of Mg have been reported in FM, with and without eosinophilia (56). That the above CFS patient and some FM patients exhibit eosinophilia is intriguing in drawing parallels between FM and LTS, in view of the long-known eosinophilia of experimental Mg deficiency (57). A FM patient (56) had persistent myalgias, cramping, and weakness not responsive to therapy. Despite normal serum Mg, the Mg load/retention test suggested low tissue Mg. Parenteral Mg produced dramatic improvement in symptoms and raised intracellular Mg. After cessation of Mg treatment, his symptoms

recurred. Reinstitution of Mg treatment again led to symptomatic improvement.

### ***Sleep Patterns and Electroencephalography***

*LTS*: EEG and clinical analysis of sleep in 100 cases of *LTS* disclosed shortened sleep cycles and frequent pseudoawakenings, with quick shifts from one sleep stage to another (58). It was postulated that the sleep disorder of Mg deficiency in humans, as well as in rats, might be related to catecholamine excess, abnormal cerebral monoamines, histamine, and other neurotransmitters. A Romanian team of investigators (59) demonstrated that in a study of 397 hypomagnesemic patients 107, who were selected for *LTS*, had no sign of organic cerebral lesion. In those cases, EEG and EMG changes were studied before, during and after hyperpnea. Analysis of computerized EEG maps disclosed temporo-spatial cortical distribution of the sinusoidal slow waves generated by the reticulate neuronal hypersynchrony. In a further study of ten such patients who had the restless leg syndrome without other neuropsychiatric conditions that could generate restless legs findings, EEG recordings demonstrated reticular neuronal hypersynchrony generated by hyperpnea (sinusoidal slow waves) (60). Classical EEG studies indicated neuromuscular hyperexcitability. Continuous 8-hour polysomnography disclosed sleep disorders: agitated sleep with frequent nocturnal awakenings, increased percentage and duration of light slow-wave sleep, and rapid, frequent changes of various stages of light slow wave sleep and of rapid eye movement (REM) sleep (as in other parasomnias caused by Mg deficiency).

Another team of investigators showed that Mg supplementation normalized the disturbed sleep of rats that had been fed a Mg deficient diet for 40 days (61). They then found that Mg-deficient rats sleep less than normal, but unlike sleep-deprived rats fed full diets, which have elevated brain serotonin, their dopamine content had risen, but brain serotonin level was normal (62). Since serotonin uptake is Mg-dependent, the authors suggest that the failure to exhibit increased brain serotonin might be due to depressed serotonin accumulation. Electropolygraphic (EPG) tracings, recorded at regular intervals, showed that Mg repletion restored to normal both monoamine metabolites (brain dopamine levels and 5-hydroxy-indoleacetic acid) and the EEG, as well as decreasing vigilance wakefulness and increasing sleep (63,64). Further studies disclosed that the cerebral monoamines, including norepinephrine and serotonin, homovanillic acid, and 5-hydroxy-

indoleacetic acid, are affected by Mg deficiency. The structures most affected are hypothalamus, brain stem, and corpus striatum, structures that have important roles in maintenance of vigilance, as well as in various regulatory functions: neuroendocrine (hypothalamus), autonomic (brain stem) and motor (corpus striatum) (64).

*CFS and FM:* Sleep disturbances characterized by polysomnography as showing a prominent alpha EEG nonrapid eye movement sleep anomaly have been accepted as part of the syndrome in CFS and FM patients (65-75) that accompanies increased nocturnal vigilance and light, unrefreshing sleep (70). The degree of sleep impairment, which leads to overwhelming daytime weariness, has been proposed as a contributory factor to the fatigue component of CFS and FM. It has been suggested that agents that affect central nervous system neurotransmitters, particularly those that affect serotonin, may have potential in management of this condition; and should be evaluated in large controlled clinical trials (71).

Experimental studies have linked immune-neuroendocrine-thermal systems and the sleepwake cycle (70,75). Whether alterations, either by drug therapy or by Mg supplementation in appropriate cases, of aspects of the systems that accompany disordered sleep physiology might correct the nonrestorative sleep, pain, fatigue, cognitive and mood symptoms in patients with FM or CFS remains to be ascertained.

### *Cognitive Disorders*

*LTS:* Apart from subjective reports of diminished ability to concentrate by LTS patients (20), no data on cognitive impairment in LTS has been found, even though the abnormal sleep found in LTS (58) might be expected to lead to transient diminished cognitive capacity. On the other hand, severe human Mg deficiency causes brain dysfunction that can include apathy, poor memory, confusion, disorientation and hallucinations, before coma or convulsions ensue (76). Alcoholism, which has long been known to be one of the important causes of Mg deficiency (76-79), has more recently been implicated in the learning defects of infants borne to alcoholic mothers, via the resultant Mg loss-induced abnormality in regulation of the NMDA receptor (80, 81), which has been proposed to be important in learning (81,82). Additionally, Mg administration has been shown to lessen cognitive dysfunction caused by experimental trauma (83) or directly by perinatal NMDA-induced brain damage in rats (84), mice (85) or piglets (86).

*CFS*: Cognitive dysfunction that includes impaired attention, loss of ability to concentrate, and memory loss is not uncommon in CFS (65,70,87-97). It is not often detectable by magnetic resonance imaging and single-photon emission computed tomography that indicate cortical lesions (95,96). These changes may appear abruptly, and are often associated with mood changes (90). Response-related processes (91) and tasks requiring conceptually driven encoding and retrieval processes and conceptualization (92) are the findings in CFS that differ most from controls. The overall pattern indicates a significant memory deficit, which is consistent with temporal-limbic dysfunction and differs from that of depressed patients and control subjects (94). Patients have been found to be impaired on tests of spatial span, spatial working memory, and selective reminding condition of pattern-location associated learning, but not in executive test of planning (97). In an attentional test, eight patients were unable to learn a response set; the remainder exhibited no impairment in the executive set shifting phase of the test. CFS patients were also impaired on verbal tests of unrelated word association learning and letter fluency. Better performance on cognitive measures occurred with improvement in fatigue and depression (97).

### ***Inner Ear Disturbances***

*LTS*: Vestibular disorders and occult nystagmus are often seen in patients with US (20,98-100). Additionally, sensorineural hearing loss that may be sudden in onset and that improves with Mg supplementation has occurred in LTS (22,98,101). Since experimental Mg deficiency in rats intensifies hearing loss caused by sound, and Mg supplementation is protective (102-108), Mg-supplementation trials were undertaken in soldiers exposed to loud noise (of gunshots) during training, and in pilots (107). In noise-exposed pilots, the effect of oral Mg-supplement prophylaxis was tested in a placebo-controlled double blind study involving 320 volunteers with normal hearing during a two-month period for its effect on noise-induced hearing loss. Audiograms of all test subjects were compared with pre-entry values and permanent threshold shifts were determined. Loss of hearing after exposure to noise was twice as high in the placebo group as in those receiving supplemental Mg. Prophylactic and Mg dosage effects were tested in humans occupationally exposed to repeated hazardous noise in a placebo-controlled double-blind study with 540 volunteers, who were instructed to use ear plugs when exposed to noise (108). Hearing acuity and Mg levels in serum, rbc, lymphocytes and urine were determined before, during, and after 3-6 months of noise exposure. Subjects received a daily drink containing 3,

5, or 6.7 mmoles Mg as the aspartate or placebo. Significantly greater bilateral hearing damage, that was negatively correlated with rbc: Mg and particularly with lymphocyte Mg. Significantly positive effects were seen at 5 and 6.7 mmole Mg dosages, in that that was less hearing loss, that correlated with elevated intracellular Mg values.

*CFS and FM:* My survey of the literature has not disclosed reports of deafness in CFS patients, but abnormalities of vestibular function have been found (109). Among patients with FM, more than a quarter have low frequency sensorineural hearing loss and almost three quarters have low painful sound threshold (110), and they often complain of nonspecific dysequilibrium. verified by objective tests (110- 112).

### ***Migraine and Other Severe Headaches***

*LTS:* Migraine headaches are prevalent in US patients (20-22,113,114), as well as in women with eclampsia and other complicated pregnancies, conditions that are also commonly associated with low Mg levels (113,115-119). The greater frequency of migraine in women, particularly between 20 and 50 years of age than in men (115,119) and in those with LTS before menopause (p. 90 in ref 20), suggests that estrogen might play a role, possibly in those with marginal Mg intakes, by shifting blood Mg to bone (120). Migraine headaches have been shown to be associated with subnormal Mg levels: in brain (by nonmagnetic resonance (121), in blood-serum, red and white blood cells (122-127), and by ionized serum Mg determination (128), as have tension-, persistent, and cluster-headaches (129,130). Several mechanisms, entailing interaction with or presence of low levels of Mg, have been considered in the pathogenesis of migraine (115,117,120,131,132). Mg has been reported effective prophylactically and therapeutically against migraine attacks (123,128-130,133,134). Determination of free ionic serum Mg by ion-selective electrode technic has been shown to differentiate between headaches that respond to Mg therapy and those that do not (128-130).

*CFS and FM.-* As with LTS, there is a greater incidence of headaches, especially migraine, but also tension-, persistent, and cluster-headaches among patients with CFS or FM than among subjects not prone to such headaches (21,90,95,110,145,146). Another similarity with LTS is the greater frequency of migraine in women than in men that is seen also in CFS and FM (1,137,138).

### ***Mitral Valve Prolapse***

*LTS:* A cardiac abnormality that has been reported to occur commonly in LTS is mitral valve prolapse (MVP) (17,20,139-148) and hypomagnesemia has been reported in as many as 85% of MVP patients (149). It has been proposed that LTS patients are vulnerable to development of MVP if their Mg deficiency has not been repaired (20,139,140). A suggested mechanism by which Mg deficiency might predispose to MVP might be by interfering with the mechanism by which fibroblasts degrade defective collagen (141,146).

*CFS and FM.* Echocardiograms disclosed a 75% incidence of MVP in FM (110). In a series of 115 patients with symptoms of fatigue and, activity impairment, atypical precordial pain, and cardiac arrhythmia, that preceded by years development of congestive heart failure, 27 were diagnosed as having MVP, and 28 had CFS; of 60 patients with hypertension, 36% had combined MVP and fatigue (150).

### ***IMMUNOLOGIC DYSFUNCTIONS OF LTS AND CFS AND FM***

*LTS:* The occurrence of urticaria and extraordinarily high requirement

for and tolerance of anti-histaminic drugs in a patient with LTS, and the reduction in need for pruritus-controlling treatment with elevation of serum Mg to the normal range, was first noted in the United States in 1975 (33). The same year, a review was published in France, that reported that more than half the patients with allergies associated with urticaria, and/or rhinitis, conjunctivitis, or asthma had Mg deficiency, usually associated with latent tetany (151). An analysis of 405 cases of non-infectious rhinopathy showed Mg deficiency in 52%; 17% with allergy and 35% with pseudo-allergic vasomotor rhinitis, a clinical form of LTS. Allergic rhinitis is familial and is associated with elevated IgE (98). The pseudo-allergic rhinitis form is provoked by stress, and positive skin tests involve histamine, acetylcholine or compound 48-80 (152,153). The role of Mg in immediate allergic reactions, associated with histamine release and eosinophilia has been reported in patients with bronchial asthma, whose rbc Mg decreases during an acute attack (154). Low levels of Mg in polymorphonuclear cells, but normal serum and rbc Mg have been documented in 50 patients with bronchial asthma between attacks (155). Asthmatic patients in clinical remission could tolerate larger amounts of administered histamine (in a

histamine-bronchoprovocation test) after inhalation of aerosolized Mg sulfate, in a randomized double-blind test (156). The relevance of this observation to acute treatment of severe attacks of asthma has been demonstrated, but only with use of intravenously administered pharmacologic doses of MgSO<sub>4</sub> (157-162). At the high therapeutic levels, Mg inhibits histamine-induced bronchial constriction. That high dietary Mg is associated with better lung function and decreased risk of airway hyper-reactivity and wheezing has been demonstrated in a random sample of adults 18 to 70 years of age (163). With ranges of 182-654 mg of dietary Mg in men and 160-527 mg in women, 100 mg higher intake of Mg was associated with significantly better pulmonary function and decreased odds of self-reported wheeze in 12 months of follow-up.

Also seen in the American patient detailed in 1975 (33) was chronic mucocutaneous and paronychia candidiasis, which suggests impaired cell-mediated immunity and abnormal T-lymphocyte function. The frequency with which this form of *Candida* infection occurs in patients with LTS was determined in 50 patients (164). Recurrent or chronic infections with *C albicans* was reported by 34% of that group, either in the past or at time of examination, and 48% had type I hypersensitivity to *C albicans* extract intradermal testing.

*CFS and FM*: Both humoral and cellular immunologic dysfunctions have been reported in CFS (5-9,165-170). The abnormalities are in accord with evidence suggesting chronic, low-level activation of the immune system (165,166). There is high prevalence of allergic manifestations--from cutaneous allergies to eosinophilia and eosinophil activation, detectable by measurement in serum of eosinophil cationic protein in CFS patients (168,169). Although there are low levels of circulating immune complexes and of several autoantibodies (particularly antinuclear and antithyroid and several monoclonal antibodies to T- and B-lymphocytes [1661]), there are modestly elevated levels of Epstein-Barr virus-related antibodies, immunoglobulin G to viral capsid antigen and to early antigen (5). Extensively investigated as possibly playing an etiologic role in CFS and FM are viral infections. Epstein-Barr and herpes viruses, enteroviruses, influenza viruses, and parvovirus have been suspected (171-178). However, the premise that persistent virus or other infections cause these diseases is being questioned (180-184).

Among cytokines tested, serum transforming growth factor beta (TGF- beta) levels were elevated in CFS patients (167). Release of interleukin 1 beta (IL-1 beta), stimulated by lipopolysaccharide, release of IL-6 stimulated by phytohemagglutinin, and tumor necrosis factor-alpha were significantly increased in peripheral blood mononuclear cell cultures from CFS patients as compared to controls. Enhanced release of inflammatory cytokines by such cell cultures from CFS patients suggests that these cells are primed for increased response to immune stimuli, indicating association between abnormal regulation of these humoral factors with the immunologic consequence of CFS and FM (110, 167).

Reduction of numbers of natural killer (NK) cells, and in their activity, is also found in CFS patients (5-9,110,170). It has been proposed that this might increase susceptibility to cancer, particularly non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and brain cancer; clusters of CFS preceded cancer in an epidemiologic study (90,184,185). Restoration of NK activity by biological response modifiers, has been reported to produce improvement in CFS patients (55).

### ***POSSIBLE MAGNESIUM-DEFICIENCY MEDIATED MECHANISMS IN CFS AND FM***

#### ***Immunologic Aberrations***

Activation of viruses in CFS patients, observed by investigators into viral factors, is analagous to the evidence that among subjects vaccinated with influenza vaccine. Those exhibiting increased antibody levels for all strains have significantly lower rbc Mg than do those with lower titers (186,187). The difference in immune response, that was related to the rbc Mg level was found to be linked to the major histocompatibility complex (HLA type). BW35 subjects had both increased antibody response and low rbc Mg levels (187). This genetic variable suggests a reason for individual differences in reactions to marginal Mg deficiencies. Familial differences in absorption and excretion of Mg and the high heritability of tissue Mg levels that has been associated with the major histocompatibility complex, may influence individual and familial variability in susceptibility to immunologic disorders.

There are many facets of humoral and cellular immunology that are affected by Mg. Early studies of the effects of Mg deficiency in rats provided the first clues that Mg inadequacy can cause histamine release, as manifested by

cutaneous hyperemia and inflammation (57,188,189). As much as ten-fold increase in eosinophilia caused by Mg deficiency (57) preceded release of histamine and serotonin (190). Experimental Mg deficiency depresses cell-mediated immunity, it impairs phagocytic activity, as well as lymphocytic function (11). Mg participates in the T-cell mediated immunity that requires cooperation of the mononuclear phagocyte system and is involved in production of cytokines, interleukins, interferons, transforming growth factor, and tumor necrosis factor. In severely Mg deficient rodents, it was found that there were greatly increased plasma concentrations of inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor, of IL-1, IL-6, and the inflammatory neuropeptide, substance P (63,191).

A final immunologic parallel in CFS and Mg deficiency is the decreased numbers and activity of natural killer (NK) or cytotoxic T-cells (*supra vide* and 192), which might contribute to the postulated increased predilection to lymphoid and other cancers in CFS patients (90,184,185), and to the development of thymic lymphomas and leukemias in Mg deficient rats (193,194). Also, immunosurveillance against implanted neoplastic cells seems to be diminished by Mg deficiency (195). Higher frequencies of lymphomas and both lympholeukemias and granuloleukemias of cattle and humans have been associated with areas in Poland with mineral (e.g., Mg) deficiencies (196).

### ***STRESS***

Acute episodes of CFS and FM are often precipitated by exposure to stress, whether emotional or physical. The resultant increased catecholamine release, which increases Mg loss, can be a factor in CFS and FM. Paradoxically, low levels of Mg intensify the secretion of the catecholamines (reviewed elsewhere [23]), thus increasing the risk of adverse effects of stress.

### ***Noise, Inner Ear, Migraine and Sex Difference***

The inner ear disturbances (vestibular and auditory) seen in CFS and FM have also been seen in LTS and in the case of patients with LTS have been protected against by Mg therapy. The stress of loud noise causes Mg loss and intensifies the need for Mg. Increased catecholamines have been implicated in constriction of cochlear arteries with reduction of cochlear blood flow and of Mg levels in fluid around hair cells, with increased influx

of sodium and calcium and disturbance of energy metabolism of the inner ear (103-106). Possibly the mechanism might also entail Mg deficiency-induced release of substance P, which induces expression of the endothelium-leukocyte adhesion molecule of the cochlear microvasculature (63), further reducing cochlear blood flow. In Mg deficient guinea-pigs and rats that had hearing loss after noise exposure for four weeks, the loss of hearing correlated negatively with perilymph and rbc Mg levels (103,105). The deafness was induced both from the direct auditory trauma, and from the Mg deficit. The stria is the metabolic energy source of the cochlea. The apex of the cochlea is where the low frequency sounds are transduced; since that is where the blood supply is most distal, it is the area most vulnerable to impairment of blood flow (197).

The foregoing studies of Mg and deafness were all with men. Low frequency deafness occurs more frequently in post-menopausal women with cardiovascular disease than in young women and men (197,198). Estrogen allows for better Mg utilization when on a marginal Mg intake (120) such as is characteristic of the Western diet (198-201), an observation that led to speculation that this advantage might be a factor in the lesser cardiovascular disease rates in young women than in young men (198). Mg protects against development of cardiovascular disease (202-204), especially that associated with microangiopathy that gives rise to cardiomyopathy (204). Thus, it is plausible that the microvascular lesions of the inner ear might similarly be contributed to by Mg deficiency, that occurs with loss of the metabolic advantage conferred by estrogen. In fact, the vascular damage that has been implicated in the low frequency hearing loss seen more in elderly women with cardiovascular disease than in the same age men with such disease affects the capillaries and arterioles of the stria vascularis (197).

Whether Mg deficiency is contributory to deafness that is not precipitated by loud noise, or that is sex-linked, is speculative. The finding that acutely Mg deficient weanling litter-mate rats that did not die in convulsions on exposure to blasts of noise exhibited markedly decreased response to sound (205) is a provocative preliminary observations.

Another condition that occurs with greater frequency in women, between the ages of 20 and 50 years than in men (115,119), in US before the menopause (p. 20 in ref 20), and CFS and FM (1,137,138) is migraine. In this instance, estrogen shifts blood Mg to bone, resulting in lowering of circulating Mg, particularly in those with marginal Mg intakes (120). Among the

mechanisms considered in the pathogenesis of migraine are several in which low serum or brain Mg might play a role. As serum Mg falls, the counteraction by Mg of the procoagulative effect of calcium cannot take effect (120). This constitutes a serious problem, especially in LTS women on high estrogen oral contraceptives, whose tendency to develop thromboembolic events is reduced by Mg supplements (206). Additional Mg-influenced substances that affect platelet aggregation, blood coagulation and vasoconstriction include those increased by Mg deficiency: thromboxane, endothelin, and endothelial-derived contracting factor: EDCF which increased risk, and those that are increased by optimal Mg levels and that decrease risk: prostacycline and endothelial-derived relaxing factor: EDRF (207-209).

Counteraction by Mg of blood coagulation and vasoconstriction might be mechanisms by which Mg limits brain hypoxia. In addition, Mg reduces serotonin-induced spasms of (canine) cerebral arteries (210), and excess serotonin has been found to be released from platelets of migraineurs (211). Regional cortical oligemia, that outlasts electrical depression of cortical neurons during a migraine attack (212,213) precedes an attack of migraine. Central neuronal hyperexcitability involves overactivity of the excitatory amino acids (214). Stimuli that activate the migraine attack evoke neuronal depolarization, slow depolarization shifts, and spreading suppression of spontaneous neuronal activity, possibly by glutamate and K<sup>+</sup> dependent mechanisms. Low brain Mg<sup>2+</sup>, which has been identified in migraineurs (121) and consequent reduced gating of glutamatergic receptors may provide the link between the physiologic threshold for a migraine attack and the mechanisms of the attack itself by promoting glutamate hyperactivity, neuronal hyperexcitability, and susceptibility to glutamate-dependent spreading depression.

### ***Neurologic; Neurotransmitter Effects of Magnesium***

It has long been known that Mg deficiency causes neuromuscular excitability that occurs early (20). Experimental Mg deficiency-induced sustained release of histamine-which it has been suggested might function as a central neurotransmitter (216), which might contribute to increased neurologic irritability of severe Mg deficiency. Recent resurgence of interest in the neurologic consequences of Mg deficiency has stemmed from the finding that Mg, at physiologic levels, blocks neuronal N-methyl-D-aspartate:NMDA (218). NMDA-receptors are normally activated by

glutamate and/or aspartate which are the principal neurotransmitters for excitatory synaptic transmission. This knowledge provides a mechanistic explanation for the anticonvulsive activity of Mg, since the epileptiform activity of Mg deficiency is blocked by other NMDA receptor antagonists. Excitatory amino acids have been shown to be highly sensitive to extracellular free ionic Mg (219). Mg also decreases motor neurone responses evoked by norepinephrine, and by the inflammatory neuropeptide (substance P\*), in isolated rat spinal cord. But these effects were not as marked as the Mg decrease of NMDA-induced responses. In addition, Mg deficiency increases production of substance P-which is found in central nervous system neurons. Through its proinflammatory and free radical-releasing effects, substance P might be contributory to the irritability caused by Mg deficiency (220).

### ***PROBLEMS IN DETERMINING CLINICAL MAGNESIUM STATUS***

Interpretation of measured Mg levels is difficult. Serum levels are the easiest to obtain but provide the least reliable index, since less than 1% of the total body Mg is in the serum (221,222). Determination of free ionic Mg in serum by an ion-selective electrode (IS) has promise, since it seems to reflect the Mg that is physiologically active (128-130,223-225). Red blood cells or mononuclear blood cells might be utilized, but there has been some questions as to methodology, applicability, and sensitivity,(221,226). Study of percentage retention of a parenteral load of Mg (227,228), or if that is inconvenient, by retention of an oral loading test be evaluated (229), is a reliable index of total body Mg. A non-invasive technic of measuring whole cell Mg content in sublingual cells has become commercially available (230). (For information on sublingual cell test: Intracellular Diagnostics, Inc., 1-800-874-4804) It has provided data from the sublingual cells that correlate well with cardiac tissue levels (230,231), with severe depression (232) and with chronic disorders with characteristics of CFS, termed electromagnetic dysthymia (233). In a recent study of 100 patients with significant depression with and without chronic pain, who were tested for Mg deficiency by both parenteral load and white blood cell (wbc) Mg, all retained over 50% of the Mg load, but only 60% had low wbc Mg (232). The sublingual test for Mg was as reliable as the parenteral Mg load test (232,234). In seven patients shown to be Mg deficient by this test, administration of intravenous MgSO<sub>4</sub> (2 grams daily for 10 days), then exhibited normal sublingual cell Mg. In a personal communication, CN Shealy has informed me that of 25 consecutive CFS patients, 72% exhibited

Mg deficiency by the sublingual cell test. Controlled clinical trial of Mg supplementation, with monthly clinical evaluation has been suggested as a means to ascertain whether Mg deficiency is a factor in CFS (14).

### *CONCLUDING COMMENTS*

Since there is no satisfactory therapy for CFS, and there is a Mg-responsive condition: LTS-which resembles CFS and FM, the Mg status of CFS patients should be evaluated. But it is the determination of Mg deficiency that has constituted the major handicap in understanding its significance in clinical medicine. Comparison of the manifestations of the Mg dependent LTS, and those in which the possible role of Mg in the pathogenesis of the disease is rarely considered (CFS and FM), and the mechanisms by which Mg inadequacy might cause the manifestations, suggest that the relationships are more than coincidental. Muscle weakness and pain, chronic fatigue, depression, insomnia and other sleep disorders are the neuromuscular findings common to both. Cognitive impairment is definite in CFS. Although brain dysfunction and actual damage has been noted only in severe Mg deficiency (in rodents or in alcoholics), objective tests of cognition in LTS patients are necessary to confirm subjective complaints of impaired ability to concentrate. Effects of Mg on neurotransmitters and on inflammatory substance release, might explain symptomatic benefit achieved by Mg supplements in LTS. It seems worth determining whether Mg supplements are applicable also to those disorders when part of the CFS.

Noise-associated deafness in adults that is protected against by Mg supplementation, and the evidence that deafness and vestibular disorders can be associated with Mg deficiency in weanling rodents may well reflect cochlear microvascular damage in humans with ear disorders. An additional disorder that is associated with (cerebral) microangiopathy is migraine-that is frequent both in CFS and LTS. Diagnosis of mitral valve prolapse is more common both in the disorder that is clearly associated with Mg deficiency and in CFS and FM.

The evidence that Mg deficiency causes a variety of both humoral and cellular defense disturbances, among which are several that have been identified in CFS and FM, is a reason to suspect that either Mg deficiency or its abnormal utilization might be a pathogenic factor in CFS. It has been suggested that the immunologic response to infection that often precedes CFS may be linked to the nervous system and to catecholamine release and

to that of pituitary hormones (235). An intriguing hypothesis: "neurogenic switching" ties together allergies (e.g., of "sick building syndrome" or multiple chemical sensitivity syndrome) with immunogenic inflammation and neurogenic inflammation, mediated by substance P or other neuropeptides (236). Neurogenic switching is proposed as a mechanism by which a stimulus at one site can result in distant inflammation, that is hypothesized to play a role in food allergy-inducing asthma, urticaria, arthritis, and provides a mechanism to explain how allergens, infectious agents, irritants and emotional stress can exacerbate such conditions, including migraine and FM (236). Release of histamine, which binds to sensory nerves to produce an afferent signal, is rerouted via the central nervous system to another site. Since Mg deficiency results both in early release of substance P and in subsequent histamine release, it might be appropriate to add Mg deficiency to the neurogenic switching hypothesis.

Another postulate, stemming from work with severely Mg deficient rodents, sheds light on the mechanism of the immunopathology resulting from inflammatory damage induced (via neuropeptides: substance P and calcitonin gene-related peptide) (220,237). The resultant excessive T lymphocyte cytokine production is important in the free radical production seen in Mg deficiency (191,220,237,238). Although patients with CFS, or even LTS, have nowhere near the degree of Mg deficiency that was produced experimentally in mice, rats and guinea pigs to produce immunopathology (that mimics in part that seen in CFS and LTS), it is possible that at fault in the human syndromes might be Mg transport mechanisms, perhaps genetically controlled.

The use of Mg, as one of the down-regulators of NMDA firing, has been suggested to control the immune disease manifestations of CFS, and the evidence of free radical injury to the brain in CFS (239) supports the rationale for combined Mg and antioxidant therapy in CFS. The finding that Mg deficiency is associated with free radical production, (as well as having direct effects on immunologic mechanisms) suggests that the Mg effect might be enhanced by adding antioxidants to Mg treatment also of LTS. It is provocative that magnesium and taurine (an antioxidant amino acid) has been proposed as therapy for migraine (132) and for the complex of complaints termed electromagnetic dysthymia, which includes CFS as an extreme case (233).

A final personal observation is that the similarities of complaints that lead to diagnoses of CFS or LTS, and the evidence as to Mg-dependent mechanisms involved that explain the benefit of Mg in LTS, when given for long enough to correct a presumed long-term deficiency, suggest that the parallels between these two syndromes exist because they may actually be one syndrome. Might it be that in clinics where Mg status is investigated, the diagnosis is LTS; where it is not, the diagnosis is CFS or FM?

## REFERENCES

1. Shafran SD. The chronic fatigue syndrome. *Am J Med* 1991; 90:730-739.
2. Straus SE. History of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Rev Infect Dis* 1991; 13 Suppl 1:S2-7.
3. Shorter E. Chronic fatigue in historical perspective. *Ciba Found Symp* 1993; 173:6-22.
4. Levine P. Epidemic neuromyasthenia and chronic fatigue syndrome: Epidemiological importance of a cluster definition. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1: S16-20.
5. Buchwald D, Komaroff AL. Review of laboratory findings for patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Rev Infect Dis* 1991; 13 Suppl 1:S12-18.
6. Gupta S, Vayuvegula B. A comprehensive immunological analysis in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Scand J Immunol* 1991; 33:319-327.
7. Buchwald D, Cheney PR, Peterson DL et al. A chronic illness characterized by fatigue, neurologic and immunologic disorders, and active human herpes-virus type 6 infection. *Ann Intern Med* 1992; 116:103-113.
8. Lloyd AR, Wakefield D, Hickie. Immunity and the pathophysiology of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Ciba Foundation Sympos.* 1993; 173:176-187; discussion 187-192.
9. Barker E, Fujimura SF, Fadem MS et al. Immunologic abnormalities associated with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1: S136-141.

10. Gaudin-Harding R Magnesium and immune system: Recent advances. *Magnesium Bul* 3(1a):229-236 (in French, English abstract).
11. McCoy JH, Kenney MA. Magnesium and immune function: A review. In: Altura BM, Durlach J, Seelig MS, eds. *Magnesium in Cellular Processes and Medicine*, Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 1987:195-211.
12. Galland L. Magnesium and immune function: An overview. *Magnesium* -290 1988; 7. -299.
13. McCoy JH, Kenney MA. Magnesium and immune function: Recent findings. *Magnesium Res* 1992; 5:281-293.
14. Durlach J. Chronic fatigue syndrome and chronic primary magnesium deficiency (CFS and CPMD). *Magnesium Res* 1992; 5:68.
15. Cox IM, Campbell MJ, Dowson D. Red blood cell magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 337:757-760.
16. Durlach J. Clinical aspects of chronic magnesium deficiency. In: Cantin M, Seelig MS, eds. *Magnesium in Health & Disease*, New York: Spectrum, 1980: 883-909.
17. Durlach J. Chronic magnesium deficit, tetany and neuro-vegetative dystonia. *Magnesium Bul* 1981; 3(1a): 121-136 (in French; English abstract).
18. Galland L. Latent tetany-a cross-cultural confirmation. *Magnesium* 1985; 4:204.
19. Classen HG, Achilles W, Bachem. MG et al. Magnesium: Indications concerning diagnosis and treatment in man. *Magnesium Bul* 1986; 8:117-121 (French: 122-126; German:127-131).
20. Durlach J. *Magnesium in Clinical Practice*. (transl by D. Wilson) London, England: John Libbey & Co. Publ, 1988.
21. Fehlinger R. Therapy with magnesium salts in neurological disease. *Magnesium Bull* 1990; 12:35-42.
22. Galland L. Magnesium, stress and neuropsychiatric disorders. *Magnesium Trace Elem* 1991-1992; 10:287-301.

23. Seelig MS. Consequences of magnesium deficiency enhancement of stress reactions; preventive and therapeutic implications. *J Am Coll Nutr* 1994; 12:429-446.
24. Rosselle N, Doncker K. Magnesium-poor tetany in man. *Path Bact* 1959; 7:1835-1847 (in French).
25. Lebrun R. Magnesium and the pathogenesis of idiopathic constitutional spasmophilia. *CR Soc Biol* 1959; 153:1976-1977 (in French).
26. Durlach J, Lebrun R. Importance of hypomagnesemic spasmophilia. *Ann Endocr (Paris)* 1960; 21:244-252 (in French).
27. Nayrac P, Warot P, Milbled G et al. Magnesium and spasmophilia: Statistical, static and dynamic study of blood magnesium in latent normocalcemic tetany. *Lille Med* 1966; 11:411-419 (in French).
28. Poenaru S, Stefanica-Motoc L. Electrophysiological study of latent hypomagnesemia tetany in children. *Electromyography* 1969; 9:131-166 (in French).
29. Poenaru S, Rouhani S, Gueux E et al. Treated hypomagnesemic tetany; electrophysiologic study. *Magnesium Bul* 1983; 5:47-52 (in French; English abstract).
30. Felilinger R, Seidel K. The hyperventilation syndrome: A neurosis or a manifestation of magnesium imbalance? *Magnesium* 1985; 4:129-136.
31. Felilinger R, Kemnitz C, Seidel K et al. Electrolyte contents of serum and erythrocytes of patients with a tetanic syndrome before and after oral treatment with magnesium. *Magnesium Bul* 1987; 9:115-117.
32. Eisinger J. Repetitive electromyographic activity, spasmorhythmia and *spasmophilia*. *Magnesium* 1987; 6:65-73.
33. Seelig MS, Berger AR, Spielholz N. Latent tetany and anxiety, marginal magnesium deficit, and normocalcemia. *Dis Nerv Syst* 1975; 36:461-465.
34. Seelig MS, Berger AR, Avioli LA. Speculations on renal, hormonal, and metabolic aberrations in a patient with marginal magnesium deficiency. In:

Cantin M, Seelig MS. eds. *Magnesium in Health and Disease*, New York: Spectrum Press, 1980:459-468.

35. Friedlander HS. Fatigue as a presenting symptom. Management in general practice. *Curr Therap Res* 1962; 4:441-449.
36. Shaw DL Jr, Chesney MA, Tullis LF et al. Management of fatigue: A physiologic approach. *Am J Med Sci* 1962; 243:758-759.
37. Crescente FJ. Treatment of fatigue in a surgical practice, *J Abd Surg* 1962; 4:73-76.
38. Formica PE. The housewife syndrome. Treatment with the potassium and magnesium salts of aspartic acid. *Curr Therap Res* 1962; 4:98-106.
39. Hicks JT. Treatment of fatigue in general practice: A double-blind study, *Clin Med* 1964; 71:85-90.
40. Laborit H, Favre R, Guittard R et al. Neuromuscular excitability, ionic equilibrium in tissue function. *Presse Med* 1955; 63:223-227 (in French).
41. Laborit H. New physiologic concepts of cardiovascular functions. Therapeutic consequences. In: Bajusz E, ed. *Electrolytes and Cardiovascular Diseases*, 1966; vol 2:239-259.
42. Shepherd C. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 337:1095.
43. Davies S. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 337:9062.
44. Young IS, Trimble ER. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 337:1094-1095.
45. Deulofeu R, Gascon J, Gimenez N et al. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 338:641.
46. Gantz NM. Magnesium and chronic fatigue. *Lancet* 1991; 338:66.
47. Prescott E, Norrgard J, Rotbol-Pedersen L et al. Fibromyalgia and magnesium. *Scand J Rheumatol* 1992; 21:206.

48. Clague JE, Edwards RH, Jackson MJ. Intravenous magnesium loading in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1992; 340:124-125.
49. Cox IM, Campbell MJ, Dowson D. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1991; 337:1295.
50. Howard JM, Davies S, Hunnisett A. Magnesium and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Lancet* 1992; 340:426.
51. Eisinger J, Plantamura A, Marie PA et al. Selenium and magnesium status in fibromyalgia. *Magnesium Res* 1994; 7:285-288.
52. Hinds G, Bell NP, McMaster D et al. Normal red cell magnesium concentrations and magnesium loading tests in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Ann Clin Biochem* 1994; 31 (Pt 5):459-461.
53. Grant JE, Veldee MS, Buchwald D. Analysis of dietary intake and selected nutrient concentrations in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Am Dietet Assoc* 1996; 96:383-386.
54. Takahashi H, Imai K, Katanuma A et al. A case of chronic fatigue syndrome who showed a beneficial effect by intravenous administration of magnesium sulphate. *Arerugi* 1992; 41:1605-1610 (in Japanese; English abstr).
55. Uchida A. Therapy of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Nippon Rinsho* 1992; 50:2679-2683 (in Japanese; English abstr).
56. Clauw DJ, Blank CA, Hewett-Meulman J et al. Low tissue levels of magnesium in fibromyalgia. *Arthr Rheum* 1993; 36(9S):B 118.
57. Hungerford GF, Karson E. The eosinophilia of magnesium deficiency, *Blood* 1960; 16:1642-1650.
58. Poenaru S, Durlach J, Rouhani S et al. Electroclinical analysis of sleep in 100 cases of hypomagnesemic tetany. *Magnesium Bulletin* 1983; 5:19-23 (in French; English abstr).
59. Popoviciu L, Bagathai I, Hobai S et al. Computerized electroencephalographic mapping in hypomagnesian spasmophilic

syndromes. *Neurol. Psychiatr Bucur* 1989; 27:91-97 (abstract in *Magnesium Res* 1989; 2:62-63).

60. Popoviciu L, Asgian B, Delast-Popoviciu D et al. Clinical, EEG, electromyographic and polysomnographic studies in restless legs syndrome caused by magnesium deficiency. *Rom J Neurol Psychiatry* 1993; 31:55-61.

61. Poenaru S, Rouhani S, Gueux E et al. Treated hypomagnesemic tetany; electrophysiologic study. *Magnesium Bul* 1983; 5:47-52 (in French; English abstr).

62. Poenaru S, Rouhani S, Aymard N et al. Cerebral monoamine levels in treated experimental tetania: Correlation with vigilance states. *Magnesium Bul* 1984; 6:142-146.

63. Poenaru S, Rouhani S, Durlach J et al. Vigilance states and cerebral monoamine metabolism in experimental magnesium deficiency. *Magnesium* 1984; 3:145-151.

64. Poenaru S, Rouhani S, Durlach J et al. Magnesium and monoaminergic neurotransmitters: Elements of human and experimental pathophysiology. In: Itokawa Y, Durlach J, eds. *Magnesium in Health and Disease*. London, England: J Libbey Publ, 1989:291-297.

65. Komaroff AL, Buchwald D. Symptoms and signs of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Rev Infect Dis* 199 1; 13 Suppl 1:S8-11.

66. Leventhal W, Naides SJ, Freundlich B. Fibromyalgia and parvovirus infection. *Arthritis Rheum* 199 1; 34:1319-1324.

67. Whelton CL, Salit I, Moldofsky H. Sleep, Epstein-Barr virus infection, musculoskeletal pain, and depressive symptoms in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Rheumatol* 1992; 19:939-943.

68. Shimizu T. Neuro-psychiatric aspects of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Nippon Rinsho* 1992;50:1630-1634 (in Japanese; English abstr).

69. Krupp LB, Jandorf L, Coyle PK et al. Sleep disturbance in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Psychosom Res* 1993; 37:325-331.

70. Moldofsky H. Fibromyalgia, sleep disorder and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Ciba Foundation Sympos* 1993; 173:2 62-271.
71. McCluskey DR. Pharmacological approaches to the therapy of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Ciba Foundation Sympos* 1993; 173:280-287.
72. Morriss R, Sharpe M, Sharpley AL et al. Abnormalities of sleep \*in patients with the chronic fatigue syndrome. *BMJ* 1993; 306:1161-1164.
73. Buchwald D, Pascualy R, Bombardier C et al. Sleep disorders in patients with chronic fatigue. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1:S68-S72.
74. Manu P, Lane TJ, Matthews DA et al. Alpha-delta sleep in patients with a chief complaint of chronic fatigue. *South Med J* 1994; 87:465-470.
75. Moldofsky H. Sleep, neuroimmune and neuroendocrine functions in fibromyalgia and chronic fatigue syndrome. *Adv Neuroimmunol* 1995; 5:39-56.
76. Flink EB. Clinical manifestations of acute magnesium deficiency in man. In: Cantin M, Seelig MS. eds. *Magnesium in Health and Disease*. New York: Spectrum, 1980:865-882.
77. Flink EB, Stutzman FL, Anderson AR et al. Magnesium deficiency after prolonged parenteral fluid administration and after chronic alcoholism complicated by delirium tremens. *J Lab Clin Med* 1954; 43:169-183.
78. Fankushen D, Raskin D, Dimich A et al, The significance of hypomagnesemia in alcoholic patients. *Am J Med* 1964; 37:802-812.
79. Jones JE, Shane SR, Jacobs WH et al. Magnesium balance studies in chronic alcoholism. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1969; 162:934-946.
80. Morrisett RA, Martin D, Wilson WA et al. Prenatal exposure to ethanol decreases the sensitivity of the adult rat hippocampus to N-methyl-D-aspartate. *Alcohol* 1989; 6:415-420.
81. Hoffman L, Tabakoff B. The role of the NMDA receptor in ethanol withdrawal. *EXS* 1994; 71:61-70.

82. Shiekhattar R, Aston-Jones G. NMDA-receptor-mediated sensory responses of brain noradrenergic neurons are suppressed by in vivo concentrations of extracellular magnesium. *Synapse* 1992; 10: 103-109.
83. Smith DH, Okiyama K, Gennarelli TA et al. Magnesium and ketamine attenuate cognitive dysfunction following experimental brain injury. *Neurosci Lett* 1993; 157:211-214.
84. McDonald JW, Silverstein FS, Johnston MV Magnesium reduces N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)-mediated brain injury in perinatal rats. *Neurosci Lett* 1990; 109:234-238.
85. Marrett S, Gressens P, Gadisseux J-F et al. Prevention by magnesium of excitotoxic neuronal death in the developing brain: An animal model for clinical intervention studies. *Dev Med Child Neurol* 1995; 37:473-484.
86. Hoffman DJ, Marro PJ, McGowan JE et al. Protective effect of MgSO<sub>4</sub> infusion on NMDA receptor binding characteristics during cerebral cortical hypoxia in the newborn. piglet. *Brain Res* 1994; 644:144-149.
87. Grafman J, Johnson R Jr., Scheffers M. Cognitive and mood-state changes in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Rev Infect Dis* 1992; 13 Suppl 1: S45-52.
88. Daugherty SA, Henry BE, Peterson DL et al. Chronic fatigue syndrome in northern Nevada. *Rev Infect Dis* 199 1; 13 Suppl 1: S39-44.
89. Jamal GA, Miller RG. Neurophysiology of postviral fatigue syndrome. *Br Med Bull* 1991; 47:815-825.
90. Levine PH, Jacobson S, Picnic AG et al. Clinical, epidemiologic, and virologic studies in four clusters of the chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arch Intern Med* 1992; 152:1611-1616.
91. Ray C, Weir WR, Cullen S et al. Illness perception and symptom components in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Psychosom Res* 1992; 36:243-256.
92. Scheffers MK, Johnson R Jr, Grafman J et al. Attention and short-term memory in chronic fatigue syndrome patients: An event-related potential analysis. *Neurology* 1992; 42:1667-1675.

93. Grafman J, Schwartz V, Dale JK et al. Analysis of neuropsychological functioning in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1993; 56:684-689.
94. Sandman CA, Barron JL, Nackoul K et al. Memory deficits associated with chronic fatigue immune dysfunction syndrome. *Biol Psychiatry* 1993; 33:618-623.
95. Schwartz RB, Garada BM, Kornaroff AL et al. Detection of intracranial abnormalities in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome: Comparison of MR imaging and SPECT. *Am J Roentgenol* 1994; 162:935-94 1.
96. Cope 11, Pernet A, Kendall B et al. Cognitive functioning and magnetic resonance imaging in chronic fatigue. *Br J Psychiatry* 1995; 167:86-94.
97. Joyce E, Blumenthal S, Wessely S. Memory, attention, and executive function in chronic fatigue syndrome. *J Neurol, Neurosurg & Psychiatry* 1996; 60:495-503.
98. Wayoff M 1985; Magnesium deficiency and spasmophilia in the ENT field. In: Halpern MJ and Durlach J eds. *Magnesium Deficiency Physiopathology and Treatment Implications*. (Proc First Eur. Congr. Magnesium. Lisbon 1983), Basel, Switzerland: Karger Publ:219-223.
99. Gabersek V, Durlach J. Electronystagmogram and spasmophilic, form of magnesium deficiency. *J Med Besancon* 1969; 5:361-370 (in French).
100. Hamed TA, Lindeman RD. Dysphagia and vertical nystagmus in magnesium deficiency. *Ann Intern Med* 1978; 89:222-223.
101. Fehlinger R, Meyer ED, Egert M et al. Sudden deafness, latent tetany and magnesium deficiency. *Magnesium Bul* 1985; 7:40-44 (in German; English abstr),
102. Ising H. Magnesium and noise *effects*. *Magnesium Bul* 1981; 3(1a): 155-164.
103. Ising H, Handrock M, Guenther T. Increased noise trauma in guinea pigs through magnesium deficiency. *Arch Otorhinolaryngol* 1982; 236:139-146.

104. Joachims Z, Ising H, Guenther T. Biochemical mechanisms affecting susceptibility to noise-induced hearing loss. In: Rossi G, ed. *Noise as a Public Health Problem*, Proc of the Fourth International Congress, Vol 1, 1983:243-255.
105. Guenther T, Ising H, Joachims Z. Biochemical mechanisms affecting susceptibility to noise-induced hearing loss. *Am J Otolaryngol* 1989; 10:36-41.
106. Joachims Z, Ising H, Guenther T. Noise-induced hearing loss in humans as a function of serum Mg concentration. *Magnesium Bul* 1987; 9:130-131,
107. Attias J, Weisz G, Almog S et al. Oral magnesium intake reduces permanent hearing loss induced by noise exposure. *Am J Otolaryngol* 1994; 15:26-32.
108. Attias J, Joachims Z, Shefi M et al. Increasing oral magnesium intake reduces noise-induced hearing loss. *Magnesium Res* 1994; 7 (Suppl 1):53-54.
109. Ash-Bernal R, Wall C 3rd, Komaroff AL et al. Vestibular function test anomalies in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Acta Otolaryngol Stockh* 1995; 115:9-17.
110. Clauw DJ. The pathogenesis of chronic pain and fatigue syndromes, with special reference to fibromyalgia. *Med Hypoth* 1995; 44:369-378.
111. Furman JM. Testing of vestibular function: An adjunct in the assessment of chronic fatigue syndrome. *Rev Infect Dis* 199 1; 13 Suppl 1: S 109-S 111.
112. Behan PO, Behan WM, Gow JW et al. Enteroviruses and postviral fatigue syndrome. *Ciba Foundation Sympos* 1993; 173:146-154.
113. Fehlinger R, Kemnitz C, Dreibig P et al. Prematurity, latent tetany and magnesium deficiency: A retrospective study with 132 mothers. *Magnesium Bul* 1984; 6:52-59 (in German, English abstr).
114. Fauk D, Fehlinger R, Becker R et al. Transient cerebral ischaemic attacks and calcium-magnesium imbalance: Clinical and paraclinical.

findings in 106 patients under 50 years of age. *Magnesium Res* 1991; 4:53-58.

115. Weaver K. Magnesium and migraine: Reversible hypomagnesemic coagulative angiopathy. Hypothesis and preliminary clinical data. *J Am Coll Nutr* 1983; 1:288.

116. Moore MP, Redman CWG. Case control study of severe eclampsia of early onset. *BMJ* 1983; 287:580-583.

117. Weaver K. Pregnancy-induced hypertension and low birth weight in magnesium-deficient ewes. *Magnesium* 1986; 5:191-200.

118. Weaver K. Migraine and magnesium. *Perspect Biol Med* 1989; 33:150-151.

119. Weaver K. Magnesium and migraine. *Headache* 1990; 30:168.

120. Seelig MS. Interrelationship of magnesium and estrogen in cardiovascular and bone disorders, eclampsia, migraine and premenstrual syndrome. *J Am Coll Nutr* 1993; 12:442-458.

121. Ramadan NM, Halvorson H, Vande-Linde A et al. Low brain magnesium in migraine, *Headache* 1989; 29:416-419.

122. Schoenen J, Sianard-Gainko J, Lenaerts M. Blood magnesium levels in migraine. *Cephalalgia* 1991; 11:97-99.

123. Sarchielli P, Coata G, Firenze C et al. Serum and salivary magnesium levels in migraine and tension-type headache. Results in a group of adult patients. *Cephalalgia* 1992; 12:21-27.

124. Thomas J, Thomas E, Tomb E. Serum and erythrocyte magnesium concentrations and migraine. *Magnesium Res* 1992; 5:127-130.

125. Gallai V, Sarchielli P, Morucci P et al. Red blood cell magnesium levels in migraine patients. *Cephalalgia* 1993; 13:84-88.

126. Arcudi D, Mazzotta D, Battistella PA et al. Serum and red blood cell magnesium levels in juvenile migraine patients. *Headache* 1995; 35:14-16.

127. Gallai V, Sarchielli P, Morucci P. Magnesium content of mononuclear blood cells in migraine patients. *Headache* 1994; 34:160-165.
128. Mauskop A, Altura BT, Cracco RQ et al. Deficiency in serum ionized magnesium but not total magnesium in patients with migraines. Possible role of  $ICa^{2+}/IMg^{2+}$  ratio. *Headache* 1993; 3:135-138.
129. Mauskop A, Altura BT, Cracco RQ et al. Chronic daily headache-one disease or two? Diagnostic role of serum ionized magnesium. *Cephalalgia* 1994; 14:24-28.
130. Mauskop A, Altura BT, Cracco RQ et al. Intravenous magnesium sulfate relieves cluster headaches in patients with low serum ionized magnesium levels. *Headache* 1995; 35:597-600.
131. Swanson DR. Migraine and magnesium: Eleven neglected connections. *Perspectives Biol Med* 1988; 31:526-557.
132. McCarty W. Magnesium taurate and fish oil for prevention of migraine. *Medical Hypothesis* 1996; 47:461-466.
133. Facchinetti F, Sances G, Borella P et al. Magnesium prophylaxis of menstrual migraine: Effects on intracellular magnesium. *Headache* 1991; 31: 298-301.
134. Taubert K. Magnesium in migraine. Results of a multicenter pilot study. *Fortschr Med* 1994; 112:328-330 (in German; English abstr).
135. Hudson JI, Goldenberg DL, Pope HG Jr et al. Comorbidity of fibromyalgia with medical and psychiatric disorders. *Am J Med* 1992; 92:363-367.
136. Bell DS, Bell KM, Cheney PR et al. Primary juvenile fibromyalgia syndrome and chronic fatigue syndrome in adolescents. *Clin Infect Dis* 18 Suppl 1:S21-S23.
137. Blondel-Hill E, Shafran SD. Treatment of the chronic fatigue syndrome. A review and practical guide. *Drugs* 1993; 46:639-651.
138. Amundson LH. Fibromyalgia syndrome-A review. *Am Family Physician* 1996; 53:1698-1704.

139. Durlach J, Vernajoul F de, Poenaru S et al. Latent tetany due to chronic Mg deficit and idiopathic mitral valve prolapse (Barlow's disease): Studies of echoelectroclinical *correlations*. *Magnesium Bul* 1982; 4:55-61 (in French; English abstr).
140. Durlach J, Lutfalla G, Poenaru S et al. Latent tetany and mitral valve prolapse due to chronic primary magnesium deficit. In: Halpern MJ, Durlach J, eds *Magnesium Deficiency Physiopathology and Treatment Implications*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger, 1985:102-112.
141. Galland L. Magnesium deficiency in mitral valve prolapse. In: Halpern MJ, Durlach J, eds., *Magnesium Deficiency, Physiopathology and Treatment Implications*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger Publ, 1985:117-119.
142. Simoes Fernandes J, Pereira T, Carvalho J et al. Therapeutic effect of a magnesium salt in patients suffering from mitral valvular prolapse and latent tetany. *Magnesium* 1985; 4:283-290.
143. Frances Y, Collet F, Luccioni R. Long term follow-up of mitral valve prolapse and latent tetany. *Magnesium* 1986; 5:175-181.
144. Reba A, Lutfalla G, Pailleret JJ. Latent tetany due to magnesium deficit and billowing or prolapse of the mitral valve? *Magnesium Bul* 1986; 8:268.
145. Cohen L, Bitterman H, Grenadier E et al. Idiopathic magnesium deficiency in mitral valve prolapse. *Am J Cardiol* 1986; 57:486-487.
146. Galland LD, Baker M, McLellan RK. Magnesium deficiency in the pathogenesis of mitral valve prolapse. *Magnesium* 1986; 5:165-174.
147. Reba A, Lutfalla G, Galland L et al. Abnormal mitral valve function in chronic magnesium deficiency. *Magnesium* 1987; 6:160.
148. Zeana CD. Recent data on mitral valve prolapse and magnesium deficit. *Magnesium Res* 1988; 1:203-211.
149. Raica A, Popa I, Berinda L et al. Mitral valve prolapse and hypomagnesemia. *Magnesium Res* 1993; 6:396-397.

150. Langsjoen PH, Langsjoen PH, Folkers K. Isolated diastolic dysfunction of the myocardium. and its response to CoQ10 treatment. *Clin Investig* 1993; 71(8 Suppl): S 140-S 144.
151. Durlach J. Experimental and clinical relations between magnesium and hypersensitivity. *Rev Franc Allergol* 1975; 15:133-146 (in French).
152. Wayoff M, Moneret-Vautrin J, Gazel P. Vasomotor rhinitis and vasomotor tests. *Ann Otolaryng Paris* 1978; 95:211-2189 (in French).
153. Moneret-Vautrin DA, Grillat JP, Laxenaire MC et al. Differential clinical profile of allergic rhinitis, vasomotor non-allergic rhinitis and nasal polyposis. *Med Hyg* 1980; 38:119-126 (French).
154. Chyrek-Borowska S, Obrzut D, Hofman J. The relation between magnesium, blood histamine level and eosinophilia in the acute stage of the allergic reactions in humans. *Arch Immunol Ther Exp Warsz* 1978; 26:709-712.
155. Fantidis P, Ruiz-Cacho J, Marin M et al. Intracellular (polymorphonuclear) magnesium content in patients with bronchial asthma between attacks. *J R Soc Med* 1995; 88:441-445.
156. Rolla G, Bucca C, Bugiani M et al. Reduction of histamine-induced bronchoconstriction by magnesium in asthmatic subjects. *Allergy* 1987; 42:186-188.
157. Okayama H, Aikawa T, Okayama M et al. Bronchodilating effect of magnesium sulfate in bronchial asthma. *JAMA* 1988; 257:1076-1078.
158. Skobeloff EM, Spivey WH, McNamara RM et al. Intravenous magnesium sulfate for the treatment of acute asthma in the emergency department. *JAMA* 1989; 262:1210-1213.
159. Okayama H, Okayama M, Aikawa T et al. Treatment of status asthmaticus with intravenous magnesium sulfate. *J Asthma* 199 1; 28:11-17.
160. Kuitert LM, Kletchko SL. Intravenous magnesium sulfate in acute, life-threatening asthma. *Ann Emerg Med* 1991; 21:1243-1245.

161. Fesmire FM. Intravenous magnesium for acute asthma. *Ann Emerg Med* 1993; 22:616-617.
162. Bloch H, Silverman R, Mancherje N et al. Intravenous magnesium sulfate as an adjunct in the treatment of acute asthma. *Chest* 1995; 107:1576-1581.
163. Britton J, Pavord I, Richards K et al. Dietary magnesium, lung function, wheezing, and airway hyper-reactivity in a random adult population sample. *Lancet* 1994; 344:357-362.
164. Galland L. Normocalcemic tetany and candidiasis. *Magnesium* 1985; 4:339-344.
165. Bates DW, Buchwald D, Lee J et al. Clinical laboratory test findings in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arch Intern Med* 1995; 155:97-103.
166. Landay AL, Jessop C, Lennette ET et al. Chronic fatigue syndrome: Clinical condition associated with immune activation. *Lancet* 1991; 338:707-712.
167. Chao CC, Janoff EN, Hu SX et al. Altered cytokine release in peripheral blood mononuclear cell cultures from patients with the chronic fatigue syndrome. *Cytokine* 1991; 3:292-298.
168. Matsumoto Y, Ninomiya S. Allergy among Japanese patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arerugi* 1992; 41:1722-1725 (in Japanese; English abstr).
169. Conti F, Magrini L, Priori R et al. Eosinophil cationic protein serum levels and allergy in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Allergy* 1996; 51:124-127.
170. Ojo-Amaize EA, Conley EJ, Peter JB. Decreased natural killer cell activity is associated with severity of chronic fatigue immune dysfunction syndrome. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1: S 157-S 159.
171. Drago F, Romagnoli M, Loi A et al. Epstein-Barr virus-related persistent erythema multiforme in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Arch Dermatol* 1992; 128: 217-222.

172. Kawai K, Kawai A. Studies on the relationship between chronic fatigue syndrome and Epstein-Barr virus in Japan. *Intern Med* 1991; 31:313-318.

173. Ablashi DV, Zompetta C, Lease C et al. Human herpesvirus 6 (HHV6) and chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS). *Can Dis WklyRep* 1991; 17 Suppl IE: 33-40.

174. Berneman ZN, Ablashi DV, Li G et al. Human herpesvirus 7 is a T-lymphotropic virus and is related to, but significantly different from, human herpesvirus 6 and human cytomegalovirus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1992; 89:10552-10556.

175. Cunningham L, Bowles NE, Archard LC. Persistent virus infection of muscle in postviral fatigue syndrome. *Br Med Bull* 1991; 47:852-871.

176. Behan PO, Behan WM, Gow JW et al. Enteroviruses and postviral fatigue syndrome. *Ciba Foundation Sympos* 1993; 173:146-154; discussion 154-159.

177. Bowles NE, Bayston TA, Zhang HY et al. Persistence of enterovirus RNA in muscle biopsy samples suggests that some cases of chronic fatigue syndrome result from a previous, inflammatory viral myopathy. *J Med* 1993; 24:145-160.

178. Leventhal U, Naides SJ, Freundlich B. Fibromyalgia and parvovirus infection. *Arthritis Rheum* 1991; 34:1319-1324.

179. Gow JW, Behan WM, Simpson K et al. Studies on enterovirus in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1:S 126-129.

180. Swanink CM, van der Meer JW, Vercoulen JH et al. The Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) and the chronic fatigue syndrome: Normal virus load in blood and normal immunologic reactivity in the EBV regression assay. *Clin Infect Dis* 1995; 20:1390-1392.

181. Wessely S, Chalder T, Hirsch S et al. Postinfectious fatigue: Prospective cohort study in primary care. *Lancet* 1995; 345:1333-1338.

182. Hotopf M, Noah N, Wessely S. Chronic fatigue and minor psychiatric morbidity after viral meningitis-a controlled study. *J Neurol, Neurosurg, Psychiatry* 1996; 60:504-509.
183. Evans AS. Chronic fatigue syndrome: Thoughts on pathogenesis. *Rev Infect Dis* 1991; 13 Suppl 1:S56-S59.
184. Levine PH, Peterson D, McNamee FL et al. Does chronic fatigue syndrome predispose to non-Hodgkin's lymphoma? *Cancer Res* 1992; 52 (19 Suppl): 5516s-5518s; discussion 5518s-5521s.
185. Levine PH, Atherton M, Fears T et al. An approach to studies of cancer subsequent to clusters of chronic fatigue syndrome: Use of data from the Nevada State Cancer Registry. *Clin Infect Dis* 1994; 18 Suppl 1:S49-S53.
186. Henrotte JG, Hannoun C, Dausset J. Relationship between red blood cell magnesium and serum antibody levels following influenza vaccination in man. *Magnesium Bul* 1982; 4:135-140 (in French; English abstr).
187. Henrotte JG, Hannoun C, Benech A et al. Relationship between postvaccinal anti-influenza antibodies, blood magnesium levels, and HLA antigens. *Hum Immunol* 1985; 12:1-8.
188. Belanger LF, VanErkel GA, Jakerow A. Behavior of the dermal mast cells in magnesium-deficient rats. *Science* 1957; 126:29-30.
189. Bois P. Effect of magnesium deficiency on mast cells and urinary histamine in rats. *Brit J Exper Path* 1963; 64:151-155.
190. Gaudin-Harding F, Claverie-Benureau S, Armier J et al. Aromatic amines (serotonin and histamine) and magnesium deficiency in the rat. *Intl Vit Nutr Res* 1980; 50:185-192.
191. Weglicki WB, Phillips TM, Tong Mak I et al. Cytokines, neuropeptides, and reperfusion injury during magnesium deficiency. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1994; 723:246-257.
192. Flynn A, Yen BR. Mineral deficiency effects on the generation of cytotoxic T-cells and T-helper cell factors in vitro. *J Nutr* 1981; 111:907-913.

193. Bois P, Beelines A. Histamine, magnesium deficiency, and thymic tumors in rats. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 1966; 44:373-377.
194. Bois P. Peripheral vasodilatation and thymic tumors in magnesium deficient rats. In: Jasmin G, ed. *Endocrine Aspects of Disease Processes*. St Louis: WH Greene Publ, 1968:337-355.
195. Hass GM, Laing GH, Galt RM et al. Recent advances: Immunopathology of magnesium deficiency in rats: Induction of tumors; incidence, transmission and prevention of lymphoma-leukemia. *Magnesium Bul* 198 1; 3:217-228.
196. Aleksandrowicz J, Skotnicki AB. (transl by E Nowak): *Leukemia Ecology. Ecological Prophylaxis of Leukemia*. 1982. (Avail. from U.S. Dept. Commerce, Nail. Techn Inform Serv Springfield VA 22161.)
197. Gates GA, Cobb JL, D'Agostino RB et al. The relation of hearing in the elderly to the presence of cardiovascular disease and cardiovascular risk factors. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 1993; 119:156-161.
198. Seelig MS. The requirement of magnesium by the normal adult. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1964; 14:342-390.
199. Lakshmanan FL, Rao RB, Kim WW et al. Magnesium intakes, balances, and blood levels of adults consuming self-selected diets. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1984; 40:1380-1389.
200. Lichton 11 Dietary intake levels and requirements of Mg and Ca for different segments of the U.S. population. *Magnesium* 1989; 8:117-123.
201. Pennington JA, Young BE, Wilson DB. Nutritional elements in U.S. diets: Results from the Total Diet Study, 1982 to 1986. *J Am Diet Assoc* 1989; 89:659-664.
202. Seelig MS, Heggtveit HA. Magnesium interrelationships in ischemic heart disease: A review. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1972; 27:59-79.
203. Seelig MS. Myocardial loss of functional magnesium. II In cardiomyopathies of different etiology. In: Bajusz E, Rona G, eds. *Recent Advances in Studies on Cardiac Structure and Metabolism I*, Baltimore: University Park Press, 1972:626-638.

204. Seelig MS. Prenatal and genetic magnesium deficiency in cardiomyopathy: Possible vitamin and trace mineral interactions. In: Lifshitz F, ed. *Childhood Nutrition*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1995:197-224.
205. Franz KB. Hearing thresholds of rats fed different levels of magnesium for two weeks. *J Am Coll Nutr* 1992; 11: 612.
206. Durlach J. The pill and thrombosis: Platelets, estrogen and magnesium. *Rev Fr Endocrinol Clin* 1970; 11:45-54 (in French).
207. Nigam S, Averdunk R, Guenther T. Alteration of prostanoid metabolism in rats with magnesium deficiency. *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes Med* 1986; 23:1-10.
208. Nadler JL, Goodson S, Rude K. Evidence that prostacyclin mediates the vascular action of magnesium in humans. *Hypertension* 1987; 9:379-383.
209. Nadler JL, Buchanan T, Natarajan R et al. Magnesium deficiency produces insulin resistance and increased thromboxane synthesis. *Hypertension* 1993; 21(6 Pt 2):1024-1029.
210. Allen GS, Gross CJ, Henderson LM et al. Cerebral arterial spasm. Part 4: in vitro effects of temperature, serotonin analogues, large nonphysiological concentrations of serotonin, and extracellular calcium and magnesium on serotonin- induced contractions of the canine basilar artery. *J Neurosurg* 1976; 44:585-593.
211. Anthony M. Serotonin and cyclic nucleotides in migraine. *Adv Neural* 1982; 33:45-49.
212. Lauritzen M, Olesen TS, Lassen NA et al. Changes in regional cerebral blood flow during the course of classic migraine attacks. *Ann Neurol* 1983; 13:633-641.
213. Olesen J, Friberg L, Clesen TS et al. Changes in regional cerebral blood flow during the course of classic migraine attacks. *Ann Neurol* 1990; 28:791-798.
214. Welch KM, D'Andrea G, Tepley N et al. The concept of migraine as a state of central neuronal hyperexcitability. *Neurol Clin* 1990; 8:817-828.

215. Kruse HD, Crent ER, McCollum EV. Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals. 1. Symptomatology resulting from magnesium deprivation. *J Biol Chem* 1932; 96:519-539.
216. Chutkow JG, Grabow JD. Clinical and chemical correlations in magnesium-deprivation encephalopathy of young rats. *Am J Physiol* 1972; 223: 1407-1414.
217. Flink EB. Magnesium deficiency. Etiology and clinical spectrum. *Acta Med Scand* 1981; suppl 647:125-138.
218. Morris ME. Brain and CSF magnesium concentrations during magnesium deficit in animals and humans: neurological symptoms. *Magnesium Res* 1992; 5:303-313.
219. Ault B, Evans RH, Francis AA et al. Selective depression of excitatory amino acid induced depolarizations by magnesium ions in isolated spinal cord preparations. *J Physiol* London 1980; 307:413-428.
220. Weglicki WB, Phillips TM. Pathobiology of magnesium deficiency: A cytokine neurogenic inflammation hypothesis. *Am J Physiol* 1992; 263(3 Pt 2): R734-737.
221. Elin RJ. Assessment of magnesium status. In: Itokawa Y, Durlach J, eds. *Magnesium in Health and Disease*, London, England: J Libbey Publ, 1989: 137-146,
222. Elin J. Magnesium: The fifth but forgotten electrolyte. *Am Clin Pathol* 1994; 102:616-622,
223. Altura BM, Lewestam A. (Eds) Unique magnesium-sensitive ion selective electrodes. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 1994; 54 Suppl 217:1-100.
224. Altura BT, Altura BM. Measurement of ionized magnesium in whole blood, plasma and serum with a new ion-selective electrode in healthy and diseased human subjects. *Magnesium Trace Elements* 1991-1992; 10:90-98.
225. Seelig MS, Altura BA. Editorial: How best to determine magnesium status; a new laboratory test worth trying. *Nutr Intl J Appl & Basic Nutr Sci* 1997; 13:376-377.

226. Elin RJ. Status of the mononuclear blood cell magnesium assay. *J Am Coll Nutr* 1987; 6:105-107.
227. Baker SM. Magnesium in primary care and preventive medicine: Clinical correlation of magnesium loading studies. *Magnesium Trace Elem* 1991-1992; 10:251-262.
228. Gullestad L, Midtvedt K, Dolva LO et al. The magnesium loading test: Reference values in healthy subjects. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 1994; 54:23-31.
229. Rogers SA. Unrecognized magnesium deficiency masquerades as diverse symptoms: Evaluation of an oral magnesium challenge test. *Intl Clin Nutr Rev* 1991; 11:117-125.
230. Silver BB, Haigney MCP, Schulman SP et al. A unique non-invasive intracellular magnesium assay correlating with cardiac tissues, arrhythmias, and therapeutic intervention. In: Theophanides T, Anastassopoulos J, eds. *Magnesium: Current Status and New Developments, Theoretical, Biological and Medical Aspects*, Dordrecht, Netherlands, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1997:235-240.
231. Haigney MC, Silver B, Tanglao E et al. Noninvasive measurement of tissue magnesium and correlation with cardiac levels. *Circulation* 1995; 92:2190-2197.
232. Cox RH, Shealy CN, Cady RK et al. Significant magnesium deficiency in depression. *J Neurol Orthop Med Surg* 1996; 17:7-9.
233. Shealy CN. Electromagnetic dysthymia. *J Neurol Orthop Med Surg* 1997; 17:193-195.
234. Shealey CN, Silver B, Murrell M et al. Intracellular magnesium deficiency in chronic disease. (Submitted for publication. 1997.)
235. Amason BG. Nervous system-immune system communication. *Rev Infect Dis* 1991; 13 Suppl 1:S134-137.
236. Meggs WJ. Neurogenic switching: A hypothesis for a mechanism for shifting the site of inflammation in allergy and chemical sensitivity. *Environm Health Perspectives* 1995; 103:54-55.

237. Weglicki WB, Freedman AM, Bloom S et al. Antioxidants and the cardiomyopathy of Mg deficiency. *Am J Cardiovasc Path* 1992; 4:210-215.

238. Weglicki WB, Mak IT, Kramer JH. Role of free radicals and substance P in magnesium deficiency. Cardiovascular Mystery Series, *Cardiovasc Res* 1996; 31:677-682.

239. Cheney PR. CFIDS treatment: The Cheney Clinic's strategic approach. *CFIDS Chronicle* 1994; Spring: 1-3.

---

is: 